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# Learning the Narrative Characteristic: Perspective Taking in Written Japanese as a Foreign Language

Akiko Kashiwagi-Wood

Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, Oakland University, Michigan, U.S.A.

**Abstract**—Narratives written by L2 learners are often awkward even after linguistic elements such as grammatical errors and vocabulary choices are corrected. This unnaturalness may be caused by not exploiting the appropriate cultural and language specific aspects in the target language. The current study focuses on a narrative characteristic of Japanese; perspective taking consistency in writing a story, and the uses of its associated structures. By examining intermediate L2 learners of Japanese whose L1 is English, this study seeks to prove whether classroom instruction helps to overcome unnaturalness caused by the inappropriate uses of perspective taking and not using its associated structures in the short- and long terms. The results of this study show that instruction helps L2 learners to maintain the consistent perspective both in the short- and long-terms. However, the instruction seems to have not affected the L2 learners' utilization of a variety of perspective taking structures. Taken together, this study offers implications for earlier instruction on the learning of the narrative characteristic.

**Index Terms**—L2 writing, perspective taking, instruction, Japanese

## I. INTRODUCTION

Narrating a story is essential to our social life. People tell stories about a description of actual or fictional events, and people tell stories to share their experiences or express their feelings (Johnstone, 2001). This activity is universal, but at the same time, it is one of the most challenging language activities for second language (L2) learners (Ellis, 1987; Robinson, 1995), because there are culture and language specific aspects in storytelling (Labov, 1972, 1997, 2006; Tannen, 1982). While unnaturalness in L2 storytelling may be caused by aspects such as grammatical errors and vocabulary choices, not appropriately exploiting the culture and language specific aspects can be quite obtrusive and should not be overlooked. However, this issue is not adequately taught in the formal language teaching setting.

There are many studies, which focus their investigations on the macro-level of L2 narratives. Many of these studies have undertaken L1 influence on narrative structures and coherence (e.g., Kang, 2003, 2006; Lee, 2003; McClure, Mir, & Cadierno, 1993). The current study, however, focuses on the micro-level, particularly language specific linguistic elements that can also influence the macro-level in L2 narratives; namely perspective taking. The importance of perspective taking in storytelling has been discussed in the previous literature. For example, Slobin (2000) writes that “one cannot verbalize experience without taking a perspective, and, further, that the language being used often favors particular perspectives” (Slobin, 2000: 107). Perspective taking - also referred to as viewpoint and/or construal - shows individuals' physical and/or psychological standpoint in depicting an event and it also shows how individuals perceive, comprehend and interpret the world around them (Ikegami, 1982, 2011; Kuno, 1978). This indicates that each language has a specific way of incorporating perspective taking in its storytelling. For example, suppose you saw a boy knock over a flower vase and the vase ends up broken on the floor. In English, an agentive description such as “The boy broke the vase,” is appropriate. In Japanese, on the other hand, the direct translation of the previous agentive English sentence would possess the tone of accusation towards the boy, assuming that he deliberately broke the vase. Thus, the agentive sentence may be inappropriate in Japanese, if the boy didn't have any intentionality to do so. To avoid the misunderstanding and in order to properly express the speaker's perspective of an event, one may take advantage of different structures, such as active and passive voices.

Keeping a particular perspective in storytelling, i.e., consistency of perspective taking, is considered one of the key factors in Japanese narratives. To do so, Japanese utilizes a variety of structures to keep the subject/agent constant. This is extremely important because Japanese is a pro-drop language, which allows certain classes of pronouns such as subject/agent to be omitted when they are pragmatically or grammatically inferable, and thus, inconsistency in perspective taking affects comprehensibility of the text (Ikegami, 1982). This narrative characteristic is not dominant in English since English prefers to change the subject/agent to keep the active voice throughout the story. The difference in narrative characteristics between the two languages poses mainly two challenges for English native speakers learning Japanese: the first is maintaining consistency in perspective taking throughout their story, and the second is learning and using appropriate grammatical structures to keep that perspective consistent. Considering this, the current study examines perspective taking in written storytelling by English native Japanese as a foreign language (L2 Japanese)

learners, and further seeks to prove whether classroom instruction helps to overcome unnaturalness in L2 narratives.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Perspective Taking in Japanese Narratives

There are normally several ways to depict an event without altering its logical contents. For example, the following two sentences describe the same event. However, the perspectives from which they are depicted are different.

- (1) The man offered a seat to the old lady.
- (2) The old lady was offered a seat by the man.

Example (1) takes the perspective of 'the man' and depicts him as the active agent in the event. Example (2), on the contrary, takes the perspective of 'the old lady' and depicts her as the active recipient in the event. When Example (1) is translated into Japanese, the following sentence will be formed, which is perfectly grammatical, but not necessarily appropriate in a certain context.

- (3) Otokonohito-ga obaasan-ni seki-o yuzutta.  
Man-NOM<sup>1</sup> old lady-DAT seat-ACC offered  
'The man offered a seat to the old lady.'

In Japanese, whether the speaker feels psychologically closer to the man or to the old lady, or is simply depicting an event objectively and not taking any side, influences the sentence structure. For example, Example (3) is an instance of an objective statement. The speaker is not psychologically close to, or not acquainted, with the man nor the old lady, and that can be understood from the verb, *yuzutta* 'offered' without any auxiliary verbs attached to it. On the other hand, Examples (4) and (5) with the benefactive auxiliary verbs, '*-te ageru*' and '*-te kureru*', respectively, express the speaker's 'empathy' towards the persons involved in the event.

- (4) Otokonohito-ga obaasan-ni seki-o yuzutte-ageta.  
Man-NOM old lady-DAT seat-ACC offer-gave (to someone/out-group).  
'The man offered a seat to the old lady (and what a nice thing he did for the old lady).'
- (5) Otokonohito-ga obaasan-ni seki-o yuzutte-kureta.  
Man-NOM old lady-DAT seat-ACC offer-gave (to me/in-group).  
'The man offered a seat to the old lady (and I thank him for doing that for her).'

Kuno & Kaburaki (1977), followed by Kuno (1987), proposed the idea of empathy in Japanese. According to them, one chooses to place oneself in relation to the elements involved in a sentence when depicting an event in Japanese. That is, the speaker chooses a 'camera placement' about where to place oneself with respect to the events. What is expressed in the parentheses in Examples (4) and (5) are the representations of the speaker's empathy. In other words, the speaker is choosing the specific 'camera placement' to show the 'empathy' towards the man in Example (4) and the speaker is showing the 'empathy' towards the old lady in Example (5). The benefactive auxiliary verbs *-te ageru* (give benefit to someone else/out-group) and *-te kureru* (give benefit to me/in-group) are one of those structures that express the speaker's 'empathy' towards people or things in an event, and in the case of storytelling, they imply camera placement, i.e., taking a perspective from which the story is told.

Various structures are associated with articulating 'empathy' and perspective in Japanese narratives. As discussed previously, the benefactive auxiliary verbs *-te kureru* (give benefit to me/in-group), *-te ageru* (give benefit to someone else/out-group) and *-te morau* (receive benefit to me/in-group) are frequently used to indicate how one perceives or feels about an event. Additionally, moving verbs and moving auxiliary verbs (*-te iku* 'move away', *-te kuru* 'come towards'), passive voice, as well as subjective and emotional expressions can be utilized in storytelling to indicate consistency in perspectives (Ikegami, 1982, 2011; Kuno, 1978, 1987; Kuno & Kaburaki, 1977).

### B. Perspective Taking in L2 Japanese

Previous L2 Japanese studies, which were conducted to explore this topic, have found that L2 learners tend to have inconsistencies in perspective taking when writing a story (e.g., Kim, 2007; Okugawa, 2007; Sakamoto, Kang & Moriwaki, 2014; Tashiro, 1995; Wei 2010a, 2010b). For example, Okugawa (2007) compared written narratives produced by intermediate and advanced level Chinese native L2 learners of Japanese and Japanese native speakers. Using a British-Swiss silent animation, *Pingu* the Penguin, the participants were asked to write a story based on what they have watched. The analyses focused on what was being depicted and from which perspective the event was depicted. What was found from Okugawa's analyses are that the native speakers kept the perspective consistent whereas the intermediate and advanced level learners did not when writing a story.

Many of the previous L2 Japanese studies examined Asian first language (L1) learners of Japanese as their participants. However, there are a few studies, which included L1 English learners as their participants and obtained similar results. For instance, Yabuki-Soh (2017) examined intermediate high and advance level L2 learners of Japanese studying at a Canadian university. The participants were 15 each from Chinese L1, Korean L1 and English L1 and compared their writings with those of native speakers. Using a 10-panel comic strip, which had several characters who

<sup>1</sup> ACC = Accusative case, DAT = Dative case, NOM = Nominative case, TOP = Topic marker



could have been an agent of sentences, her study again showed that the native speakers tended to tell a story from one character's perspective whereas L2 learners tended to write a story from the perspective of an active participant of the action in the event, regardless of their L1.

Although these previous studies have not conducted statistical analyses, they provide useful insights. That is, Japanese native speakers tend to write with consistent perspective. On the contrary, L2 learners of Japanese tend to demonstrate inconsistency in perspective even at advanced proficiency level regardless of their L1. These outcomes may be due to the lack of instruction on cultural and language specific characteristics in Japanese narratives. For this reason, we will now look at the previous L2 Japanese studies, which examined the effect of instruction on perspective consistency.

To the extent of my knowledge, only a few studies investigated the effect of instruction on the use of perspective expressions and its consistency in storytelling. These studies do not necessarily provide in depth descriptions of what their 'instruction' entails. However, they do seem to call 'instruction' something that they tell participants to do at the time of data collection and not necessarily class time dedicated for teaching and practicing. A study by Watanabe (2012) examined the effect of instruction on the uses of perspective expressions in intermediate and advanced L2 Japanese learners with various L1 (Chinese, Korean, Mongolian, Burmese, Malaysian). Watanabe divided the participants into 4 groups: 1) instruction group: 23 learners studying Japanese at a university in Japan, and 2) no-instruction group: 11 learners studying Japanese in Japan, and 3) no-instruction group: 15 learners studying Japanese in China, and 4) 47 Japanese native college students. Similarly to Okugawa (2007), Watanabe used the British-Swiss silent animation, *Pingu* the Penguin, and asked the participants to write the story they watched. The participants of the instruction group were informed that Japanese requires consistency in perspective taking when telling a story, and in order to do so, keeping the same subject/agent is necessary. The participants were also informed that different types of sentences, specifically passive voice and benefactive auxiliary verbs, can be used to indicate and control perspectives. At the time of data collection, the instruction group was told to write the story from the main character (*Pingu*)'s perspective. There were no statistical analyses conducted for this study, but with no surprise, the results indicated that the instruction group showed more coherent subject/agent chains. As for the two specific perspective structures, the instruction group overly used passive voice, but the frequencies of benefactive auxiliary verbs between the instruction and no-instruction groups seemed to not be as different from one another.

Another research by Wei (2010a, 2010b) conducted a study using a comic strip and examined perspective consistency in the story writing of intermediate and advanced level Taiwanese learners of Japanese and compared it with Japanese native speakers. Wei divided the participants into two groups each for intermediate and advanced proficiency levels and Japanese native speakers (6 groups total; 1 instruction group each in intermediate, advanced and native, 1 no-instruction group each in intermediate advanced and native). The no-instruction groups were simply asked to describe the comic strip without any restrictions. The instruction groups were told to describe the comic strips as though they were one of the characters. From the analyses of the no-instruction groups, it was revealed that Japanese native group used more benefactive and movement structures than the intermediate and advanced learner groups. The no-instruction learner groups, on the other hand, used more emotional expressions. Comparing the instruction groups, similar to Watanabe (2012), Wei found that both intermediate and advanced instruction groups kept the same perspective throughout their stories, similarly to the native speaker group. Wei further found that the benefactive auxiliary verbs were rarely used by the intermediate group with instruction. However, the advanced group with instruction used a variety of perspective expressions more similarly to the native speaker group, including benefactive auxiliary verbs.

Both Watanabe (2012) and Wei (2010a, 2010b) showed that L2 learners of Japanese demonstrate perspective consistency in their storytelling when directed to do so. Furthermore, they illuminated that a simple instruction at the time of data collection is not enough for L2 learners to appropriately utilize the perspective taking structures. Particularly, the giving/receiving benefactive auxiliary verbs seem to cause a challenge for them. Although these studies compared instruction and no-instruction groups, it is important to reiterate that their focus was not on instruction. The instruction groups in these studies were told to write from a certain character's perspective at the time of data collection. With that in mind, it is no wonder that the instruction groups showed more consistency in perspective taking.

In sum, while there have been a number of studies on perspective consistency in L2 Japanese narratives, there still remain areas to explore. Firstly, despite the fact that the structures associated with perspective taking in Japanese are introduced in beginner level textbooks, the previous studies mainly investigated the performance of higher proficiency level learners. By the time L2 learners of Japanese enter the intermediate proficiency level, they already have the knowledge of the necessary sentence structures, if not mastered, for articulating perspective consistency in their narratives. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), which is a premier national organization for foreign language teachers in the U.S., states in their proficiency rating criteria that L2 learners at Intermediate High level "can narrate and describe in different time frames when writing about everyday events and situations" (ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 2012, Writing). That means L2 learners will need to learn the language specific narrative characteristics to achieve the Intermediate High or higher level of proficiency. Thus, more studies examining the performance of intermediate level learners are required. Secondly, based on the findings from extensive L2 research, it is now widely accepted that instruction indeed influences the L2 learning process (e.g., Doughty, 2003;

Ellis, 1994; Spada, 1986). Therefore, it is important to shed light on the effectiveness of ‘classroom’ instruction and its long-term effect on the current issue. And lastly, only a limited amount of research has been done on L2 learners whose L1 is English, and it is important to have more non-Asian language background learners to provide more comprehensive understanding. All taken together, the current study addresses these shortcomings by examining stories written by English native L2 learners of Japanese whose proficiency level are at the intermediate level. Furthermore, the short-term and long-term effect of classroom instruction on their uses of perspective consistency will be explored.

### III. METHOD

The focus of this paper is two-fold; the first objective is to investigate whether intermediate level L2 learners of Japanese, whose L1 is English, demonstrate consistency in perspective taking and use its associated structures in writing a story. The second objective is to report the short- and long-term effect of instruction on consistency in perspective taking and its associated structural uses. The research questions of the study are the following:

1. Do L2 learners demonstrate consistent perspective or inconsistent/neutral perspective in writing a story and does classroom instruction have any short- and long-term effect on it?
2. Do L2 learners utilize a variety of structures associated with perspective taking and does classroom instruction have any short- and long-term effect on the uses of the structures?

#### A. Participants

There were two participant groups: an instruction group and a no-instruction group. These participant groups belonged to two different sections of the same course at a university in the U.S.<sup>2</sup> For the instruction group, the participants were 14 L2 learners and their length of study varied between 2.5 to 6 years. Among the 14 participants, three of the learners took Japanese in high school. The age range was 19-26 years old and all of them were English native speakers. For the no-instruction group, originally, there were 15 L2 learners who were asked to participate, but one learner did not submit the writing. Therefore, the writings of 14 L2 learners were analyzed as the data for the no-instruction group. Their length of study varied between 2.5 to 6 years with two learners who took Japanese in high school and one learner who participated in a semester study abroad program. The age range was 19-33 years old and all of them were English native speakers. The participants’ background data was collected as a part of a classroom survey at the beginning of their language courses. Based on the content of the textbook for their language courses and the number of hours of classroom instruction, these participants are considered to be at the intermediate level of language proficiency (refer to ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines 2012 and the ACTFL Performance Descriptors for Language Learners the Can-Do Statements).

#### B. Material

The data was collected using a written storytelling task using an 8-panel comic strip, which was adopted from Wei (2010a, 2010b). The 1st panel had two boys. One boy (A) is sweeping outside his house and the other boy (B) is stopping by at the boy (A)’s house by bicycle. The boy (A) notices the boy (B). The 2nd panel shows that the boy (A) walks toward the boy (B) and talks to him. The 3rd panel shows the boy (A) points to the boy (B)’s bicycle. The 4th panel shows the boy (A) riding the boy (B)’s bicycle. The 5th panel shows the boy (A) is going down on the hill on the bicycle very fast and the 6th panel shows him crashing into a tree. The 7th panel shows the boy (B) is mad at the boy (A) for crashing and breaking his bicycle. The 8th panel shows the boy (B) treating the boy (A)’s injury from the crash.

This 8-panel comic strip was chosen because it had only two characters, which restrict the perspective that the writer can take and it involved a clear incident of crashing a bicycle into a tree. The panels also trigger certain structures under question, such as come and go movement expressions (e.g., *asobi ni-kuru* ‘to pay a visit; to stop by’) and benefactive auxiliary verb structures (e.g., *kashite-ageru* ‘to lend’), that participants may utilize in their writing. The participants were told to write a story based on the comic strip, without any explanation of the study’s intent. This task was an assignment for both instruction and no-instruction groups. The participants used 400-character boxed writing sheets, which is typically used in Japanese writing classes. For the instruction group, the same comic strip was used for the 1st and 2nd data collections, and prior to the 1st data collection, classroom instruction was provided. There was no feedback given to the instruction group after the 1st writing.

#### C. Instruction

For the instruction group, two class sessions (approximately 50 minutes each) were dedicated to introducing and practicing the perspective taking and its associated structures in Japanese storytelling, which occurred before the 1st data collection (=1st writing). As mentioned previously, the sentence structures had been introduced in the participants’ beginner course textbooks. Thus, the participants were already exposed to those structures and had practiced through textbook exercises and classroom activities, but not as the way of exploiting Japanese narrative characteristics. The two instruction sessions employed Focus-on-Form approach, which allowed the learners to notice and raise awareness of the different ways to express perspectives as well as the importance of the consistency in perspective taking in Japanese

<sup>2</sup> The course was the 2<sup>nd</sup> semester course of the 3<sup>rd</sup> year college Japanese.

storytelling. More specifically, in the first session, the instruction involved pictures which can be depicted using one of the perspective taking structures. Due to the results from the previous studies indicating that L2 learners have difficulty utilizing benefactive auxiliary verbs and passive voice, the session focused mainly on those two types of structures. During the session, the participants orally practiced the sentence patterns using illustrations. Then, they were given situations accompanied by a dialogue with fill in the blanks. They were asked to work in a pair or a group to complete each dialogue and practice together. Feedback was provided throughout the session. In the second session, two texts - one with consistent perspective with structures such as benefactive, come and go movement, and the other with inconsistent perspective with active voice sentences - were provided to the participants to read and compare the differences. This activity was designed so that it provoked awareness to the characteristics of Japanese storytelling. In particular, the participants were asked to underline the parts they thought were different, and later discussed their influences on the comprehensibility of the text and its naturalness. English language was used as the means of communication for this activity. Lastly, the second session was concluded with writing a story using a well-known Japanese 4 panel-comic strip called '*Sazae-san*' and sharing the story with their classmates. Feedback was provided by pointing out the appropriate uses of the sentence structures and consistency in perspective taking. The two instruction sessions were one week apart.

#### D. Data Collection

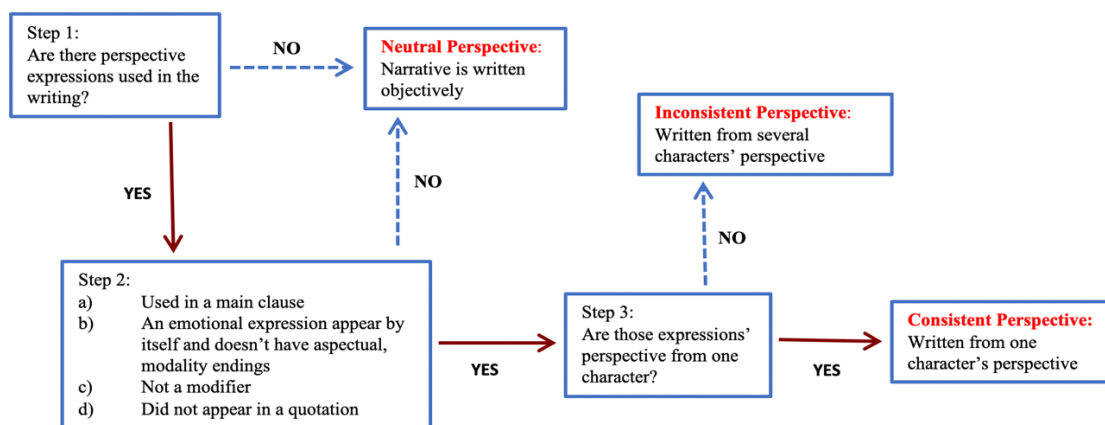
For the instruction group, the first data was collected when the participants had equivalent of approximately 180 hours of classroom instruction and immediately after the second instruction session (1st writing). Approximately six weeks after, the same 14 L2 learners participated in the second data collection, which was done using the same 8-panel comic strip (2nd writing). For this 2nd data collection, the participants were just given the same 8-panel comic strip and were instructed to write a story based on the comic strip. No specific instruction, such as a direction to write a story from a specific character, was given. The same comic strip was chosen for the 2nd data collection because it allows direct comparisons between the two writings. For the data collection of the no-instruction group, the participants had approximately 200 hours of classroom instruction when their writings were collected. They were given the same comic strip as the instruction group as an assignment and were simply told to write a story based on it.

#### E. Procedure for Analyses

The participants' writings were collected and examined as the data. Based on the previous studies (e.g., Ikegami, 1982; Kuno, 1978; Wei, 2010b), the analyses focused on five different sentence structures associated with perspective taking in Japanese (Table 1). For analyses, first, these expressions were underlined and counted in the participants' writings. Then, whether there is consistency in perspective taking throughout the story was determined by examining each of the perspective expressions used following the procedure described in Flowchart 1. Because the data was collected from L2 learners who are still in the midst of learning the language, the writing did not come error-free. Character (*kanji*) errors, minor conjugation and particle errors were not considered to hinder the purpose of this study. However, when topic and case particle errors occurred in the same sentence with the perspective taking expressions, they were excluded from the further analyses.

TABLE 1.  
PERSPECTIVE EXPRESSIONS EXAMINED

Expressions	Actual learner examples
<b>Benefactive</b> <i>kureru</i> 'give to me' / <i>ageru</i> 'give to someone' / <i>morau</i> 'to receive' / ~ <i>te kureru</i> 'someone does X for me' / ~ <i>te ageru</i> 'someone does X for someone else' / ~ <i>te morau</i> 'have someone to do X for me'	expressions: Takeshi-wa otousan-ni atarashii jitensya-o katte moratta node... Takeshi-TOP father-DAT new bicycle-ACC received buying because... 'Because Takeshi received a new bicycle from his father....'
<b>Come/go movement</b> <i>kuru</i> 'come' / <i>iku</i> 'go' / ~ <i>te iku</i> 'go doing something' / ~ <i>te kuru</i> 'come doing something'	expressions: Takeshi-wa atarashii jitensya-ni notte ikimashita. Takeshi-TOP new bicycle-to ride and went. 'Takeshi went riding on his new bicycle.'
<b>Passive</b> Verb + <i>-rareru</i> / <i>-areru</i> 'to be + past participle'	expressions: John-wa Takeshi-ni jitensya-o kowasarete, okorimashita. John-TOP Takeshi-DAT bicycle-ACC got broken, be mad. 'John got mad for his bicycle being broken by Takeshi.'
<b>Subjective</b> <i>omou</i> 'think' / <i>wakaru</i> 'to comprehend/understand' / <i>kangaeru</i> 'to consider/think' / <i>kanjiru</i> 'to feel' / <i>kizuku</i> 'to notice'	expressions: Satoshi-wa atarashii jitensya-ni kizukimashita. Satoshi-TOP new bicycle-at noticed 'Satoshi noticed a new bicycle.'
<b>Emotional</b> <i>ureshii</i> 'be glad' / <i>hoshii</i> 'to want' / <i>odoroku</i> 'to be amazed or astonished' / <i>bikkuri-suru</i> 'to be surprised' / ~ <i>tai</i> 'want to X'	expressions: Takeshi-ga naita node, John-wa bikkuri-shimashita. Takeshi-NOM cried because John-TOP surprised 'Takeshi cried so John got surprised.'



Flow Chart 1.

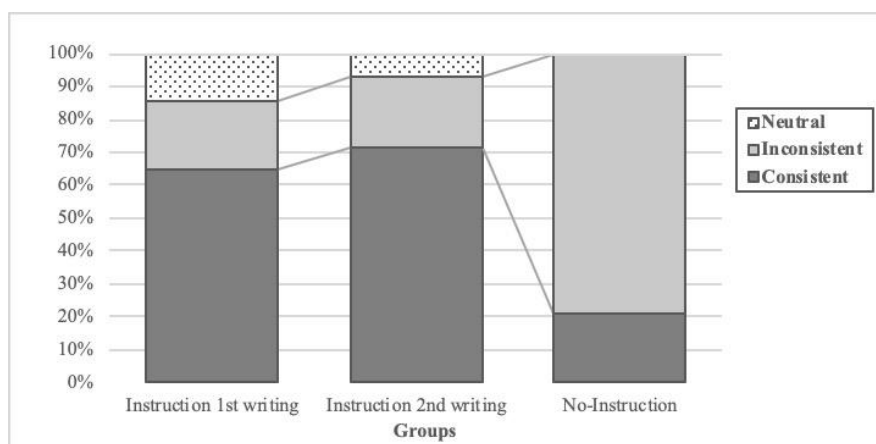
Steps for Deciding Consistency in Perspective Taking (adopted from Wei, 2010a)

### F. Results

One of the research questions addressed in this study was whether the intermediate L2 learners demonstrate consistent perspective or non-consistent (inconsistent and neutral) perspective in their stories and whether instruction has any influence on it. The results of perspective taking consistency in L2 writing is shown in Table 2 and Graph 1. As can be seen, the instruction group used more consistent perspectives in both the 1st and 2nd writings whereas the no-instruction group demonstrated a clear tendency of non-consistent perspectives in their story writings.

TABLE 2.  
PERSPECTIVE TAKING IN L2 WRITING

Groups		Consistent	Inconsistent	Neutral	Total
Instruction (n=14)	1st Writing	9 (64%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	14
	2nd Writing	10 (71%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	14
No-instruction (n=14)		3 (21%)	11 (79%)	0 (0%)	14



Graph 1.

Perspective Taking in L2 Writing

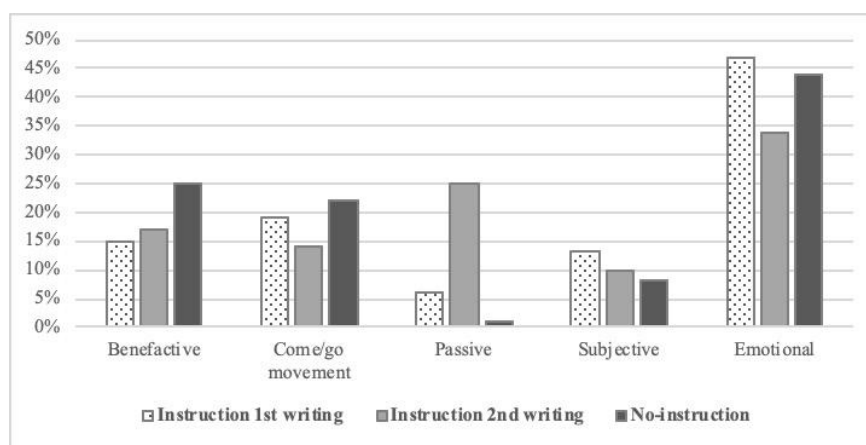
The chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between instruction and perspective taking; more specifically, between the 1st writing of instruction and no-instruction groups and consistent and non-consistent (inconsistent + neutral) perspectives. The relation between these variables was significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 5.25, p < .05$ . The same test was performed with the 2nd writing of instruction and no-instruction groups and consistent and non-consistent (inconsistent + neutral) perspectives and it was also significant,  $\chi^2(1) = 5.1692, p < .05$ . Next, whether the instruction group's participants have taken consistent perspectives for both the 1st and 2nd writings or switched between consistent and non-consistent perspectives was examined. A McNemar's test determined that there was no

statistically significant difference in the proportion of consistent perspective taking between the 1st and 2nd writings,  $p = .72$ . These results combined together imply that the classroom instruction is effective not only in the short-term, but also in the long-term in case of learning the consistency in perspective taking in L2 Japanese narratives.

Another research question addressed in this study was to examine whether the intermediate L2 learners utilize a variety of structures associated with perspective taking and whether instruction has any influence on the frequency of their appearances in L2 learners' written stories. Table 3 demonstrates five types of perspective taking structures used in the written data. As Table 3 indicates, the instruction group used more perspective taking structures in their 1st and 2nd writings compared to the no-instruction group. T-tests were administered and it was found that the 1st writing of the instruction group ( $M = 7.36$ ,  $SD = 3.10$ ) demonstrated significantly more occurrences of perspective taking sentences compared to the no-instruction group ( $M = 4.57$ ,  $SD = 2.47$ ),  $t(13) = 2.627$ ,  $p < .05$ . However, no significance was observed between the 2nd writing of the instruction group ( $M = 6$ ,  $SD = 3.44$ ) and the no-instruction group ( $M = 4.57$ ,  $SD = 2.47$ ),  $t(13) = 1.2614$ ,  $p > .1$ .

TABLE 3  
TYPES OF PERSPECTIVE TAKING STRUCTURES USED IN L2 WRITING

Groups		Benefactive	Come/go movement	Passive	Subjective	Emotional	Total
Instruction (n=14)	1st Writing	16 (15%)	20 (19%)	6 (6%)	13 (13%)	48 (47%)	103
	2nd Writing	14 (17%)	12 (14%)	21 (25%)	8 (10%)	29 (34%)	84
No-instruction (n=14)		16 (25%)	14 (22%)	1 (1%)	5 (8%)	28 (44%)	64



Graph 2.  
Types Of Perspective Taking Structures Used In L2 Writing

Looking at the individual structures, the frequencies of structures that the learners used seem similar between the instruction and non-instruction groups (Graph 2). A closer look at the percentages of each type of structures used indicate that emotional expressions are incorporated the most frequently into their stories, but the frequency of the other structures seem to be about the same.

To examine whether there was any statistical difference between the instruction and no-instruction groups in using the five perspective taking structures, Chi-square tests were conducted. No significance was found between the 1st writing of the instruction group and no-instruction group. On the other hand, there was a significant difference between the 2nd writing of the instruction group and no-instruction group,  $\chi^2(4) = 26.9597$ ,  $p < .05$ . The residual analyses showed that the difference was found in the passive structure ( $p < .01$ ). Next, the perspective structures used in the 1st and the 2nd writings within the instruction group were compared. Due to the low size of  $n$  ( $n = 14$ ), Wilcoxon Signed-Rank tests were performed for each structure and  $W$ -value was used to evaluate the hypotheses. From the analyses, a significant difference was only found in the uses of passive structure between the 1st and the 2nd writings,  $W(14) = 0$ ,  $p < .05$ . Given these results, it seems that there is an immediate effect of instruction on the overall numbers of perspective taking structures used, but that effect of instruction is not retained for the long-term. Furthermore, the results indicate that the instruction does not seem to have a substantial influence on the types of perspective taking structures that the learners use.

#### IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study explored the use of a narrative characteristic - consistency in perspective taking - by L2 learners of Japanese at the intermediate level of proficiency. Additionally, it attempted to investigate the short-term and long-term influence of classroom instruction to overcome the unnaturalness caused by its inappropriate uses, and investigated the

effect of classroom instruction on diversified uses of five types of structures associated with perspective taking in L2 Japanese storytelling.

Examining the L2 learners' written stories, the results of this study yielded several findings. From the previous studies with advanced Asian L1 learners of Japanese, it has been demonstrated that without instruction, L2 learners have difficulty achieving the perspective consistency. By examining English native learners of Japanese at the intermediate level, the current study adds more evidence to much needed L2 studies on this topic. That is, the consistency in perspective taking in a storytelling is also difficult to acquire for English native L2 learners Japanese without explicit instruction.

A noteworthy finding from the current study is that instruction undoubtedly helped the intermediate level L2 learners to learn the narrative characteristic of perspective consistency not merely in the short-term, but also in the long-term. This finding is delightful news for both L2 learners and language teachers. Perspective consistency affects the comprehensibility of narratives (e.g., Wei, Tamaoka, & Yamato, 2012). That means, whether it is a fictional story or a personal anecdote, in order for L2 learners to be able to communicate effectively and efficiently in Japanese, they need to know and utilize consistency in perspective taking in their L2 performance. The fact that perspective consistency was achieved by only two instructional sessions, it is very promising for foreign language teachers and learners when they consider the outcome of their teaching and the time spent for learning. Simply stated, spending time to instruct the narrative characteristic from the earlier stages of L2 learners' target language development would not end in vain; rather, it assists them to reach more-native like performance quicker.

Notwithstanding the positive influence of instruction on the topic matter, L2 learners still encounter its difficulty and complexity in exploiting diverse perspective expressions in their L2 narratives. Despite the effect of instruction observed in the total number of perspective taking structures integrated into the L2 learners' stories in the short-term, contrary to our expectations, it was not observed after 6 weeks. Moreover, the analyses of the different structures used in the L2 learners' writings showed that the utilization of a variety of perspective taking expressions is difficult at the intermediate proficiency level. A similar finding was noted in the previous studies as well. For instance, the acquisition of the benefactive auxiliary verbs, in general, has been discussed as one of the more challenging structures for any L2 learners of Japanese to acquire (e.g., Aramaki, 2003; Hagiwara, 2007; Sakamoto & Okada 1996; Yun, 2004). In conjunction with perspective taking in L2 Japanese studies, the previous research such as Watanabe (2012) and Wei (2010a, 2010b) showed that the use of benefactive auxiliary verbs is more challenging than the other sentence types. It was indeed the case with the L2 learners of the current study, too. The benefactive auxiliary verbs were challenging for the L2 learners to incorporate and statistical significance was not found between the instruction and no-instruction groups. The only statistical significance observed was with the passive structure between the 1st writings of the instruction group and their 2nd writings, and between 2nd writings of the instruction group and no-instruction group's writings. To seek the cause of these significances, a closer inspection of each of the passive sentences on the 2nd writings of the instruction group was undertaken.

There were quite a few occurrences of passive sentences in the 2nd writings by the instruction group. Twenty-one passive structures (out of 84 overall perspective structures) were observed. Examining them more closely, it was revealed that the uses of these passive sentences in the 2nd writings are associated with two specific verbs; *iwaremashita* 'was told' and *okoraremashita* 'was scolded' (10 occurrences and 7 occurrences out of 21 occurrences, respectively). This is likely to indicate that L2 learners have not necessarily learned the passive structure as one of their choices for perspective taking consistency, rather, it is more natural to assume that they have associated these two verbs with this particular structure - passive - through the exposure to the language between the 1st and 2nd data collections, which were approximately 6 weeks apart. Therefore, at this moment, it is reasonable to presume that the L2 learners became more familiar and more comfortable with these two specific verbs in the passive structure, which lead to the higher frequency of occurrences in their 2nd writings.

The findings from the current study suggest that instruction is effective for learning perspective taking consistency in Japanese narratives, but it is not as effective for learning to utilize a variety of the associated structures. Why didn't the instruction facilitate the learning and the using of a variety of perspective taking structures? To provide a viable answer to this question, we will need to think about the complexity of learning these structures and using them as a perspective taking expression in storytelling.

The concept of keeping perspective consistent is likely to be not that challenging for L2 learners. Like the previous L2 studies, a few of which instructed their participants to write a story from a certain character's perspective, a simple instruction of Japanese narrative characteristic, i.e., consistency in perspective taking in storytelling, might be all L2 learners need. In a way, one can acquire this narrative characteristic by learning the concept as one of the rules in Japanese language. As long as L2 learners keep the rule in their mind and write from the perspective of the same subject/agent, the consistency of perspective taking in their story can be achieved.

Learning and using a variety of perspective taking structures in L2 storytelling, on the other hand, is more complex and demanding. Needless to say, that L2 learners first have to learn each form (grammar), but they also have to learn when and how to use them appropriately within the language and culturally specific narratives (pragmatic/discourse). Ellis (2006) has described language acquisition as "contingency learning, that is the gathering of information about the relative frequencies of form-function mappings" (p. 1). If so, it can be considered that at the intermediate proficiency

level, the exposure to these structures in L2 narratives is still lacking even after the instruction. In other words, limited instructional influences on the uses of perspective taking structures in the L2 learners' writings in this study may have been derived from the lack of exposure and the difficulty of form-function mapping. To make L2 learners to become more comfortable with incorporating the various perspective taking structures, an instructional method such as Focus on Form Task-Based instruction, which engages learners to induce form-function mapping, may be feasible (Ellis, 2003, 2016). Future research should focus on different instructional approaches to measure its effectiveness as well as more diverse backgrounds of learners.

In closing, consistency in perspective taking and its associated structures shape both micro- and macro-levels of Japanese narrative. Relying on inductive approaches to learn a narrative characteristic of L2 carries a risk that L2 learners may never notice or fully understand a preferred way of telling a story in the target language culture. Although there are limitations to this study, it has provided useful insights into learning and teaching of narrative characteristics for English native L2 learners at the intermediate level of proficiency. The fact that there was a positive influence of instruction on the learning of perspective taking consistency supports that the instruction of narrative characteristics need not, or perhaps should not, be reserved for advanced proficiency level learners. As well, providing instruction from the early stages of L2 learners' language development on different types of perspective taking structures certainly helps to build a foundation of conscious awareness and understanding, which will lead to more exposure, effective and efficient input and intake, and assists L2 learners to attain native-like language performance.

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**Akiko Kashiwagi-Wood** was born in Japan and received a B.A. from Tokyo University of Foreign Studies in Japanese (1999), and a M.A. in TESOL from University of Findlay (2001) and a M.A. and a Ph.D. in East Asian Languages and Literatures with specialization in Japanese linguistics from The Ohio State University (2003, 2011, respectively). She is currently an Associate Professor of Japanese at Oakland University in Rochester, Michigan. She is a co-author of “Issues in L2 Japanese sentence processing: Similarities/differences with L1 and individual differences in working memory” in *Handbook of Japanese Psycholinguistics* (De Gruyter Mouton, 2015). Her research interests are second language acquisition, applied linguistics and Japanese language pedagogy. Prof. Kashiwagi-Wood is a member of the Japanese Society for Linguistic Science, American Association of Teachers of Japanese, Japanese Teachers Association of Michigan and The Society for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language.



# Subject-verb Word Order in Narratives in Swedish by Immersion and Non-immersion Students

Eeva-Liisa Nyqvist

Finnish, Finno-Ugrian and Scandinavian Studies, University of Helsinki, Finland

**Abstract**—The Swedish V2 word order has been considered a notorious source of difficulty for L2 learners due to its strict rules. This study explores subject-verb word order in texts written in Swedish by 12-year-old and 15-year-old Finnish-speaking immersion students and by 16-year-old non-immersion students. Although the L1 of the informants lacks obligatory inversion, the analyses show that informants in all three groups have reached a high accuracy level in several aspects of word order in main clauses. However, the informants struggle with challenges that are similar to those detected in previous research: inversion is omitted in its obligatory occasions in main clauses but simultaneously overused in subordinate clauses where word order is canonical. In main clauses, the challenges focus on declarative main clauses with inversion. In subordinate clauses, on the contrary, the challenges focus on questions.

**Index Terms**—L2 Swedish, immersion, usage-based grammar, subject-verb word order

## I. INTRODUCTION

Immersion is a second language (L2) teaching programme aimed towards functional bilingualism, the ability to use both the first language (L1) and the target language (TL) effectively and appropriately for different purposes (Genesee 2004). Acquisition begins at daycare and continues at school via exposure to the TL with help from teachers who speak only the TL, as well as through meaningful interaction (Baker 2011). Immersion students do not acquire a nativelike proficiency, but they do better than students in non-immersion instruction (Lyster 2007; Bergroth 2015). However, international studies (Harley 1993, 1998 on Canadian French; Ó Duibhir 2009 on Irish Gaelic) have revealed that immersion pupils struggle with grammatical accuracy. Immersion research has been multifarious in Finland (Bergroth/Björklund 2013), but syntax has previously reached minor attention (see Nyqvist 2020, 2021).

This article focuses on how Finnish-speaking immersion pupils use subject-verb word order (henceforth *word order*) in declarative clauses (henceforth *declaratives*) and questions and what kinds of difficulties they have with these constructions at the end of primary school (6<sup>th</sup> grade, age 12) and at the end of secondary school and immersion<sup>1</sup> (9<sup>th</sup> grade, age 15). They are also compared to a control group of 16-year-old non-immersion students. Previous research on word order has been multifarious both in Swedish grammar and L2 Swedish. It is vital, however, to study immersion separately from non-immersion settings. Immersion is an especially intensive and long-term learning programme combining rich input, communication and focus on form, which discerns it from other methods (see also Nyqvist 2018ab; Nyqvist/Lundkvist 2020; Nyqvist 2021; Nyqvist/Lahtinen 2021).

Word order has proven to cause problems for even advanced learners of L2 Swedish, whose inaccuracies are rare but qualitatively like those made by less advanced learners (Hyltenstam 1988, 1992). This is also likely to occur with the actual informants. This study analyses learning results from three perspectives (cf. Housen/Simoens 2016). Younger and older immersion students are compared to one another and to non-immersion students (*learner-* and *context-related perspective*, respectively). An analysis of the problems encountered by the informants also identifies the most difficult aspects of word order (*feature-related perspective*) that explicit instruction should focus on. The learners benefit most from instruction focusing on difficult constructions (DeKeyser 2003). It is crucial to explore the difficulty of constructions by analysing language produced by L2 speakers instead of only analysing the grammatical descriptions of a language. What a linguist estimates as difficult may not be that for an L2 speaker (Hammarberg 2008); conversely, an L2 speaker might struggle with a construction a linguist would not consider problematic.

## II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

### A. Subject-verb Word Order in Swedish

The word order in Swedish “varies within rather strict frames” (my translation, Teleman et al. 1999b:5) as it is used to distinguish between main and subordinate clauses, declaratives and questions, and between subject and object in an actual clause. Of declarative main clauses in different genres of both written and spoken Swedish, 60–70% follow the

<sup>1</sup> There are no immersion upper secondary schools in Finland (Bergroth 2015).

canonical (straight) word order (ex. 1a) where the subject precedes the finite verb, with the proportion somewhat lower in written language (Jørgensen 1976). This word order is neutral and does not emphasise any particular sentence element (Teleman et al. 1999b).

Swedish is a V2-language, i.e. the finite verb (henceforth *verb*) can be preceded by only one constituent and typically occurs in second position in main clauses (Teleman et al. 1999b). Thus, if a constituent other than the subject is fronted, subject-verb inversion (henceforth *inversion*, ex. 1b) is obligatory:

- |                                                                                                          |                                                                                                   |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1a. <i>Han</i> <i>kommer</i> <i>i morgon.</i><br>he        comes        tomorrow<br>"He comes tomorrow." | 1b. <i>I morgon</i> <i>kommer</i> <i>han.</i><br>tomorrow comes        he<br>"He comes tomorrow." |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

Inversion also occurs in direct questions. *Yes/no questions* (ex. 2a) begin with the verb followed by the subject, and inversion is the sole marker for a question, whereas the interrogative word precedes the verb in questions beginning with an interrogative word (ex. 2b, henceforth *v-questions*, as most Swedish interrogative words begin with the letter *v*). The only exception is direct questions where the interrogative word is the subject or part of it (ex. 2c), and the word order is canonical (Teleman et al. 1999b).

- |                                                                                               |                                                                                          |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 2a. <i>Är</i> <i>allt</i> <i>ok?</i><br>is        everything        OK<br>"Is everything OK?" | 2b. <i>Vad</i> <i>var</i> <i>det?</i><br>what        was        that<br>"What was that?" |
| 2c. <i>Vem</i> <i>gjorde</i> <i>det?</i><br>who        did        it<br>"Who did it?"         |                                                                                          |

The word order in subordinate clauses is canonical, i.e. the subject precedes the verb:

- |                                                                                                                                                                                |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 3. <i>Jag tror</i> <i>att</i> <i>han</i> <i>kommer</i> <i>i morgon.</i><br>I believe        that        he        comes        tomorrow<br>"I believe that he comes tomorrow." |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

### B. Usage-based Grammar and Aspects of Difficulty

Usage-based grammar defines both L1 and L2 acquisition as a spontaneous process of rule internalisation that occurs when the learner focuses on meaning, i.e. grammar is considered an implicit cognitive organisation of a learner's actual language experience (Bybee 2008). Children acquiring their L1 memorise concrete, linguistic units combining both form and meaning (e.g. suffixes, single words and longer utterances). The learners discover regularities and start varying them, which leads to the discovery of abstract formulae (henceforth *constructions*) behind the concrete utterances (Lieven/Tomasello 2008).

It is appropriate to draw parallels between L1 and L2 acquisition, as both begin early and occur via communication. The essential difference between L1 and L2 acquisition, however, is the fact that immersion pupils already have an L1. Simultaneously, it is clear that many L2 constructions cannot be learned without explicit instruction (N. Ellis/Wulff 2015), even though it is possible in the L1. Moreover, the knowledge of languages is acquired in immersion through practice; hence, it is available for unconscious use, and difficult to change afterwards if the practice leads to inaccuracies. In traditional instruction, the problem is usually the opposite: a learner might have a lot of factual information they may not be able to use in actual communication (R. Ellis 2008).

R. Ellis (2006) summarises the factors that make a construction difficult to acquire implicitly. Among these are frequency, saliency, functional value and processability relevant for word order. It is easier to learn traits occurring frequently in the input, and repetition reinforces memory representations (Goldberg/Casenhiser 2008). Moreover, sequences that occur frequently in the input can be acquired as wholes, which helps the learner analyse less frequent tokens of the same construction (Bybee 2008). In Swedish, canonical word order is more common than inversion in main clauses (Jørgensen 1976), which favours its acquisition. In classroom language, it is also possible that teachers still consciously prefer utterances with the canonical word order, which cuts down the learner's possibilities of receiving input that provides positive evidence of inversion (cf. Håkansson 1987). Subordinate clauses are also less frequent than main clauses in the input (ca 30% in study materials and newspapers vs over 40% in texts by Swedish students in upper secondary school; Hultman/Westman 1977), which might hinder their acquisition. Still, even high-frequency elements might be challenging if they are difficult to notice in the input, i.e. they have low saliency (Goldschneider/DeKeyser 2005; Bybee 2008; N. Ellis 2016;). Word order is more salient in the input than e.g. several grammatical morphemes (Jensen et al. 2020), but inversion in declaratives appears to be less salient than inversion in direct questions, as it is communicatively expendable contrary to direct questions (Lund 1997).

Moreover, challenges are to be expected if a construction has a high functional value, i.e. several functions in the

language, making the link between form and meaning opaque (DeKeyser 2005). In word order, it might be perplexing for L2 learners to notice that declaratives can have both canonical and inverted word order and that both declaratives and questions can have inverted word order. Declarative main and subordinate clauses, then again, have approximately the same meanings, but they can have different word orders. The accurate use of different word order types also requires the ability to manage the distinction between main and subordinate clauses, but this has proved challenging (Ganuza 2008; Rahkonen/Håkansson 2008).

Finally, the processability of a construction impacts how challenging a construction is. In Swedish, Processability Theory has five processability levels, and the mastery of a higher level necessitates mastery of the lower ones. Main clauses with canonical word order (SVO) occur at level 2, inversion at level 4, and the word order typical of subordinate clauses at level 5. (Pienemann/Håkansson 1999.) Subordinate clauses are likely to be especially challenging, particularly the subordinate questions, as corresponding direct questions have basically the same meaning but different form (cf. DeKeyser 2005)<sup>2</sup>:

4a. <i>Vad</i>	<i>menar</i>	<i>du?</i>	4b. <i>Jag förstår vad</i>	<i>du</i>	<i>menar.</i>
What	mean	you	I understand what	you	mean
“What do you mean?”			“I understand what you mean.”		

If a construction is difficult to acquire implicitly, it is well founded to enhance the acquisition with explicit instruction (DeKeyser 2003). Explicit instruction is often based on grammar rules, and hence, a crucial factor determining how difficult a construction is to acquire explicitly is how opaque the rule is. Simple, comprehensible rules are the most feasible, but word order requires use of extensive metalanguage: most formulations involve such terms as *subject*, *verb*, *adverbial* and *main* and *subordinate clause*, which are fundamental for grammarians but sometimes problematic for L2 learners, especially for younger ones (cf. R. Ellis 2006).

Transfer from the L1 can hamper acquisition if the L2 is more complex than the L1 (Collins et al. 2009). As Finnish lacks obligatory inversion (Karlsson 2017), this is actually the case for Finnish-speaking L2 speakers of Swedish. Transfer can likewise stem from other L2s acquired by the learners (De Angelis 2007). Since the informants in this study learn English at school and live in continuous contact with it, it likely plays a role in their Swedish acquisition (Bohnacker 2006). However, English also lacks obligatory inversion in declaratives (Holmes/Hinchcliffe 1994) and, thus, cannot contribute to its acquisition in Swedish.

### C. Previous Research: Word Order in L2 Scandinavian Languages

Children acquiring their L1 do not appear to experience difficulties with word order (Håkansson 1988, 1998; Lange/Larsson 1973), although they use inversion more than adults do (i.e. in ca 50% of their utterances; Jørgensen 1976). Certain studies claim that inversion is not especially difficult in L2 contexts if both the learner's L1 and TL follow the V2 rule (Brautaset 2004; Bohnacker 2006; Johansen 2008). There is still a multitude of evidence (both written and spoken data with informants with different L1s) showing that inversion is difficult for L2 learners whose L1 lacks obligatory inversion, such as Finns (Karlsson 2017; see Lund 1997 for L2 Danish and Saarik 2006 for L2 Norwegian). Next, the central results from previous research in Swedish, Norwegian and Danish as L2s are summarised, as these closely related Scandinavian languages follow similar rules for word order (Allan et al. 2000; Strandskogen/Strandskogen 1995).

Omitted inversion in declarative main clauses is a long-standing trait in L2 Swedish. Inversion was challenging in a cloze test by Hyldenstam's (1978) adult informants, who followed the same development irrespective of the L1 and education level:  $SVX^3 \rightarrow *XSV \rightarrow XVS$ . Type of subject (e.g. pronoun, NP) or finite verb (auxiliary or main verb) did not impact the results. Following the Processability Theory, this order was also detected in the meta-analysis by Pienemann/Håkansson (1999). Ganuza (2008), however, found that the overuse of canonical word order in obligatory occasions for inversion was very rare in the declarative main clauses by adolescent L2 learners, although it was more common in informal communication situations.

Many studies have explored whether accurate use of inversion depends on the fronted constituent. In Bolander, (1988, oral data from adult learners with three different L1s), object had the highest accuracy and subordinate clause the lowest. The most common fronted object, however, was *det* (e.g. *Det vill jag ha*, “I want IT”); i.e. use of formulaic language (Wray 2012) might explain the high accuracy. Fronted subordinate clauses were challenging for Åberg's (2020, both written narratives and grammaticality judgement tests) adult informants. Similar results have been found in studies of L2 Norwegian, which implies that fronted subordinate clauses burden one's information processing capacity (Hagen 1992). Åberg (2020) also found that her informants' accurate use of inversion in written data improved due to explicit instruction, and the positive effect could also be seen in a post-test taken after the course.

Direct questions favour the accurate use of inversion when compared to the acquisition of inversion in declaratives

<sup>2</sup> The difficulty is also explainable by the low frequency of the subordinate questions and problems distinguishing subordinate and direct questions from one another (Rahkonen/Håkansson 2008).

<sup>3</sup> S stands here for subject, V for (finite) verb and X for any sentence constituent other than subject or verb.

(Salameh et al. 1996; Philipsson 2007; Ganuza 2008; Åberg 2020; see also Lund 1997 for L2 Danish). Direct questions are also mastered before subordinate ones (Philipsson 2007; Rahkonen/Håkansson 2008; Åberg 2020).

In subordinate clauses, especially questions, the main problem is the overuse of inversion (Hyltenstam/Lindberg 1983; Viberg 1990; Ganuza 2008; Nyqvist 2020; see also Hagen 1992). Philipsson's (2007) informants with the lowest competence level (young immigrants with three different L1s), however, had higher accuracies in the word order in subordinate questions because they had not yet mastered inversion in direct questions; it was a case of a certain pseudo-accuracy. The more advanced informants had several occurrences of inversion in their subordinate clauses, as they had acquired it in the direct questions but were not yet able to distinguish between main and subordinate clauses.

To summarise, previous research with varying elicitation methods and with informants of varying ages and L1s shows that the obligatory occasions for inversion are challenging for L2 learners: omitted inversion is a typical inaccuracy for declarative main clauses, whereas overuse of inversion is typical of subordinate clauses.

### III. DATA AND METHOD

The data consist of circa 200-word narratives (entitled *My Dream Journey/Holiday*) and shorter e-mail tasks eliciting questions. These are written by immersion students in the 6<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grades (henceforth IM6 and IM9) and by a control group of non-immersion students in the 1<sup>st</sup> grade in upper secondary school (henceforth CG). The same data have been used in previous studies on Swedish grammar acquisition by Finnish-speaking immersion and non-immersion students (see Nyqvist 2018ab; Nyqvist/Lundkvist 2020; Nyqvist/Lahtinen 2021). The informants produced, on average, 265,9 words in IM6, 280 words in IM9 and 250,4 words in CG.

All informants' L1 is Finnish, and they started learning English at the age of nine (FNBE 2014a); i.e. Swedish is the L2 and English an L3 for immersion students, whereas the control group has English as their L2 and Swedish as their L3. The informants in IM6 and IM9 have learned Swedish from the age of 4–5 years, i.e. for 8–9 years (IM6) and 11–12 years (IM9), respectively. They have received instruction in both Swedish and Finnish, and the proportion of the languages has varied in different grades in such a way that immersion pupils receive 50% of all their instruction in Swedish during comprehensive school. The actual proportion of instruction in Swedish is 50% in the 6<sup>th</sup> grade and 45% in the 9<sup>th</sup> grade<sup>4</sup> (Bergroth/Björklund 2013). In the immersion, the standards set for competence in the target language are fundamentally higher than in the non-immersion. At the end of immersion, students have to reach B-level<sup>5</sup> on the CEFR scale in order to reach a level of “good” (Bergroth 2015).

In comprehensive school, CG had received instruction in around 450 Swedish lessons (FNBE 2014a; Government Decree 422/2012), and their expected CEFR level in writing to reach a score of “good” at the end of secondary school was A.2 (FNBE 2014b). CG had taken three of the six obligatory courses<sup>6</sup> in Swedish during the first year in upper secondary school (FNBE 2015). They had probably received more formal instruction than the immersion groups, whose SLA emphasises communication (e.g. Baker 2011). Explicit grammar instruction has also been diminished in non-immersion settings in Finland (Jaakkola 2000), but word order is still a central part of it (FNBE 2014b, 2015).

As in previous research with the same data (Nyqvist 2018ab; Nyqvist/Lundkvist 2020; Nyqvist/Lahtinen 2021), quantitative data analysis on the group level was founded on obligatory occasions (Ellis/Barkhuizen 2005), i.e. constructions that the informants are expected to use in line with *Svenska Akademiens Grammatik* (Teleman et al. 1999ab). Frequencies were computed by dividing the number of a certain clause type by the number of all clauses, and the accuracy scores were obtained by dividing the number of accurate obligatory occasions of a clause type by the total number of obligatory occasions of that same clause type. High accuracy scores are interpreted to imply early acquisition, i.e. an easy construction (Collins et al. 2009). It is probable that the informants in different grades reach different competence levels, but individual variation also needs to be taken into account: one might remain at a low level after a long learning time. Furthermore, accuracy does not necessarily signify mastery. Individuals that only master canonical word order can reach high levels of accuracy by avoiding obligatory occasions for direct questions and fronted constituents other than the subject. This has also been documented in constructions other than word order (cf. Nyqvist/Lahtinen 2021).

The statistical significance of the differences in accuracy scores between the groups was determined with the statistical software package SPSS. Pearson's  $\chi^2$  (value of  $p < 0.05$ ) was chosen as a statistic test as it does not require Gaussian distribution. The same tests have been used in previous studies on the same data (see Nyqvist 2018ab; Nyqvist/Lundkvist 2020; Nyqvist/Lahtinen 2021). The central research questions are:

1. What is typical of the language produced by informants in regards to the proportions of main and subordinate clauses, of declarative and interrogative clauses, and of canonical word order and inversion?
2. Are main clauses more accurately used than subordinate ones?
3. Are there accuracy differences between declaratives and questions in regards to inversion?
4. Is canonical word order in main clauses more accurately used than inversion?
5. Are there accuracy differences between declarative and interrogative clauses in subordinate clauses?

<sup>4</sup> 85% in the first and second grades, 60% in the third and fourth grades (Bergroth/Björklund 2013).

<sup>5</sup> In non-immersion settings, students have to reach level A2 in order to reach a level of “good” in the ninth grade (FNBE 2014b).

<sup>6</sup> 38 lessons excluding homework (FNBE 2015).

## 6. What kinds of accuracy differences are there between the informant groups?

### IV. ANALYSIS

The data consist of 10 702 clauses. Of these, 3789 occur in IM6, 3801 in IM9 and 3112 in CG. As this study focuses on subject-verb word order, the clauses lacking either subjects or finite verbs have been omitted from the analyses. Main clauses dominate in all informant groups (77,8% in IM6, 69,9% in IM9 and 73,2% in CG). Subordinate clauses are most frequent in IM9 (30,1%). The proportions in IM6 (22,2%) and CG (26,8%) are somewhat smaller than in Hultman and Westman (1977), whereas IM9 reaches a similar proportion of subordinate clauses as study materials and newspapers, which are apparently the genres they often read.

In section A, main clauses are analysed from four points of view: Firstly, the frequencies for the different types of the main clauses are given. Secondly accuracies are compared between declaratives and direct questions. Thereafter, accuracies are compared for declarative main clauses and direct questions. Finally, accuracies for declarative main clauses with canonical word order and inversion are compared. In section B, accuracies for subordinate declaratives and subordinate questions are compared to one another and to corresponding main clauses.

#### A. Main Clauses

In this section, I will present the accuracy scores for main clauses in IM6, IM9 and CG. Diagram 1 illustrates the distribution between declarative main clauses and direct questions.

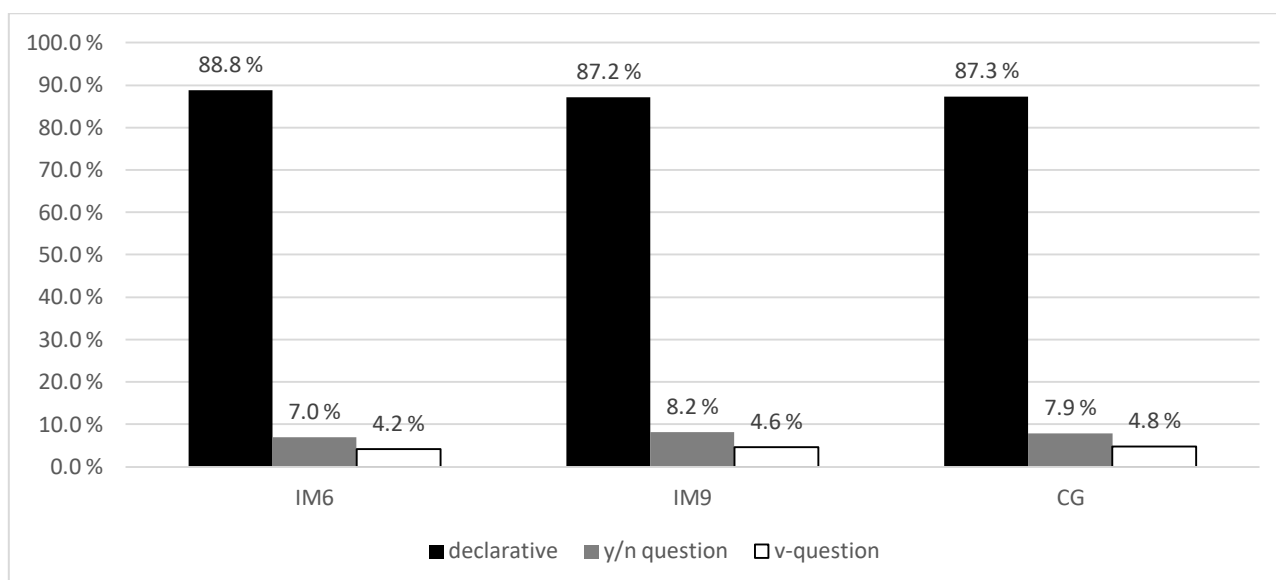


Diagram 1: Frequencies for declarative main clauses and direct questions

A majority of main clauses produced by the informants are declarative, whereas the frequency of direct questions is a little over 10% in all groups. The questions occur especially in the e-mails, which aim to elicit questions that are sporadic in the longer holiday texts. The most common questions by the informants reflect the requests typical for communication at school: e.g. *kan du* ("can you..."), *måste/ska jag* ("should I"), *vilka sidor* ("which pages"), *vad har ni gjort* ("What have you done?"). Yes/no-questions dominate in all groups.

Obligatory occasions for canonical word order dominate in declarative main clauses in all groups. In CG, as much as 78.2% of declarative main clauses have an obligatory occasion for canonical word order (65.1% in IM6, 70.2% in IM9). Obligatory occasions for inversion in declaratives are most frequent in IM6 (34.9%, 29.8% in IM9, 21.8% in CG). Hence, CG might avoid inversion, whereas the percentages in the immersion groups are approximately similar to those in spoken L1 Swedish (Jørgensen 1976). The similarity to the spoken language in immersion groups is explainable firstly because informants are young persons who write in a rather informal style and secondly because immersion emphasises oral communication (Bergroth 2015), which might affect the writing style of the immersion students.

In contrast, more than 98% of direct questions in all groups manifest as obligatory occasions for inversion, i.e. questions where the interrogative word is the subject or part of it (see ex. 2c above) are rare (1 occurrence in IM6, 5 in both IM9 and CG). Diagram 2 illustrates overall accuracies for declarative main clauses (which do *not* distinguish between canonical word order and inversion) and direct questions. The two types of questions are treated as one group as they both reach high accuracy.

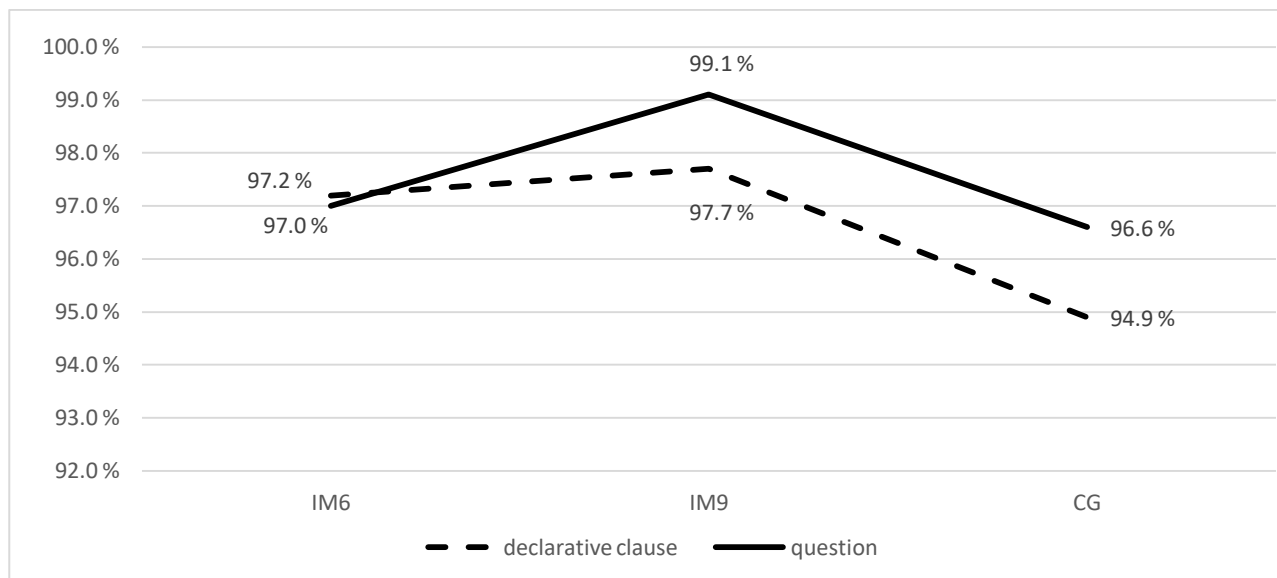


Diagram 2: Overall accuracies for declarative main clauses and direct questions

The overall accuracies for main clauses always exceed 90%. Both accuracies are at the same level in IM6, whereas interrogative clauses reach higher accuracies than declaratives in IM9 and CG. However, differences between declaratives and questions are nonsignificant in all groups.

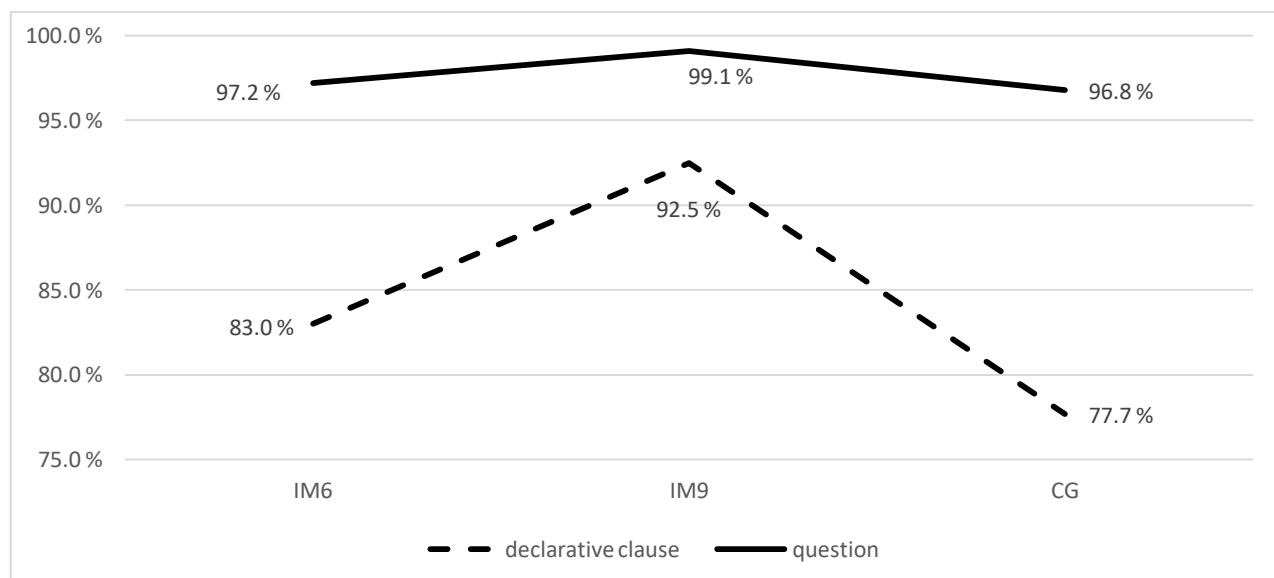
IM9 reaches higher accuracies than the other groups in both declaratives and questions. Although the differences are small, the accuracies in IM9 are significantly higher than in CG ( $p < 0.001$  in declaratives;  $p = 0.024$  in direct questions), whereas the differences between IM6 and IM9 are nonsignificant. In declaratives, the accuracy in CG (which has probably received more explicit instruction in grammar than the immersion groups) is also significantly lower than in IM6 ( $p < 0.001$ ). Inaccuracies are rare in direct questions, but they typically involve the overuse of canonical word order in questions where the interrogative word is *not* the subject or part of it (as in Philipsson 2007; Åberg 2020):

5a. När \*jag kommer att göra provet? (IM6)  
 When \*I will write the test  
 “When will I write the test?”  
 → När kommer jag att göra...

In declaratives, conversely, the typical inaccuracy concerns omitted inversion similarly to previous research (Hyltenstam 1978; Bolander 1988; Rahkonen/Håkansson 2008; Ganuza 2008). This is explainable firstly by the fact that inversion is less frequent in the input than canonical word order (Jørgensen 1976). Secondly, inversion in declaratives is a communicatively expendable construction. Thirdly, both the L1 of the informants, Finnish, and their other L2, English, lack obligatory inversion (Holmes/Hinchcliffe 1994; Karlsson 2017):

5b. Efter det \*vi gick och simma. (IM9)  
 After that \*we went swimming  
 “After that we went swimming.”  
 → Efter det gick vi...

Diagram 3 demonstrates differences in the accuracy of *inversion* in declarative main clauses and direct questions:

Diagram 3: Accuracies for inversion in declarative and interrogative<sup>7</sup> main clauses

The declarative main clauses with inversion typically begin with temporal (e.g. *sedan*, “then”; *nästa dag*, “next day”) and spatial (e.g. *där*, “there”; *i London*, “in London”) adverbs, reflecting the themes of the narratives. Direct objects beginning a main clause also occur sporadically: *Opera vill jag inte höra* (“Opera is something I don’t want to hear”).

Accuracies for inversion in direct questions are significantly higher than in declaratives ( $p < 0.001$  in all groups), as in previous studies (Salameh et al. 1996; Åberg 2020). This is not surprising, as inversion is most consequently used in questions where the link between form and meaning is also less opaque than in declaratives (cf DeKeyser 2005). It is likewise less common in declarative main clauses (Jørgensen 1976) and lacks communicative weight (Lund 1997). Moreover, both Finnish and English lack obligatory inversion in declaratives (Holmes/Hinchcliffe 1994; Karlsson 2017). Questions are likewise common in the classroom language and study materials, i.e. they have high frequency in the input, and they also usually have inversion in English, which may have contributed to the acquisition (cf Bohnacker 2006). IM9 reaches a significantly higher accuracy than both IM6 and CG in both clause types ( $p < 0.001$  in both cases in declaratives,  $p = 0.046$  in IM6 vs IM9 and  $p = 0.042$  in IM9 vs CG in questions), although CG has received more grammar instruction than IM6 and IM9.

Omission of inversion is common when a sentence begins with a subordinate clause, e.g. *Om jag skulle få åka till USA jag skulle gå till...* (“If I could go to the USA, I’d go to...”). This is especially common in CG, where up to 38% of omitted inversions occur after a subordinate clause. The percentage is significantly higher than in IM6 (14.6%,  $p < 0.001$ ). A sentence construction beginning with a subordinate clause has proved challenging for L2 learners in previous studies (Bolander 1988; Ganuza 2008; Åberg 2020; see also Hagen 1992). In IM6, however, 70% of omitted inversions occur in main clauses beginning with a temporal adverbial (50% in IM9), i.e. this inaccuracy also occurs in other contexts. Diagram 4 compares inversion and canonical word order in declaratives:

<sup>7</sup> Direct questions with an interrogative word as subject (see ex. 2c) have been omitted from this diagram.

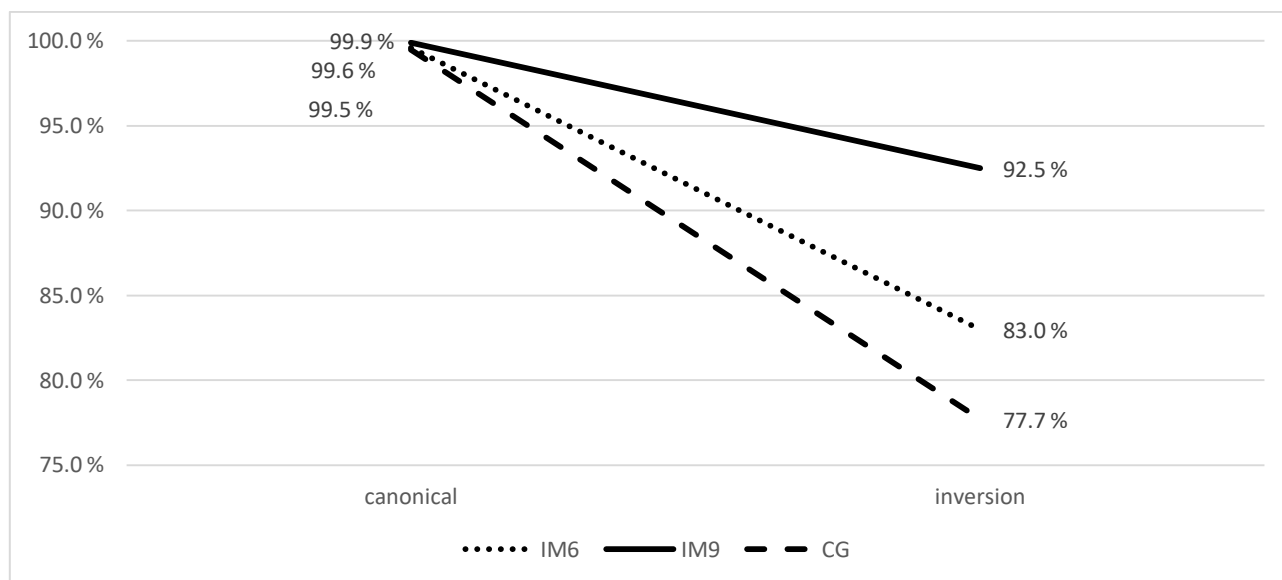


Diagram 4: Accuracies for canonical word order and inversion in declaratives

When accuracy in declarative main clauses with inversion (see above) is compared to that of main clauses with canonical word order, one can see that the latter have extremely high accuracies in all groups. Conversely, clauses with inversion reach significantly lower accuracies than clauses with canonical word order ( $p < 0.001$  in all groups). The differences between informant groups are nonsignificant. The high accuracies for canonical word order are not surprising, as it is high frequency in the input (Jørgensen 1976) and is acquired at an early stage (Pienemann/Håkansson 1999).

#### B. Subordinate Clauses

As diagram 1 shows, subordinate clauses are less frequent than main clauses. A majority of subordinate questions are declaratives (86,8% in IM6, 86,7% in IM9 and 87,9% in CG), i.e. subordinate questions are rather low frequency in the data (109 in IM6, 151 in IM9 and 101 in CG; cf. Hyltenstam/Lindberg 1983; Viberg 1990). As Diagram 5 shows, the inaccuracies are scarce in subordinate declaratives:

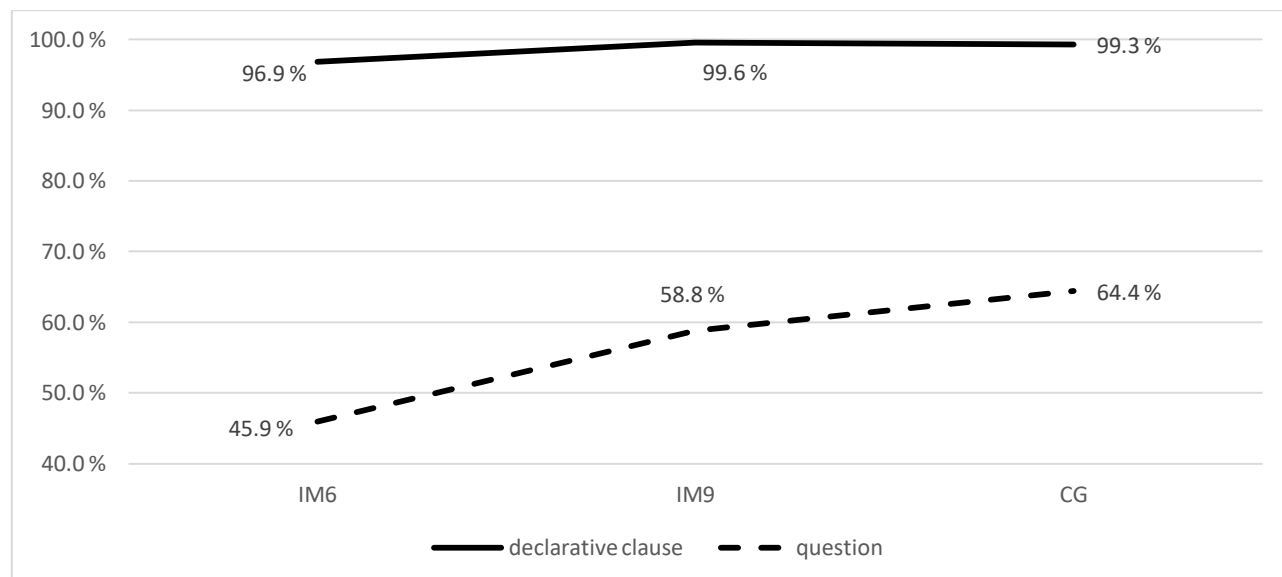


Diagram 5: Accuracies for subordinate declaratives and subordinate questions

Subordinate clauses diverge from main clauses, as declaratives have significantly higher accuracies than questions ( $p < 0.001$ ) in all groups, i.e. subordinate questions are more challenging than subordinate declaratives. All differences between the groups are nonsignificant in the subordinate declaratives. The few declarative subordinate clauses with an inaccurate inversion are typically relative clauses beginning with the relative adverb *där*. This grammatical word has a high functional value (cf. DeKeyser 2005). In subordinate clauses, it is used as a relative adverb of place (meaning “where, in which”) with a preceding correlate (Holmes/Hinchcliffe 1994):



6a	...så många butiker	där	*kan	man	köpa... (IM6)
	...so many shops	where	can	you	buy...
	"...so many shops where you can buy..."				
	→ ...där man kan köpa...				

In main clauses, however, *där* is used as an adverb of place ("there") after which the word order is inverted when *där* is fronted (Holmes/Hinchcliffe 1994). These two clause types are likely to intermingle for the informants (cf. Rahkonen/Håkansson 2008; Ganuza 2008).

The subordinate questions reach significantly lower accuracies than direct questions ( $p < 0.001$  in all groups; cf. Ganuza 2008). Also *declarative* main clauses reach higher accuracies than subordinate declaratives, but the difference is significant only in IM6 ( $p < 0.001$ ). Accuracies for subordinate questions are significantly higher in IM9 and CG than in IM6 ( $p = 0.038$  and  $p = 0.007$ , respectively). The typical inaccuracy in subordinate questions is, as in previous research (Hyltenstam/Lindberg 1983; Viberg 1990; Ganuza 2008; Hagen 1992; Nyqvist 2020, 2021) overuse of inversion:

6b.	Hon frågade	*behöver	jag	hjälp att packa. (IM6)
	She asked	need	I	help with packing
	"She asked if I needed help..."			
	→ [...] om jag behövde hjälp...			

When a direct question is transformed into a subordinate one, the inverted word order of the direct question has to be straightened. This procedure is acquired after the inversion (Håkansson 2004; Rahkonen/Håkansson 2008; see also Nyqvist 2020, 2021 for examples) and might be especially challenging for Finnish-speaking learners, as Finnish subordinate questions have the same word order as direct questions (Hakulinen et al. 2004).<sup>8</sup> Other factors explaining the low accuracy of subordinate questions are their low frequency in the input (Hultman/Westman 1977; Jørgensen 1978) and the fact that they have a canonical word order although they are questions (cf. DeKeyser 2005; an opaque link between form and the meaning). Similar results (Philipsson 2007), especially the fact that immersion students have problems with the word order in subordinate questions in Swedish, have been reached on a grammar test (Nyqvist 2020, 2021), and the actual data confirm that the problems also exist in more spontaneous writing.

## V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study explores the subject-verb word order in texts written by Finnish-speaking 12- and 15-year-old immersion students and 16-year-old non-immersion students. Word order has been a notorious source of difficulty for L2 learners of Swedish, Danish and Norwegian in previous studies (e.g., Hyltenstam 1988, 1992; Lund 1997; Johannesen 2008), but the actual results reveal that all informant groups have reached high accuracies in both direct questions and declarative main clauses with canonical word order.

When accuracies for direct questions and declaratives with inversion, and those for canonical and inverted word order in declarative main clauses are compared, one sees that declaratives with inversion are significantly more difficult in all three groups. This indicates that inversion is the most challenging subject-verb word order-related learning task in declarative main clauses. This is natural from the usage-based point of view, as the input frequencies for inversion in declarative main clauses are rather low (Jørgensen 1976). The inversion in declaratives also lacks communicative meaning, i.e. it is less salient than in direct questions (Lund 1997). Also, the link between form and meaning is opaque in declarative main clauses with inversion (cf. DeKeyser 2005). Moreover, both previously acquired languages of the informants, Finnish and English, lack obligatory inversion (Holmes/Hinchcliffe 1994; Karlsson 2017), which might hamper the acquisition of it (cf. Bohnacker 2006). However, inversion in declarative main clauses has a higher accuracy in IM9 than in IM6 and CG, which implies that learning time and rich input received in immersion have a favourable effect on the acquisition. A fronted subordinate clause appears to be one of the challenging contexts in main clauses with inversion, but inaccuracies also occur with fronted adverbials. Hence, it would be beneficial to study the impact of different types of fronted constituents, preferably with data in which these different types have the same number of constituents.

All three groups reach a very high accuracy in subordinate declaratives, i.e. subordinate declaratives do not appear to be challenging. Practically the only problem lies in the use of the relative attribute *där* ("where"). As this polyfunctional grammatical word is also used as the spatial adverb *där* ("there") in main clauses where it is commonly fronted, the informants appear to struggle with distinguishing between subordinate and main clauses, which leads to overuse of inversion in subordinate declaratives.

When subordinate declaratives are compared to subordinate questions, the questions have significantly lower accuracies in all groups, i.e. subordinate questions stand out as a very challenging clause type, in which CG reaches significantly higher accuracy than immersion groups (cf. Nyqvist 2020). This also becomes clear when subordinate and

<sup>8</sup> E.g., *Onko hän sairas?* "Is he ill?"; *En tiedä onko hän sairas* "I don't know if he is ill"; *Miss ähän on?* "Where is he?" *En tiedä miss ähän on* "I don't know where he is".

direct questions are compared to one another: differences in accuracy are significant in all groups. The challenges provided by subordinate questions can be explained by their low frequency (Jørgensen, 1978, Hultman/Westman 1977), the opaque link between form and meaning (DeKeyser 2005) and by the fact that both direct and indirect questions have similar word orders in Finnish (Hakulinen et al. 2004). In sum, all informant groups, seen as advanced learners of L2 Swedish, produce qualitatively similar inaccuracies for both main and subordinate clauses as the less advanced learners in previous studies (as in Hyltenstam 1988, 1992): they overuse canonical word order in obligatory occasions for inversion in main clauses and inversion in subordinate clauses.

Examining the results using Housen and Simoens' (2016) taxonomy, one can conclude that differences between immersion and non-immersion and between younger and older informants are often significant. CG has received more explicit grammar instruction, but they do not usually reach higher accuracies than IM9, which might depend on the fact that the grammar rules concerning word order often use extensive challenging grammatical terminology (cf. R. Ellis 2006). Comparison of certain constructions such as direct and subordinate questions or declarative and interrogative subordinate clauses, i.e. feature-related factors (such as frequency, salience, and functional value, which are also central to usage-based grammar), by contrast, reveals that they have characteristics explaining why learners struggle with them.

Inaccuracies in word order indeed put comprehensibility in danger, if, e.g., a question is misinterpreted as a declarative due to an inaccurate word order. Another reason to focus on them in L2 instruction is the fact that they label the speaker as an L2 speaker (cf. Nyqvist/Lahtinen 2021). Åberg (2020), has also found that acquisition of inversion can be enhanced, at least in written production. Hence, it is important to find ways of increasing salience and noticing (Bybee 2008) and, by this means, acquisition of word order (especially inversion in declarative main clauses and canonical word order in subordinate questions) during lessons held in Swedish. As immersion students tend to directly develop implicit knowledge that is available for unconscious use in communication, it is difficult to change afterwards if it includes inaccuracies (R. Ellis 2008). The low frequency of e.g. subordinate clauses can be attended to with skewed input, i.e. input with several occurrences of a problematic construction (Goldberg/Casenhiser 2008). Conscious analyses of input should also be an important part of instruction, as L2 learners tend to neglect the grammar otherwise (DeKeyser 2005; see also Nyqvist 2018ab, 2021; Nyqvist/Lundkvist 2020; Nyqvist/Lahtinen 2021). A deliberate analysis of the language can create aides-memoire that the learners can utilise when analysing other examples of the same construction (Bybee 2008; N. Ellis/Wulff 2015). An increased focus on pattern recognition has also been recommended as an efficient method of L2 instruction by Swedish researchers (Håkansson et al. 2019; Prentice et al. 2016).

Additionally, accurate use of the problematic constructions, such as subordinate questions, should be practised intensely. Practising multiple skills in the same exercise, the so-called interleaving, has been shown to lead to better results in the long run than focusing on one construction at a time, as interleaving is similar to actual language use and permits deeper processing (Nakata/Suzuki 2019). As word order in Swedish comprises different types of constructions, interleaving exercises can be created solely of word order.

Language teachers in immersion settings should not, however, be the only ones enhancing the acquisition of grammar. The counter-balanced approach (Lyser 2007) states that teachers in all subjects should also be able to shift focus from their own subject to linguistic questions when needed. Written input has likewise proved to effectively develop the implicit knowledge (Kim/Godfroid 2019) and noticing of constructions in the written input can then be enhanced, e.g. with different colours or fonts drawing the student's attention to the form. Thus, utterances occurring in any study material can produce formulaic sequences, acting as aides-memoires in the language acquisition. Teachers can also direct the students' attention to the grammar by stressing certain grammatical morphemes in their speech or by their explicit comments that do not need to involve grammatical terminology (e.g. "Did you notice the inverted word order in that clause?"). Immersion has traditionally emphasised rich input and meaningful communication, but when they are conjoined with effective instruction, the learners are likely to reach a high level of competence even in the constructions that challenge them within this study.

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**Eeva-Liisa Nyqvist** was born in Turku, Finland. She got her master's degree in Scandinavian languages in 2004 and her doctoral degree in Scandinavian languages in 2013, both from the university of Turku. She works as a postdoctoral researcher in Swedish as a second language at the department of Finnish, Finno-Ugrian and Scandinavian studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Helsinki, Finland.

She has previously worked as University Teacher and University Lecturer in Scandinavian languages at the University of Eastern Finland and at the University of Helsinki, and as a Collegium Postdoctoral Researcher at Turku Institute of Advanced Studies at the University of Turku. Her research interests include second language grammar, immersion, multilingualism, intercomprehension of closely related languages and translation theory.

# Re-invigorating the Teaching of Continuous Writing in Secondary Schools

Ibrahim Juliet Olufunke

English and Literary Studies Department, Kogi State University, Anyigba, Nigeria

**Abstract**—Mastering the writing skill especially poses enormous, but surmountable challenges to learners of English language as a second language. A good grounding in writing is however a sine qua non to any academic achievement. At the centre of the performance of Nigerian students, especially in English language in SSCE, is the aspect of continuous writing which carries highest mark in the examination. This was discovered after going through some of the Chief Examiners reports on the performance of candidates in the SSCE in English language submitted to the West African Examination Council in Lagos. It has been observed that this abysmal failure is as a result of the fact that this aspect has not been given its deserved attention in the teaching of English language in secondary schools. The general fall in the standard of the education at the tertiary institutions is the general fall in the standard of the composition skills on the secondary schools. This paper intends to suggest re-energizing of the teaching of continuous writing in Nigerian secondary schools because of its utilitarian roles in educational and other life-long pursuit of the modern world. Some practical suggestions which are hoped to be of immense benefits to both the teachers and learners of composition writing, especially at the secondary school level are proffered along this line.

**Index Terms**—re-invigoration, continuous writing, language teaching

## I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the four skills of language. The other three are reading, speaking and listening. Writing and speaking are the productive skills, while reading and listening are the receptive skills. The writing skill is said to be the most sophisticated of skills acquired for language learning (Wiredu and Oyeleye, 1998). For communication to be effective, writing skills require the mastery of not only the grammatical and rhetorical devices but also conceptual and judgemental elements. Since writing involves not just graphic representation of speech but the development and presentation of thoughts in a structured way, it appears to be the hardest of all the skills even for native speakers.

Weigle (2002) states that it is now widely recognized that writing plays a vital role not only in conveying information, but also in transforming knowledge to create new knowledge. It is also of central importance to students in academic and second language programmes throughout the world. Again, writing, which was once considered the domain of the elite and well-educated, has become an essential tool for people of all walks of life.

This paper therefore intends to re-examine the ways in which the teaching of continuous writing could be improved for effective communication. The paper chooses SSCE as a focus of study since that is the preliminary stage for the prospective candidates into our tertiary institutions. The idea is to forestall the falling standard of education via the falling standard of teaching and learning English language at this level.

### A. Statement of the Problem

In a recent study, Aduwa-Ogiegbaen and Iyamu (2006) found out that the problems of the university education actually have roots at the secondary level. They note that it is at the secondary school level that the potential undergraduate is supposed to have been given adequate foundation in the use of English, but the fact on the ground is that the teaching and learning of this language is beset by a myriad of problems at this level. Afolayan (1995) also affirms that, generally, the English language teaching and learning efforts in Nigeria have failed to yield the expected positive results. Mohammed (1995) equally reveals that there has been a general decline in the performance of students in English in Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (SSCE) since its introduction in 1998, and a correlating failure in other subjects, particularly Biology, Chemistry, Physics and Mathematics. He rightly notes the close connection between communicative competence and educational performance generally.

Muhammed (1995) further laments that the students' overall communicative competence in English is declining, instead of improving, in spite of the fact that English is a core subject and a medium of instruction in both the JSS and SSS. This, he notes, is contrary to the normal expectation that, where a language is used as a medium of instruction as well as a core subject in an educational system, its acquisition would be smoother and constantly reinforced.

To redress the ugly situation painted above, Aduwa-Ogiegbaen and Iyamu (2006) suggest that in order to study English as a second language and be successful at it, the student must be properly helped by the teacher to acquire skill in the four language skills namely: speaking, reading, listening and writing. Ayodele, Oyeleye, Yakubu and Ajayi (1990) emphasize that as important as the possession of the language basic tools of adequate vocabulary and the mastery of the basic structure may be, these alone may not be very useful after all, if they cannot be used as tools to express suitable

ideas. Mohammed (1995) buttresses the above fact by affirming that proficiency is best determined not by how much language one knows in the head, but by how well one can use the language to communicate and express oneself freely on any subject matter.

Silva (1993, p. 669) argues that because of the problem of limited linguistic knowledge, writing in a second language tends to be “more constrained, more difficult, and less effective than writing in a first language”. He further asserts that, the second language writers generally plan less, revise for content, and write less fluently and accurately than first language writers. He continues that, in addition to limited linguistic resources, second language writers may be disadvantaged by cultural factors: they may not have awareness of the social and cultural uses of writing in second language, the appropriate ways in which functions can be expressed in writing, or the expectations of readers from a different culture. These enumerated problems are valid in the case of the Nigerian secondary school students of English who have limited knowledge in the structure of English language and the cultural nuances of the English people.

It is in line with the above stated problem of the decline in the standard of continuous writing in Nigeria, especially in the tertiary institutions as well as other general inherent problems associated with the teaching of English as second language according to Afolayan, (1995); and Aduwa-Ogbiegbaen (2009), that this paper calls for pedagogical re-invigoration and additional concerned efforts in the teaching and learning of English language at the secondary school level. This is because this is the level at which the foundation of the university education could be solidly laid. The focus of this paper is the teaching of the writing skills which have been acknowledged as arguably the most important in educational setting in terms of the utility; and at the same time, the most sophisticated and most difficult to accomplish of all the language learning skills (Oluikpe, 1979; Malinowski, 1991; Wiredu and Oyeleye, 1998).

Experience of this writer, over the years, has shown that majority of the students in our tertiary institutions lack the wherewithal to write coherent and sustained composition to explain their thoughts and ideas in assignments and examination questions; preferring, at the best, to give barren enumeration of their points, or write malnourished and undeveloped paragraphs. Students fail or score low marks in a situation like this, not because they do not have ideas of the subject-matter, but they do so because their work is haphazard, ill-planned, incoherent and shabbily executed. This unhealthy scenario probably happens because the writing skills of the concerned students were not sharpened enough at the foundational level in the secondary school.

### *B. Objective of the Study*

The objective of the study is to explore the importance of a good grounding in writing skills to any academic achievement. Also, to forestall the foreign standard of education and to proffer ways in which writing composition can be improve for effective communication.

## II. METHODOLOGY

Using an eclectic approach, data came from different sources relating to the importance of writing skills to academic achievement. Information came from examination of some of the Chief examiners' report on the performance of candidates in English language examinations submitted to the West African Examinations Council, Lagos. Personal experience as a long time English language examiner (Team Leader) for both West Africa Examinations Council (WAEC) and National Examinations Council (NECO) for several years was also put into use. Some classroom teachers of English language also volunteered information concerning the negligence of some of their colleagues in the teaching of composition writing. For further verification, structured questionnaire was equally used to source information on the perceived problems of writing composition in secondary schools and way out of the problems.

### **The Art of Continuous Writing**

In language art, the art of continuous writing is also referred to as essay writing or composition writing. Generally, writing involves putting down impressions or statements or declarations. And when the writing is done in a sustained form or manner, it grows into a composition. Depending on the situation, purpose and target audience, composition may take any of these forms: letter, essays, reports, minutes, memoranda, etc. Composition demands deep thinking and the ability to present points in an orderly manner. In presenting points in composition writing, one is expected to select relevant ones from an array of experiences which one has acquired from wide reading and one's daily interaction with friends, acquaintances, and so on. The skills necessary for writing good composition can be grouped into about five general components as follows (Wiredu and Oyeleye, 1998);

- ❖ **Language use:** the ability to use correct and appropriate sentences
- ❖ **Mechanical skill:** The ability to use correctly those conventions peculiar to the written language, such as punctuation marks, spelling, etc
- ❖ **Treatment of content:** Ability to think creatively and develop thoughts, excluding all irrelevant information.
- ❖ **Stylistic Skills:** The ability to manipulate sentences and paragraphs, and use of language effectively.
- ❖ **Judgement Skills:** The ability to write in an appropriate manner for a particular audience in mind, together with an ability to select, organize and order relevant information.

It behooves on the teacher of composition writing to have as their objectives the inculcation of the above sub-skills in their students as they teach along.

Suggestions for language teachers of continuous writing teachers of composition in the secondary school, as in other levels, should carefully and realistically plan the lesson for the composition class to serve two purposes: communicative and linguistic competence. For example, students in the composition class must be given motivation for the writing they are required to do. There must be an identified problem, a suitable stimulus and a clearly stated purpose for writing. This purpose must be explicitly embedded in questions, because students should not be expected to communicate in vacuum. That means there should be a clear statement of what is to be taught in the lesson and how it should be taught. The teacher could even go as far as explaining the type of writing skill intended to be taught and illustrate with interesting topics that are relevant to the students' experience. The problem to be tackled in the teaching should be identified. For instance, the problem may be how to develop paragraph or the required tense for narrative essays. This revelation can help prepare the students ahead of the real lesson.

Again, composition topics should be relevant to the background, interests and experiences of the students. For instance, current and rampant problems in the society such as students' unrest, HIV and political crises all that can easily sensitize the thinking and interest of students should be given to write on. They must be presented with the widest range of topics to write on, and their writing must be rationally directed, as in real life, to the persons expected. To realize the objective of linguistic competence, composition writing should be directed by the teacher to keep in step with the grammar and vocabulary being taught. Items of lexis and structure required for a particular topic should already have been taught. For instance, informal writings require informal style that is, familiar, natural and conversational language such as the use of Idioms, proverbs and abbreviations. In writing articles for publication, a mixture of long and short sentences with the former dominating will give a good presentation. Whereas in argumentative students should be taught how to employ contrary points to buttress their arguments and finally take a stand.

It is also expected that the teacher will stress the difference between the narrative essays and the argumentative essays that start with the vocative, Good Morning Sir/Ma, the Panel of Judges, the Time Keeper, the Co-debaters. It is equally advisable that the teacher teaches students how to use language to demonstrate their awareness of the presence of an immediate audience. Though the writing is formal, informal use of language such as 'can't', 'won't' is allowed. This will make the writing look more natural. These particular features distinguish argumentative writings from other writings and this fact should be stressed for students to take adequate precaution.

By and large, it is when the student of language is faced with the situation of putting his ideas or thoughts in writing that he realizes that the task looks simple on the surface only. As soon as the subject matter is identified, the enormity of exercise becomes clear. The teacher should inculcate the correct disposition in his students about composition writing. The students should be encouraged to see writing as a process. They must not be overtly conscious about the product. Rather, they should concentrate on the distinct but interrelated steps that must be taken during the writing process.

For a successful continuous writing, there is need for planning. Under this, the title of the essay should be the first thing to write down. Following this, the student will have to think about or mediate on the topic and then jot down points as they occur to the student. At this level, points can be jotted down in any order. An example is 'how to prepare pounded yam'. (a) cook the yam (b) pound the yam (c) peel the yam (d) wash the yam.

It is clear that to prepare pounded-yam does not come in the order given above. The next step therefore will be for the student to re-arrange these points the way they will appear in the essay. This leads the students to 'outlining' where the above steps are orderly arranged to give: (a) peel the yam (b) wash the yam (c) cook the yam (d) pound the yam. This orderliness provides continuity to the writing and as well prevents the writer from deviating from the layout of the essay.

Students in the composition class at the secondary school level should be made acquainted with the fact that writing outlines is a very important activity of the pre-writing stage of the essay. Writing outlines helps the students to plan his thought or ideas, and indeed the entire essay in an orderly manner. The student should know that any writing that does not have a well-laid outline is not likely to be a very good essay. It is in an outline that we show at a glance both the ideas contained in an essay and the way in which these ideas relate to one another.

**Paragraphing:** The teacher should reiterate to the students the importance of organization in composition writing. The student is expected to realize the importance attached to organization by examiners as well as the great help it can be to him. A student may fail in essay writing not because he does not have enough vocabulary, or that he does not have enough ideas to put across. He may fail because of the singular problem of ill-planning and shabby execution of the essay work. The student should therefore be instructed to be able to use the basic skills of language to build up the sentences into good paragraphs. They are expected to know how to formulate or generate ideas for the essay, how to break the ideas into manageable units, and finally how to develop the ideas into paragraphs each of which centers on one idea.

The teacher of continuous writing should endeavour to let the students know that a paragraph should contain only one point. Introducing two or more distinct points into one paragraph will make the paragraph lack unity. And if unity is to be preserved, every sentence must bear upon the new theme which the first sentence of a paragraph is expected to have expressed. This first sentence is called the topic sentence. If there are four points to be developed on a topic for instance, it means there shall be six paragraphs in all. One for introduction, four for points, and one for conclusion as illustrated below:

Topic: The issue of '419' in Nigeria.



(1) Introduction (2) The History of '419' in Nigeria (3) How '419' operates (4) Effects on social life and economic development (5) Efforts of the Government on the problems of '419'

(6) Conclusion

It must be stressed by the teacher that all forms of continuous prose are written in paragraphs. A paragraph happens to be a convenient unit of thought, discourse or composition. It is usually longer than a word, phrase or sentence, and it enables the writer to develop a unit of thought or central idea at a time. It usually has brief introduction, development and conclusion. In a sense, a paragraph can be described as a miniature essay.

Inherent in the concept of paragraphing is the idea of paragraph unity. Each paragraph revolves around one main point or a single central idea. Paragraph unity derives from the fact that there is a central idea to which all the sentences in the paragraph relate. To achieve this, there must be a key or topic sentence for every paragraph. Such a sentence encapsulates the central idea of the paragraph. It is usually located at the beginning of the paragraph by which other sentence in the paragraph will be seen to derive directly from. As a matter of fact, there should be no single unrelated sentence in the paragraph – one that does not contribute to the central idea of the paragraph.

This writer is positively disposed to the suggestion that in teaching composition writing to second language students, especially in the secondary schools, the teacher should not make too many assumptions about the ability of the students to handle structures, vocabulary and the mechanics of written expression. It has been suggested (William, 1990) that attention to details is essential in dealing with the writing problems of second language students; and the single most important recipe for the composition lesson is for the teacher to focus on one teaching point at a time. A teaching point is focused on a set of interrelated features, which make up a functioning whole. For example, in focusing on a point of tense, the writing needs to be restricted to the simple present, or the simple past tense only. Both tenses can constitute the focal point, the use of one tense being illuminated by contrast with the other.

A strong case has also been made for a judicious use of guided and controlled method of composition teaching, especially at the junior secondary school level (Oluikpe, 1979; William, 1999). This will be of immense benefits to the students at this level because the goal of controlled expression is to instill in the learners the facilities needed to produce clear piece of composition, free from all grammatical errors.

Literature plays an important role in teaching and learning to write composition. Literary works, especially the novels are exemplification of language system: the everyday language used for human communication. English and African novels with English as the language of expression contain features of the English Language used in England and Africa respectively. Features such as words and meaning, types of sentences, paragraphing, narrative, expository and descriptive passages; register and punctuation marks that abound in the novel are useful resources for teaching composition. Little wonder then when people who aspire to speak and write well are always advised to read novels.

Extracts from these novels can be made available in language classroom for practice. Students can be asked to read and summarize what each extract contains. This can help improve students' performance in essay writing, paragraph development and punctuation marks. Students can also be provided with points on particular topics and be asked to develop these points into composition. This can stimulate the students in the act of paragraph development and also enable them to use on their own, the features of English in the novel that have been acquired. This eventually can lead to effective communication in the English language. This is based on the premise that the use of language is the manipulation of fixed patterns, which are learnt by imitation; and not until these have been learnt that originality occurs in their writing endeavours.

It is also important that the teachers of composition writing impress it on their students that all the language skills are interrelated. For example, in an obvious way, writing and reading abilities are interrelated. Wide reasoning has a more profound, if subtle, effect on writing ability. As a matter of fact, the only way to write effectively is by being familiar with effective writing and learning from it in a subconscious kind of way. The learners of writing in the secondary school should not be unaware of this glaring fact.

Finally, students should be made to cultivate the habit of proper revision of their written composition and possibly give their composition to friends for further proof reading. They should be told not to allow their hand written composition or typed written compositions to get to the audience without proper revision. A research carried out by Hayes and Flower (1980) indicates that good writers spend more time planning and revising their work than novice and they tend to edit their writing for content and organization rather than simply making surface changes to the text. Expert writers also take into consideration their audience, by considering among other things what a potential reader is likely to know about the subject, how much needs to be explained and what can be left implicit, and what sort of evidence the reader will likely find impressive. It should be noted, as a matter of utmost importance, that composition teaching, like other areas in the language syllabus, should be activity-oriented. Expertise in writing comes gradually but surely when students learn to write by writing, and not by being told how to do it without practice.

Given the importance of writing skills to any academic achievement, it is surprising that, this aspect of language teaching is not given its deserved attention in secondary school, therefore the abysmal failure of students in English language yearly. The lacuna (existing gaps) that have generated this paper include the following observations.

- ❖ That inadequate attention is given to the teaching of the aspect of composition writing in English language.
- ❖ That over population is responsible for the neglect of the teaching of composition writing in English language.

- ❖ That the general fall in the composition writing in secondary schools is responsible for the general fall in the standard of education at tertiary institutions.
- ❖ That the unqualified teachers employed to handle English language in secondary schools is responsible for the poor performance in English language in external examinations.

The inadequate responses to the above observations provide the main justification for this paper that seeks to extrapolate the merit of a good grounding in writing skills to any academic achievement.

### III. DATA/ DATA ANALYSIS

To further prove the observed lapses in the teaching of the aspect of composition writing in English language in secondary schools and those areas that need to be focused when teaching English language in secondary schools, a structured questionnaire (50 copies) were administered to some randomly selected secondary schools English language teachers who are West African examination council examiners (markers). Only 43 copies of the 50 distributed were retrieved in May, 2021. The questionnaire touched on a number of issues surrounding the importance of writing skills to academic achievement and those factors militating against archiving this A simple percentage analysis of the 10 items produced the details below:

QUESTION 1 - 8 HAS YES/NO RESPONSE WHILE 9 - 10 ELICIT RESPONDENT'S FINDINGS

	Yes	%	No	%
1. Do you support the use of just any graduate to teach English language.	1	2.32	42	97.7
2. It is the inadequate attention given to the teaching of writing skills that is responsible for the writing skills that is responsible for the mass failure in English language.	38	88.4	5	11.6
3. Over population affects teachers' performance in teaching English language.	43	100		
4. The general fall in the standard of education in secondary schools is responsible for the fall in the standard of education in tertiary institutions.	38	88.4	5	11.6
5. Parents' failure to provide reading materials in English and Literature is affecting the teaching and learning of writing composition.	30	69.7	13	30.2
6. Failure in English language means failure in other subjects.	30	69.7	13	30.2
7. Giving more writing exercises to students will help improve their performance in writing composition.	40	93.02	3	6.97
8. Improvement on the teaching of writing skills will improve the level of academic performance of students.	43	100		
9. Rate the present level of performance in English language external examinations.	<b>Response</b>		<b>Figures</b>	<b>%</b>
	Poor		24	55.8
	Average		11	25.65
	Encourage		6	13.9
10. What in your opinion should be done to prevent further decline in the standard of education in schools?	Significant		2	4.6
	Reduces class population		25	60.46
	Reduce school fees		1	2.32
	Provide incentive to teachers		13	30.23
	Establish monitoring agents to monitor schools		4	9.30

### IV. DISCUSSION

**Question One:** Nearly all our respondents, 42 (97.7) to question one do not support the use of just any graduate to teach the English Language in secondary schools. This shows a significant level of awareness of the havoc such a practice had caused learners.

**Question Two:** Majority of our respondents to question two 38 (88.4) confessed to the negative impact the inadequate attention given to the teaching of writing skills has caused academic performance- a view that is in tandem with the position of this paper.

**Question Three:** All our respondents 43 (100) agreed that over population is affecting the efficiency of English Language teachers in the teaching and learning of the writing skills in English language classrooms.

**Question Four:** 38 of our respondents (84.4) believed that the general fall in education in secondary schools can be linked to the general fall in education in tertiary institutions. This is because the skills potential undergraduates are supposed to have possessed, in the use of English is from secondary school level.

**Question Five:** most of our respondents 30 (69.7) agreed that parents' failure to provide working tools-reading materials in English and Literature for students is affecting good performance in writing skills, a view shared by this paper.

**Question Six:** majority of our respondents 30 (69.76%) believed that failure in English language means failure in other subjects. This claim is not unconnected with the fact that a failure in English language renders passes in other subjects useless as no admission can be secured into any tertiary institution without a credit pass in English language.

**Question Seven:** Nearly all our respondents 40 (93.03) shared the opinion that giving more writing exercises to students will help improve their writing skills. This is because teaching will be more practical as students' performance can be assessed and graded.

**Question Eight:** All our respondents 43 (100%) shared the opinion that improvement on the teaching of writing skills in English language will improve the level of performance in academic performance. This is supported by the fact claimed in this paper that, a good grounding in writing is since qua non to any academic achievement.

**Question Nine:** 30 (9.7) out of the 43 respondents rated the performance in English language as 'poor' 8 (9.8) as 'encouraging; 3 (6.97) as 'average' while 2 (4.6) as 'significant'. From these responses, it is clear that the general performance of students in English language is acknowledged to be generally 'poor' i.e.69.7%.

**Question Ten:** 25 of our respondents (60.46) believed that if the classroom population is drastically reduced, the class will become effectively managed. 13 (30.23) want the English language teachers remunerated for effective performance. 4 (9.30) is of the opinion that if the government sets up an inspectorate division to monitor teachers, performance will be enhanced. 1 (2.32) believed school fees need to be reduced for teaching and learning of writing skills to be meaningful.

What one can deduce from this analysis above is that, over population in classrooms appears to be working seriously against the effective performance of teachers and learners in classrooms.

## V. CONCLUSION

It is the contention of this writer that if the teaching of composition writing is re-vitalized and radically improved in the secondary schools along the lines suggested above, the positive band-wagon effects would be reaped in their tertiary institution where the use of English of the undergraduates and their approach to answering essay questions in their different fields of study would be enhanced. This re-invigoration is also expected to particularly stem the tide of mass failure in SSCE, and failure in other subjects as well. It is expected that the more power of expression and organization the students have in arranging thoughts and ideas logically and coherently in English language, the more they will be able to surmount all their academic hurdles, and the trend of the much talked about falling academic standard would be arrested. Outside academics, the students would be able to harness the immense potentials of the English language in Nigeria. The English Language in Nigeria today, as in the world over, is a veritable tool for the acquisition of modern knowledge and self-development of its speakers. Ultimately, the growth and development of the nation as a whole would be further enhanced.

### Recommendation

As failure in the English language means failure in other subjects (failure in English hinders admission to any higher institution) and composition carries the highest mark in SSCE English paper, special attention should be given to the writing of composition by making it more practical-giving more writing exercises to students. The government also has its role to play in the area of over population in classes. If the population in each class is reduced to manageable level (45 students per class) as the practice was in the past, teachers will be able to give essay topics out to students, mark and return to students for them to know their areas of deficiency.

Parents should also endeavour to provide reading materials for their children especially English and Literature text books to enhance the teaching and learning in secondary schools.

The teaching of English Language should not be given to just any graduate but trained graduates of English that can properly handle the writing of composition.

Over population has so much discouraged teachers from given composition topics for students to write and return for grading. In the alternative many teachers have concentrated more on grammar works that have worked examples that can direct students on what to do. After the exercise, students in most cases are asked to exchange their notes to be graded by themselves. This practice has also indirectly affected writing composition as the needed grammar or appropriate lexical items for writing specific composition topics are not acquired in order to communicate effectively.

It is the belief of this writer that if all these areas mentioned above are adequately addressed by the government and the teachers of composition, both the teachers and the students will receive enough motivation to teach and write good composition.

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**Juliet Olufunke Ibrahim** born on the 21<sup>st</sup> Oct, 1962. She has Awards in BA ENGLISH LANGUAGE in University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria (1981), MA ENGLISH LANGUAGE in University of Ilorin, Ilorin Nigeria (1990), PHD ENGLISH LANGUAGE at Ahmadu Bello University Zaria (2012). The Author's specialized on socio-linguistics.

She has a working experience at Kogi state University Anyigba, Kogi State, Nigeria where she LECTURED as a senior Lecturer.

Dr. Ibrahim has memberships with ANA – Association of Nigeria Author and LAN- Linguistics Association of Nigeria.

# The Impact of Using Flipped Learning Strategy on Developing Listening Skills of 7th Grade Female Students in the United Arab Emirates

May A. Awad

Al Ain University, United Arab Emirates

Ibtehal M. Aburezeq

Al Ain University, United Arab Emirates

**Abstract**—This study aimed to examine the impact of Flipped Learning Strategy on developing listening skills of 7th grade female students in the United Arab Emirates. The study sample consisted of (44) female students selected by using the convenience sampling method from the Emirates Private School during the academic year of 2019 -2020. Those female students were distributed into two groups: An experimental group (22 students) and control group (22 students). The experimental group was taught the listening skills by using the Flipped Learning Strategy, and the control group was taught by the traditional method. To achieve the purpose of the study and answer its questions, a listening skills test was developed and its validity and reliability were also checked. At the end of the experiment which lasted for six weeks, the post-test of listening skills was carried out. The appropriate statistical methods were used to analyze the collected data. The results of the study showed that there were statistically significant differences between the two groups in the total score of the listening post-test and its three levels (audible discrimination, audible interpretation, audible criticism in favor of the experimental group. This indicates that the flipped learning strategy had a positive impact on developing the listening skills of sample students. Given such results, a number of recommendations were provided.

**Index Terms**—strategy, flipped learning, listening skills, seventh grade

## I. INTRODUCTION AND RELATED LITERATURE

Language is a tool for thinking, contact and communication between individuals, by which heritage has been kept and circulated through generations, and through it, people of one society have been able to converge, understand and create a common basis through which their ideas and creativity crystallize and march together towards progress and evolution through time. Language with different skills is a means of transferring and exchanging feelings, sensations, experiences, ideas, and knowledge from one individual to another. Language consists of several skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, where language communication is carried out through those skills that represent the forms of language use, and each individual skill is highly important for them and for the rest of the skills, each skill depends during its use on the individual's mastery of other interrelated skills, in order that some of those skills influence and be influenced by the other, and Arabic language skills require the individual's awareness and attention to achieve language growth and proficiency (Al-Mashharawi and Hallas, 2018).

Al-Obaid and Al-Shayea (2015) stated that modern technology has added another dimension to the traditional Strategies of teaching and methodologies, and contributed to devoting the principle of uniqueness of education, which takes into account the individual differences of learners and increases the motivation for learning. Similarly, the existence of many strategies and methodologies based on the technology of education in the classroom which contributes to the effectiveness of the educational process, such as strategies based on PowerPoint presentations, interactive online education, virtual environments in education, the provision of learning resources, as well as evaluation and diagnosis. The concept of flipped learning has emerged in the 21st century as a modern technology-based strategy for designing lessons according to the student's preparation, abilities and circumstances in order to achieve the target goals of learning and teaching where flipped learning uses many modern technologies and the web to help the teacher design lessons supported by videos, audio files, or PowerPoint presentations, so that the learner can view and review them at home before attending the lesson.

Flipped learning is based on the constructivist theory which views learners as interactive thinkers with the world around them in an active collaborative atmosphere that helps to make use of time in class, and helps guide learners to learning resources (Al-Ghamdi and Al-Ansari, 2018). In addition, the constructivist theory focuses on the activity of the learner, and his obtaining a meaningful learning by understanding what he learns, and seeking to build scientific concepts and knowledge (Al-Jallad and Al-Dulaimi, 2018). The constructivist theory is one of the most educational theories called for by educators to design diverse educational attitudes, such as Brunner (1990), Vygotsky (1978), and

Dewey (1916). The pioneers of constructivist theory point to the importance of transitioning learning by linking educational tasks with life skills related to the subject of education (El-Tahan, 2014).

#### Related literature

Teaching strategies have varied and diversified throughout the ages. There are many strategies that assist the teacher in the learning process; some are done individually and some are done collectively. However, there is no better educational strategy than another; rather, selection is made according to what is appropriate to the educational content and learners and in order to achieve educational goals in quality and effectiveness. This diversity is due to an inevitable result of the development of the philosophy of education, the multiplicity of educational goals, the development of learning and teaching theories, and the development of technological and technical means which added other dimensions to education. As a natural result of this diversity in education strategies, the classifications associated with them varied. Some of them focus on the teacher and are called teacher-dependent strategies, such as explanations, presentations, lectures, etc., and they are strategies that are subject to the authority of the teacher and his absolute control of the teaching-learning process. The other type is the strategies that depend on the learner and consider him as the center of the educational process, such as programmed education, small groups, e-learning problem solving, educational portfolios, and other strategies (Zayer, Sabri, and Hassan, 2014).

The origins of flipped learning are traced back to the scientist Baker who was the first to think about using this technology, with the aim of transferring the curriculum to learners outside the classroom. Despite all the difficulties encountered to find the optimal method of transferring content, he continued to try until the emergence of the Learning Management System (LMS) in 1995, which enabled him to transfer educational content and lectures to students with ease (Baker, 2000) referred to in (Al-Ghamdi and Al-Ansari, 2018). Mortensen and Nicholson cited in the Belmonte, S  nche, & Espejo study (Belmonte, S  nche, & Espejo, 2019) define flipped learning as an approach to learning and teaching in which the roles of teacher and learner are reflected in the educational process. The concept of flipped learning has emerged in many places such as EDUCAUSE Foundation, which is distinguished in the activation of technology and modern techniques in education, which the Foundation refers to flipped learning as a model that presents cognitive content as a model lecture that can be seen at home as a duty, and discussion of content takes place within the classroom.

The problem of this study is summarized in the weakness of students in listening skills, as the researcher noticed through her teaching for several years that the listening skill of her students were weak and needed more attention from those concerned to improve them and work on their development. Furthermore, there are also some studies that point out the weakness of students in listening skills, such as the study of Al-Mashharawi and Hallas (2018), and the study of Mansi (2018). This study attempted to tackle this problem by answering the following questions:

#### Key question:

Are there statistically significant differences at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the average grades of seventh graders between the experimental and control groups in the combined post-test listening skills attributable to the teaching strategies of Flipped learning and the usual method?

#### Three sub-questions emerged from the main question:

Are there statistically Significant differences at a confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the average grades of seventh graders in the experimental and control groups between the post-test of listening skills related to audible discrimination attributable to the teaching strategies of Flipped learning and the usual method?

Are there statistically Significant differences at a confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the average grades of seventh graders in the experimental and control groups in the posttest of listening skills related to the audible interpretation attributable to the teaching strategies of Flipped learning and the usual method Flipped learning and the usual method?

Are there statistically Significant differences at a confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the average grades of seventh graders between the experimental and control groups in the post test of listening skills related to audio criticism attributed to the teaching strategies of Flipped learning and the usual method flipped learning and the usual method?

This study aimed to find out the effectiveness of using the flipped learning strategy in developing the listening skills of seventh graders in the emirate of Abu Dhabi.

The importance of the current study emerges from the theoretical and practical perspectives in the following aspects:

#### Significance of the study from a theoretical point of view

The theoretical importance of conducting this study lies in providing a theoretical framework on the effectiveness of using the flipped learning strategy in developing listening skills, due to the scarcity of studies that dealt with the effectiveness of using the flipped learning strategy and its ability to improve and develop listening skills in the Arabic language in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. In addition, this study is consistent with the recent policy of the United Arab Emirates in activating the role of the learner in building and acquiring knowledge.

#### Significance of the study from a practical point of view

The current study is a recent study that contributes to drawing the attention of those concerned in the Ministry of Education to the importance of the effectiveness of using the flipped learning strategy in developing listening skills in teaching Arabic, in addition to urging them to take advantage of educational technology and its applications available in the flipped learning strategy, and the techniques that work on consolidating the foundations of self-learning and mastering listening skills. The results of the study benefit curricula authors and developers in including modern teaching

strategies, in addition to benefiting from the manner of applying this strategy in various educational situations that contribute to the development of listening skills as it is the basis for the rest of the language skills of speaking, reading and writing.

#### Study Scope and limitations

The scope and limits of the study were as follows

Objective limits: This study was limited to teaching the following lessons (Optimism and Hope, Burj Khalifa, writing a narrative text) from the Arabic language book for the seventh grade, Part Two.

Human limits: seventh graders in the United Arab Emirates.

Time limits: the study was applied during the second semester of the 2019-2020 academic year and the application lasted for six weeks.

Place limits: Emirates private school in Al Ain City affiliated to Department of Education and Knowledge in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi in the United Arab Emirates.

#### Procedural definitions:

Flipped learning strategy: is the art of class management in a direction opposite to the traditional trend, whereby the learner reviews and studies educational content at home based on learning technology, and the teacher plays the role of designer, mentor, and facilitator of in-class learning, so that the class time is exploited for enrichment, reinforcement and processing.

Listening skill: It is the skill through which sounds are received, understood and analyzed up to the ability to criticize and judge the listening, in order to achieve the growth of listening skill and mastery of it at its three levels their indicators (audio discrimination, audio interpretation, and audio criticism). In addition, this strategy involves effective communication between the sender and receiver, measured by a tool prepared by the researcher for this purpose.

Seventh grade: It is one of the grades of the second cycle, extending from grade 5-8, and the ages of students range between (12-13) years.

In the context of the search for the topic in theoretical literature and previous studies, the relevant studies were divided into two types: the first types surveys Arabic studies related to flipped learning and then foreign studies, while the second type included Arabic and then foreign studies related to listening.

#### First Type: Arabic studies related to flipped learning and then foreign studies

In a study by Mansi (2018) aiming at identifying the effectiveness of the use of flipped learning strategy in the development of listening skills and trends towards it, the researcher followed the semi-experimental approach to achieve the objectives of the study, whereby the researcher designed two tools for the study, namely: An achievement test of critical listening skills, and a scale of attitudes towards a flipped learning strategy. The study sample consisted of (85) tenth grade students. They were chosen intentionally and divided into two groups: experimental and control groups. Using the appropriate statistical treatments, it was found that there were statistically significant differences at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the two groups in favor of the experimental group due to the use of the flipped learning strategy.

The second study was conducted by Al-Zubaidi (2018). The study aimed to identify the use of the flipped learning strategy in academic achievement in the Arabic language in terms of developing self-learning skills. The researcher followed the quasi-experimental approach to achieve the objectives of the study, and an achievement test and a questionnaire were used to measure self-learning skills as tools for the study. The sample consisted of (70) female students from the tenth grade. The results of the study showed the performance of the experimental group which used the flipped learning strategy was significantly better than the performance of the control group, and concluded that the flipped strategy raised the level of self-learning among female students in the Arabic language.

Both researchers, Al-Ghamdi and Al-Ansari (2018) investigated the effectiveness of the use of flipped learning in developing self-learning skills and cognitive achievement. To achieve this goal, both researchers followed the semi-experimental approach and used the self-learning skills scale and the cognitive achievement test for a sample of 68 first-graders in the social and national school subjects using the flipped strategy. After the study was applied, the results showed significant differences in favor of the experimental group in both the self-learning skills scale and the cognitive achievement test. The results also showed a statistically significant correlation between performance in both scales among the experimental group students studied using flipped learning.

A study titled Integrating Flipped Learning in Traditional Classrooms to Enhance Learning English Listening and Speaking Skills for Non-Native Speakers and Enhance Participation by Amir Yousefi (2019) investigated the effectiveness of the flipped strategy. The researcher designed his experiment according to the experimental method. The sample consisted of (67) university students from Iran. The sample was divided into three groups; the set of Flipped Structured Learning, Flipped Semi-Structured Learning, and Traditional Learning. The researcher used the instant messaging application (Telegram) as an online platform to implement the study, and its tools were a listening test, a speaking test, and a questionnaire. The results of the study, after applying the strategy on the experimental group, showed that there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group in the listening and speaking test, and the results showed that flipped learning can help learners improve listening and speaking skills in second language learning, and lead to an increase in motivation to participate in materials and activities that take place

outside classroom, and that flipped learning can contribute to increasing the quality of learning a second language and facilitate its teaching by teachers, compared to traditional learning.

As for the study of Kırmızı & Kömeç, (2019), it aimed to know the effect of flipped learning on receptive vocabulary and productivity in learning. The quasi-experimental approach was followed to achieve the objectives of the study. The number of sample members was (58) students in the secondary stage. The researchers used a test to measure vocabulary, and an open questionnaire as a study tool. The results indicated that there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group due to the use of flipped learning. The results of the questionnaire also showed that the learners demonstrated positive attitudes towards practical activities that take place in the classroom. They found that flipped learning is dynamic, collaborative, and effective.

Khadragey (2016) also conducted a study aimed at exploring the effect of using the teaching inversion method (flipped learning) on reading performance in the English language, whereby the researcher used the quasi-experimental approach to achieve the objectives of the study, and the researcher worked on designing an educational program that was implemented in a period of 8 weeks. The program included a set of tools, namely: educational films and a social media channel with CDs, with the application of three exams, the first is diagnostic, a pre-test and a post-test. The number of sample members was (55) female students, who were divided into two groups: experimental and control. The results showed a positive impact on the level of performance on the reading skills in the experimental group.

#### The Second Type: listening-related studies

Al-Suwairki (2019) conducted a study aimed at investigating the necessary listening skills to achieve academic excellence among students at King Abdul-Aziz University. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher followed the descriptive analytical approach. The study sample consisted of (243) students, and the researcher prepared a questionnaire to determine the necessary listening skills for university students and designed a listening skills test. The study found that a list of the listening skills necessary to achieve excellence in the study amounted to (5) main skills associated with (25) sub-skills in the skills of comprehension and audible discrimination. The study also showed the extent to which students need listening skills and their necessity in their scientific and practical life inside and outside the university.

Al-Kadam (2019) conducted a study on the impact of YouTube in raising the level of both listening and speaking skills among female students. The researcher followed the descriptive and analytical approach to achieve the objectives of the study, and prepared a questionnaire that was distributed to the sample members of (42) female students of the Institute of Arabic Language Teaching for Non-speakers at Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University. The results of the study showed that the level of use of YouTube by female students was mostly average, and that the level of female students in listening and speaking skills was also average, and the study showed a statistically significant impact on the use of YouTube in raising the level of both listening and speaking skills among female students.

Mansi (2019) conducted a study that aimed to find out the effect of employing digital stories in developing the listening skills of ninth grade students in Jordan. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher followed the experimental approach. The sample consisted of (64) ninth grade students who were divided into two experimental and control groups. The researcher used the listening skills test as a tool for the study, and the results showed that there were statistically significant differences at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) in favor of the experimental group students who studied using digital stories in the listening skills test.

Al-Mashhrawi and Hallas (2018) conducted a study to reveal the effectiveness of a multimedia program in developing listening skills in Gaza. The two researchers followed the experimental approach to achieve the objectives of the study, and a multimedia-based program, written test and an observation card were used for the sixth grade students. The study indicated that there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group in the post test of listening skills, as well as the presence of statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group in the post-test of the note card compared to the control group.

As for the foreign studies related to listening, the first study was conducted by Erkek and Batur (2019). It aimed to build actual suggestions for developing critical listening skills. The researchers used the descriptive analytical approach to achieve the objectives of the study by analyzing the curriculum at the fifth and sixth levels of the preparatory stage in Turkey on activities related to the development of critical listening skills after preparing a list of critical listening skills. The results of the study indicated neglect of listening skill in the curriculum and in theoretical literature, with a dearth of studies centered on activities that develop critical listening skill.

Kök (2018) conducted a study on the relationship between the listening comprehension strategy and the mastery of listening comprehension for university students. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher followed the quasi-experimental approach to a sample of (44) students in the Department of English Language Teaching. The researcher used three listening tests with time intervals in order to measure listening comprehension. Through the experimental treatment that was applied for a period of (6) weeks, it was found that there is a positive relationship between the level of using the listening comprehension strategy and the mastery of listening comprehension among university students in favor of the experimental group.

On the other hand, Kirbas (2017) conducted a study aimed at knowing the effect of the cooperative learning method in developing listening and comprehension skills for eighth grade students in several schools in the Turkish province of Erzurum, where the experimental method was followed to achieve the objectives of the study, and the number of



sample members was 75 students. The researcher used the listening test as a tool for the study. The results of the study showed that there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group that studied listening using the cooperative learning method.

Caruso, Colombi, & Tebbit (2017) conducted a study on the effectiveness of listening teaching according to blended learning for developing and evaluating listening skills in a second language. To achieve the objectives of the study, the researchers used the quasi-experimental approach. A set of listening tests and a questionnaire were prepared and applied to a sample of students of the University of Western Australia and the number of the sample was (81). The results of the study showed that there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group that studied listening according to mixed learning, in addition to the students' preference for learning using blended learning by building positive perceptions by students for assessment through World Wide Web

## II. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the quasi-experimental approach to achieve the objectives of the study, as it is the most appropriate approach for the purposes of the study. The purpose of the study is to find out the effectiveness of using the flipped learning strategy in developing the listening skills of seventh grade female students in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi.

### Study Sample:

The study consisted of (44) female students, who were chosen intentionally.

### Study tool:

To implement the study, the researcher designed the tool represented in the listening skills test to know the effectiveness of the flipped learning strategy in developing the listening skills of seventh grade female students in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. To verify the validity of the tool, it was presented to a group of arbitrators with experience and expertise from specialists in the field of curricula and teaching methods, and supervisors. and teachers of the Arabic language numbering (12) arbitrators.

TABLE NO. (1):  
THE VALUES OF THE CONSISTENCY COEFFICIENTS FOR THE LISTENING SKILLS TEST

Level	No. of Questions	Stability coefficient value
Audible Discrimination Skill	5	0.659
Audible Interpretation Skill	5	0.739
Audible Criticism Skill	5	0.725
Combined listening Skills	15	0.857

Table 1 shows the stability coefficient value for the combined listening skills test (0.857), the value of the stability coefficient for the listening skills test related to audible discrimination (0.659), the stability coefficient value for the listening skills test related to the audible interpretation (0.739) and the listening skills test related to the audible criticism (0.725); since all the values of the constancy coefficients mentioned in Table 1 range from 0.00-1.00, they are considered acceptable and suitable for study purposes (Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

Table 1 shows the consistency coefficient value for the combined listening skills test was (0.857), and the value of the consistency coefficient for the listening skills test related to audible discrimination was (0.659), while the consistency coefficient value for the listening skills test related to the audible interpretation was (0.739) and the listening skills test related to the audible criticism was (0.725). Since all the values of the consistency coefficients mentioned in Table 1 range from (0.00-1.00), they are considered acceptable and suitable for study purposes (Carmines & Zeller, 1979)

### Study Plans:

To prepare the study plans, the theoretical literature and previous studies associated with the study, such as the Zubaidi Study (2018), the Bergmann & Sams study (2014), as well as the teacher's guide and the benefit from the experience of the teacher responsible for the implementation of the study and her observations on the preparation of the study plans were reviewed. The validity of the lesson plans was verified and presented in its initial form to a group of arbitrators specialized in the curricula and methods of teaching Arabic, in addition to a number of (12) Arabic language supervisors and teachers.

### The Equivalence of the Two Study Groups

To verify the equivalence of the two groups of the study, the test was applied to the two groups before applying the study, and then the average and standard deviations of the scores of the students of the two groups were calculated. To find out the statistical significance of these differences, the Paired Sample T-Test was used, which shows the tabular (T) value and the value of (C) calculated, and Table No. (2) shows this.

TABLE NO. (2):  
ARITHMETIC AVERAGES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, VALUE OF (T) AND LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE PRE-TEST OF THE LISTENING SKILLS.

Group	NO.	Arithmetic average	Standard deviation	Calculated value of (T)	Tabular value of (T)	Level of semantic
Experimental	22	8.3	1.28	1.62	2.02	Not statistically semantic
Control	22	7.7	1.26			

Table No. (2) shows that there are no statistically Significant differences in the Arithmetic averages and standard deviations between the scores of the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, as the calculated (T) value (1.62) was less than its tabular value, which amounted to (2.02). This indicates that there are no statistically significant differences at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) due to the effect of the group, which indicates the equality of the two study groups before the study was implemented (Rowntree, 2000).

#### Test time:

To determine the appropriate time for the test, the arithmetic average of the time period for the test applied to the pilot sample was calculated for the first student to finish the test and the last student to finish the test in the exploratory sample, where the arithmetic average was found through the following equation:

Arithmetic average = (the last student took the time + the first student took the time)/2

After calculating the result of the equation, it was found that the appropriate test time is (40) minutes.

#### Procedures of the Study:

The following procedures were followed in the study:

1. Reviewing educational theoretical literature and previous studies related to the subject of the study.
2. Determining the time plan for the implementation of the study, which started from 01/26/2020 to 05/03/2020. (11) lessons covering three lessons: optimism and hope, Burj Khalifa, and writing a narrative text.
3. Preparing a list of listening skills, selecting the listening text, preparing a listening skills test, and lesson plans for the targeted lessons.
4. Checking the apparent validity of the tool. Obtaining a task facilitation letter directed from the Ministry of Education for private schools in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi to facilitate the researcher's task, annex (7).
5. Applying the test to the exploratory sample to verify the consistency of the test and to determine the time of the test.
6. Conducting a pre-test for listening skills on the experimental and control groups on 26/01/2020 to verify the equivalence of the two groups and implementing the study according to the flipped learning strategy for the experimental group, and based on the usual method for the control group, and conducting the post-test of listening skills on the two study groups after the end of the study's implementation, on 05/03/2020. The test was corrected within the model answer table.
7. Collecting Data and processing them statistically to present, interpret and discuss the results, and then formulate recommendations based on the results of the study.

#### Variables

The current study included the following variables:

The independent variable is the teaching method and has two levels: the flipped learning strategy and the regular method.

Dependent variable: listening skills.

#### Statistical Analysis

The researcher answered the study questions to achieve its objectives by using the following statistical methods:

Cronbach's alpha coefficient to calculate the consistency coefficient of the test.

Arithmetic averages and standard deviations to verify the equivalence of the two study groups.

Calculating the value of (T) using the (Paired Sample T-Test) to detect the significance of the statistical differences between the scores of the experimental and control groups in the listening skills test.

### III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the Results of the current study, where they were presented starting with the main question and then the sub-questions and came as follows:

Results related to the main question, which states: are there statistically significant differences at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the average grades of seventh graders in the experimental and control groups on the combined after-test listening skills attributable to the teaching strategy according to Flipped learning and the usual method?

To answer the question, the Arithmetic averages and standard deviations of the scores of both the experimental and control groups in the telemetry test of listening skills were calculated together, as shown in Table 3.

TABLE NO. 3:  
ARITHMETIC AVERAGES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, VALUE (V) AND CONFIDENCE LEVEL OF THE SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE POST-TEST OF COMBINED LISTENING SKILLS.

Group	NO.	Arithmetic average	Standard deviation	Calculated value of (T)	Tabular value of (T)	Level of semantic
Experimental	22	14.09	0.75018	1.92	1.72	Statistically semantic
Control	22	7.97	1.65994			

Table (3) shows that there are differences in the arithmetic averages between the scores of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills combined. The arithmetic average of the scores of the experimental group students was (14.09), which is greater than the arithmetic average of the scores of the students of the control group (7.97), and it appears that the calculated value of (T) is greater than its tabular value at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ), as for the value of (T), the calculated value is (1.92) and the tabular (T) value is (1.72), and therefore there are statistically significant differences between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of the combined listening skills.

#### Results related to the first sub-question :

The main question: Are there statistically Significant differences at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the mean scores of seventh grade students in the experimental and control groups in the post- test of listening skills related to audible discrimination due to the teaching strategy according to the flipped learning and the usual method?

In order to answer the question, the arithmetic averages and standard deviations of the scores of each of the experimental and control groups were calculated in the post-test of listening skills related to audible discrimination, and Table No. (4) shows this.

TABLE NO. (4):  
ARITHMETIC AVERAGES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-VALUE AND SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL FOR THE SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE POST TEST OF LISTENING SKILLS RELATED TO AUDIBLE DISCRIMINATION.

Group	NO.	Arithmetic average	Standard deviation	Calculated value of (T)	Tabular value of (T)	Level of semantic
Experimental	22	4.68	0.47673	9.21	1.72	Statistically semantic
Control	22	2.77	0.75162			

It is noted from Table No. (4) that there are differences in the arithmetic averages between the scores of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to audible discrimination. The arithmetic average of the scores of the students in the experimental group was (4.68), while the arithmetic average of the scores of the students in the control group was (2.77).

It also turned out that the calculated (T) value is greater than its tabular value at the confidence level ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ), as the calculated (T) value is (9.21) and the tabulated (T) value is (1.72). Thus, there are statistically Significant differences between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the students of the experimental and control groups in the post- test of listening skills related to audible discrimination.

Results related to the second sub-question: Are there statistically significant differences at the confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the mean scores of seventh grade students in the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to the audible interpretation due to the teaching strategy based on flipped learning and the usual method?

In order to answer the question, the arithmetic averages and standard deviations of the scores of each of the experimental and control groups were calculated in the post-test of listening skills related to audible discrimination, as shown in Table (5).

TABLE NO. (5):  
ARITHMETIC AVERAGES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-VALUE AND CONFIDENCE LEVEL FOR THE SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE POST-TEST OF LISTENING SKILLS RELATED TO AUDIO INTERPRETATION

Group	NO.	Arithmetic average	Standard deviation	Calculated value of (T)	Tabular value of (T)	Level of semantic
Experimental	22	4.81	0.39477	12.02	1.72	Statistically semantic
Control	22	2.59	0.66613			

It is noted from Table No. (5) that there are differences in the arithmetic averages between the scores of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to the audible interpretation; The arithmetic average of the scores of the students in the experimental group was (4.81), which is greater than the arithmetic average of the scores of the students of the control group, which amounted to (2.59), and it turned out that the calculated (T) value is greater than its tabular value at the confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ), as the calculated (T) value is (12.02) and the tabular (T) value is (1.72), and therefore there are statistically significant differences between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the students of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to the audible interpretation.

Results related to the third sub-question: Are there statistically significant differences at the confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the mean scores of seventh grade students in the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to audio criticism due to the teaching strategy based on flipped learning and the usual method?

In order to answer the question, the arithmetic averages and standard deviations of the scores of each of the experimental and control groups were calculated in the post-test of listening skills related to audible discrimination, as shown in Table (6)

TABLE NO. (6):  
ARITHMETIC AVERAGES, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, T-VALUE AND CONFIDENCE LEVEL FOR THE SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE POST-TEST OF LISTENING SKILLS RELATED TO AUDIO CRITICISM

Group	NO.	Arithmetic average	Standard deviation	Calculated value of (T)	Tabular value of (T)	Level of semantic
Experimental	22	4.59	0.59033	7.12	1.72	Statistically semantic
Control	22	2.40	1.00755			

It is noted from Table No. (6) that there are differences in the arithmetic averages between the scores of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to audible discrimination. The arithmetic average of the scores of the students in the experimental group was (4.59), which is greater than the arithmetic average of the scores of the students of the control group, which reached (2.40). Also, it turned out that the calculated (T) value is greater than its tabular value at the confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ), where the calculated (T) value is (7.12) and the tabular (T) value is (1.72), and therefore there are statistically Significant differences between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the students of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to audio criticism.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

This chapter deals with a discussion of the results obtained from the current study and their interpretation, with a presentation of a set of recommendations that were drawn in the light of the results of the current study, and they came as follows:

##### Discussing the results related to the main question:

The results of the study showed that there were statistically significant differences at the confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the female students in the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills combined. This difference was in favor of the experimental group that was taught using the flipped learning strategy. The previous result can be explained by the use of the flipped learning strategy on the study sample, where the use of flipped learning in teaching the experimental group had a significant impact on the development of listening skills. The flipped learning strategy stimulates the motivation for self-learning among the students and gives them the opportunity to review the submitted materials more than once in proportion to the abilities of each student. Thus, it contributes to taking into account individual differences and providing flexibility for the student to review and repeat the educational content as needed and at the appropriate time for her.

##### Discussing the results related to the first sub-question:

The results of the study indicated that there were statistically significant differences at confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the students in the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to audible discrimination. This difference was in favor of the experimental group that was taught using the flipped learning strategy. The researcher explains this result that the experimental group was positively affected by the flipped learning strategy, and this was reflected in the development and improvement of the audible discrimination skills of the students. The flipped learning strategy has contributed to increasing the motivation for learning and self-learning, which contributed to raising the efficiency and comprehension capacity of students, in addition to the flexibility and taking into account the individual differences offered by the flipped learning strategy to students in dealing with clips and recordings sent by the teacher, so that each student, according to her abilities, was able to review the submitted material several times, in addition to the activities applied in the classroom, which were complementary to the submitted sections. Likewise, the strategy contributed to increasing the interaction of students and increasing their interest and development and improvement of audible discrimination skills.

##### Discussing the results related to the second sub-question:

The results of the study showed that there were statistically significant differences at the confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the students in the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to audio interpretation in favor of the experimental group that was taught using the flipped learning strategy. It is possible to trace this result that was found out in the study to the fact that the experimental group was subjected to the flipped learning strategy in learning the Arabic language, which led to the ease of reviewing and understanding the material in a timely manner for the students and according to their abilities and needs through the availability of educational content for the students and the possibility to refer to it smoothly and easily. This was reflected in improving the students' skills in interpreting and understanding audio content, as the strategy allows flexibility in following up the audio material by the students at the appropriate pace for them, and this result is confirmed by the study of Al Kadam (2019), the study of Mansi (2019), and the study of Al-Suwerki (2016). ), and Khadragy's study (Khadragy, 2016). These studies confirmed that integrating flipped learning into traditional classrooms would enhance learning language skills in general and listening skills in particular, and enhance active

participation and motivate learners to learn listening skills, with better results in listening skills tests, in addition to having a tendency and preference for flipped learning on the part of the learners.

The results of the study indicated that there were statistically Significant differences at the confidence level of ( $\alpha \leq 0.05$ ) between the arithmetic averages of the scores of the students in the experimental and control groups in the post-test of listening skills related to audio criticism in favor of the experimental group that was taught using the flipped learning strategy. This result may be due to the procedures followed in the flipped learning strategy and to the time it gives to students in reviewing ideas and educational content sent through the media in a way that provokes critical thinking and contributes to its development according to the student's abilities and preparations. This illustrates the importance of using the flipped learning strategy in developing the individual listening skills. This finding is consistent with the Results of the study of Al-Fawzan (2019), and the study of Al-Mashhrawi and Hallas (2018), which showed the effectiveness of using the flipped learning strategy in developing listening skills through tests and applied programs. Similarly, this finding is consistent with the results of the studies by K k (K k, 2018), and the Kirbas (2017), and Eric and Batur (Erkek & Batur, 2019), which showed that the use of modern educational strategies such as the flipped learning strategy contributes to the development of listening skills related to audio criticism and stimulates the motivation to listen among learners.

#### Recommendations

Based on the results of the study, the researcher recommends the following:

1. Inclusion of the flipped learning strategy within the modern strategies in teaching Arabic and the various curricula that the Ministry of Education is working to develop and modify on a regular basis.
2. Training educational cadres to utilize the flipped learning strategy to motivate learners, raise their level, and develop listening and Arabic language skills.
3. Providing training opportunities for students on how to benefit from the flipped learning strategy in order to develop listening skills in the Arabic language, which is reflected on the rest of the skills in the Arabic language.
4. Overcoming the obstacles that stand in the way of implementing the flipped learning strategy to provide fun and suspense in developing listening skills in the Arabic language at all levels of study.
5. Conducting more studies on the flipped learning strategy on different grades, a larger sample, and different variables such as speaking skill, reading skill, or writing skill.

#### V. CONCLUSION

Perhaps the flipped learning strategy as a relatively recent educational strategy on the one hand and based on educational technology on the other hand is one of the strategies that mainly support the formation of the learners' listening skills as listening skills require accuracy, focus and attention to listening to speech, with continuous training and rehearsal until the learner reaches the degree of mastery of listening skills, starting from distinguishing the audible through the interpretation of the audible and ending with the criticism of the audible. This is exactly what the flipped learning strategy offers through its various techniques that include videos and recordings. Audio and presentations which allow the learner to listen to the text with concentration, with frequent repetition whenever necessary.

In addition, the flipped learning strategy provides the educational content to be reviewed and verified individually in a way that supports the uniqueness of education by consideration of individual differences and needs. This contributes greatly to the formation and building of the learner's listening skills and develops them, in addition to stimulating the learner to ask questions and take notes while listening, which contributes to the development of the skills of criticism and judgment. This clear relationship of the flipped learning strategy and its impact on developing listening skills is what prompted the researcher to link them in this study.

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**May Awad** holds B. A. in Education/ Class Teacher from Damascus University and an M. A. of Education Arabic Language Curricula & Instruction from Al Ain University. She worked as class teacher (in the field of Arabic, Science and Math Education for Elementary school) in United Arab Emirates for six years.

**Ibtehal Mahmoud Aburezeq** is the Vice President of Development and Follow up and Dean of Student Affairs at Al Ain University in the United Arab Emirates. She holds a B. A. in Arabic Language Literature, M.A. in Curriculum & Instruction from University of Jordan, and a Ph. D. in Curriculum & Instruction from University of Washington, USA.

Prior to joining Al Ain University, Prof. Aburezeq worked at University of Washington in Seattle and at Hashemite University in Jordan. Her research interests concentrate on teaching methods and techniques and engaging instructional technology in teaching. Her work has appeared in different national and international refereed educational journals and conferences. In 2014, she received the Distinguished Researcher Award among faculty members at Al Ain University. In addition, she is a reviewer of research projects and papers in several Journals.

Prof. Aburezeq held several administrative positions such as the Dean of Scientific Research and Graduate Studies and the Dean of College of Education, Humanities, and Social Sciences.

# Multilingualism for Global Solutions and a Better World

Kathleen Stein-Smith

Fairleigh Dickinson University, Metropolitan Campus, Teaneck, NJ, USA

**Abstract**—This article examines the significance of multilingualism in finding global solutions and creating a better world. Language learning and multilingualism in the individual are discussed. The role of multilingualism in effectively addressing complex global issues is described. The nature of language skills and cultural knowledge in the individual and within international organizations is analyzed in terms of both policy structure and crisis communication, including the COVID-19 global pandemic, along with a brief overview of multilingualism in international business organizations. The US foreign language deficit is briefly discussed. Perspectives on foreign language education for a better world are provided, as are possibilities for increasing multilingualism for a better world.

**Index Terms**—multilingualism, global citizenship, language policy, intercultural competence, language learning

## I. INTRODUCTION

Multilingualism -- the ability to communicate with other cultures in their language -- impacts both the individual and society, bringing personal and professional benefits to the individual, and bringing the benefits to society locally and globally. "Language is a critical instrument that shapes one's view of the world. Understanding the meaning of the words people use yields perhaps the most insight into cultural differences" (Adams & Carfagna, 2006). More than half of the world population is bilingual or multilingual, using more than one language on a regular basis, yet the Anglosphere, or English-speaking world -- especially the United States -- lags behind in language skills. The conversation on multilingualism has often centered on the personal and professional benefits it brings to the individual and even on the economic and social benefits it brings to society, but significance of multilingualism in the development of an international mindset and global citizenship values, often referred to as a global or cosmopolitan identity, and in its value as a tool in working together with others for a better world, may not be discussed quite as often, but is perhaps even more important for our present and for our future.

Solutions to complex global issues are needed, and communication has never been more important. In a globalized and interconnected world, effective communication is essential in effectively addressing and resolving complex global issues, and multilingualism is an essential 21st century global skill. As "cooperation within and across borders is vital as we work to solve global challenges," multilingualism is a societal and global good (AMACAD, 2020). Multilingualism enables organizations, institutions, and governments to better reach stakeholders, clients and customers, and citizens. Perhaps most importantly, multilingualism empowers the individual to both develop an international mindset and global citizenship values, and also to communicate with others and to act as a global change agent. Multilingualism is part of daily life for more than half the world's population (Grosjean, 2010, 2020), and New York City is home to more than 700 languages (Ben Yahuda, 2021).

While the United Nations has 6 official languages -- Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish (in alphabetical order), and the European Union has multilingualism as a core value realized through plurilingualism, or an ability to use more than one language on a daily basis, the United States and much of the English-speaking or Anglophone world lags behind. In the US, only one in four Americans can hold a conversation in a language other than English, fewer than 20% of K-12 students study a foreign language, and only 7.5% of college and university students are enrolled in a class in a language other than English (McComb, 2001; American Councils, 2017; AMACAD, 2017).

It is clear that multilingualism is key to many global solutions, and the challenge is how to make it so. Although half the world population is multilingual, many still are not, and making known the importance of multilingualism and providing information as to how to make multilingualism more prevalent in any given society or community, are essential. Language skills are needed in international organizations, in business both internationally and locally, and in government (US Senate, 2012). The gap between supply and demand of language skills is not limited to the US, with the UK "suffering from a growing deficit in foreign language skills at a time when globally, the demand for language skills is expanding" (Tinsley, 2013).

Multilingualism has been found to be good for economic growth, and bilingual workers have higher incomes. "Multilingualism is good for the economy." and "countries that actively nurture different languages reap a range of rewards, from more successful exports to a more innovative workforce" (Hardach, 2018). While all languages are important, languages have been ranked in terms of their power, or influence, with English, Mandarin, Spanish, French,

Chinese, and Russian, the top 6 (coinciding with the official languages of the US) (Chan, 2016), and Spanish, Chinese, and French are the most in demand among US employers (ACTFL, 2019). An earlier Bloomberg study found English, Chinese, and French to be the most useful languages for international business (English, 2011).

## II. LANGUAGE LEARNING AND MULTILINGUALISM IN THE INDIVIDUAL

While the significance of multilingualism in global citizenship may appear obvious to many -- especially to foreign language and international educators, to language stakeholders in business and government, and especially to parents and communities, the relationship between multilingualism and global identity/citizenship remains relatively unexamined and little discussed. In addition to the personal and professional benefits generally associated with language skills, language learning also makes us more open to new ideas and experiences, and more tolerant (Thompson, 2016). There are two aspects in the examination of multilingualism in global citizenship that require special attention -- the role of multilingualism in the development of a cosmopolitan or global identity in the individual, and the use of multilingualism and knowledge of other cultures as a tool in effectively addressing complex global issues.

Within the context of language learning and multilingualism for a better world, language and culture cannot be separated. In addition to the traditional emphasis on proficiency, foreign language learning also includes learning about the culture with the goal of increasing intercultural competence (Sercu, 2006). In addition, language learning needs to include "intercultural competence, and language teachers need to become "teachers of language and culture" (Byram, 2009). Immersion is an especially beneficial environment for young language learners because "becoming bilingual leads to new ways of conceptualizing yourself and others. It expands your worldview, so that you not only know more, you know differently" (Williams, 2012).

The example of the foreign language teacher offers a unique perspective on the impact of language learning on identity, as language teachers typically spend extensive time living in, interacting with, and learning about the culture of their chosen language beyond the professional requirements. Many of these language and culture educators are deeply influenced in their worldview, values, lifestyle, and identity by their intense and lifelong relationship with another language and its culture (Grosjean, 2019). Multilingualism is a "universal good that can positively transform a child, a family, a school, a community, and even a country" (Jaumont, 2017).

The relationship between language skills and the development of a global identity is framed by the nature of the language learning process. Individuals may learn languages in a variety of manners, many beyond the traditional foreign language classroom -- as a heritage language, as a second language while residing in another country or regions, through literature, the arts and media, or in a social, family, or in a workplace setting, such as learning the language of a friend, of co-workers, or of a loved one or significant other. Language learning may, and often does, take place in an instructional setting, whether in-person or online, or within a formal institution and curriculum, an informal setting, or as an independent self-directed learner. Motivation has also been linked to success learning outcomes, with language learners with intrinsic motivation more likely to achieve better language skills (Dornyei, 2005).

Each of the methods of language learning affects the degree to which the acquisition of language skills impacts the identity and worldview of the individual, and it is interesting to note that the increase in the use of technology in language learning may have divergent impacts -- reducing the personal aspect of face-to-face instruction and informal conversation while increasing the availability of authentic language through text, media, and conversation. Heritage languages learners may develop a deeper knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of their heritage, leading to a more complex and nuanced personal cultural identity and to enduring interest in the other culture(s) reflecting their heritage. Learning another language due to having moved to another country or region impacts identity to varying degrees depending on the degree of integration or assimilation into the new culture of the individual. Those who come to a second language through an interest in another culture -- its literature, media, and the arts, etc. -- may acquire more advanced skills in some areas rather than others, the person singing opera acquiring better oral skills and the person interested in the literature better reading skills, etc. Those who learn culture in the workplace or from a friend or loved one may develop a better knowledge and appreciation of one aspect of the target culture than other, such as business language and office etiquette if learned in the workplace, or the terminology of a specific business function.

The question of curriculum is of major importance if the additional language is learned in a classroom or other formal setting, as it is possible to learn language skills in relative isolation if there is little in the way of a cultural component to the adopted curriculum. If the language is learned in a more informal setting, such as a conversation practice group or "language lunches," impact on identity and worldview may vary depending on the nature of the particular group. Independent self-directed learning is an interesting option to consider in terms of the development of both language skills and cultural knowledge, which may vary depending on the interests and insights of the learner ranging from strictly linguistic skills to in-depth cultural knowledge in one or more areas.

Multilingualism plays a significant role in the development of global identity, and lack of language skills limits this development (Gunesch, 2003). Access to foreign language learning and motivation are key factors in language learning, and foreign language curriculum emphasizing intercultural is essential in language learning for a better world (AMACAD, 2017; Dornyei, 2005; Sercu, 2006; Byram, 2009). However, it is equally important to bear in mind that multilingualism is a tool in global collaborations to make the world a better place rather than an end in itself.



### III. THE ROLE OF MULTILINGUALISM AS A TOOL IN EFFECTIVELY ADDRESSING COMPLEX GLOBAL ISSUES -- ORGANIZATIONS, ISSUES, AND LANGUAGE POLICY

Beyond the impact of language and cultural learning on the personal cultural identity of the individual, the role of multilingualism as a tool in our personal and professional lives and in effectively addressing complex global issues includes but also transcends the obvious advantage of being able to communicate with others directly either in their own language, in the official language of an organization or gathering, in a third language decided upon for a specific event, or in response to a humanitarian crisis or disaster. Multilingualism, or the use of a variety of languages, can lead to greater acceptance and buy-in, increasing the likelihood of participation and successful outcome. In addition, the use of additional languages relevant to the setting can symbolize an openness to other cultures and can make aid more approachable to local populations, and less externally-driven to recipients (Garrido, 2019; Footitt, 2017; Lozinskiy, 2020). The role of multilingualism in addressing complex global issues is varied and multifaceted depending on locations, circumstances, and individuals, but falls into two general categories -- organizational structure and operations, and crisis and disaster response.

While the impact of language and languages on personal identity remains relatively unseen, the use of multilingualism can be highly visible in international organizations, events, and activities. Certainly the most recognizable global institution is the United Nations, which has 6 official languages -- Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian, and Spanish (in alphabetical order), with English and French the working languages of the UN Secretariat. Along with other languages that may also be used in UN publications and activities, these languages play an important role in the ongoing work of the UN. Examples of multilingualism at work include the Sustainable Development Goals, the cornerstone of the 2015-2030 UN global development agenda. While all of the Goals involve critical issues encompassing the world population, it is Goal 17, "Partnerships for the Goals," which most directly addresses the need for partnerships, collaborations, teamwork, and the multilingual skills needed to achieve all the Goals.

However, it is important to remember that while the United Nations has 6 official languages, the European Union has over 20 official languages but only a few working languages and embraces multilingualism as a core value, and plurilingualism as the actualization of language use in a wide variety of authentic settings. Other well-known examples of multilingualism in action at the global level include the International Olympic Committee, whose official languages are French and English, along with the local language of the current games. On a regional international level, the European Union, reflecting the power of its core value of multilingualism, considers the official languages of all member states as official languages, and its implementation of multilingualism is known as plurilingualism, or the ability to function effectively in other languages in a variety of settings. Confirming the importance of multilingualism and plurilingualism, in 2021, the "Executive Board of the Conference on the Future of Europe, comprising representatives from the European Parliament, the Council of the European Union and the European Commission, is launching the multilingual digital platform for the Conference on the Future of Europe." This initiative has the goal of empowering "all EU citizens to contribute to shaping their own future and that of Europe as a whole." It is available in 24 languages, "allowing citizens from across the Union to share and exchange their ideas and views through online events" (European Interest, 2021). The above-mentioned organizations are just a few examples of multilingualism in organizational structure and operation that include organizations like the Red Cross and *Médecins sans Frontières*/Doctors without Borders, among others.

Beyond the ability to communicate directly with the other, the reasons for this focus on multilingualism at the global and international level include the wide array of benefits of bilingualism/multilingualism in terms of problem-solving and decision-making, along with diversity and divergent thinking (Livermore, 2016; Kharkurin, 2012). International initiatives and multilingual transnational teams have additional assets to bring to the task at hand. However, even more importantly, the use of a variety of languages can symbolize openness to other cultures and an intercultural perspective on the significance of aid in different cultures (Garrido, 2019; Footitt, 2017; Lozinskiy, 2020).

While the role of multilingualism in achieving the Sustainable Development Goals has already been discussed, climate change is another issue demanding a global response. The role of languages and multilingualism includes the necessity of making relevant news from around the world available to the largest audience in multiple languages and from a variety of perspectives, as well as making content produced in a particular language available to all. As lack of information can impede effective action against climate change, translation of key information and data can be of critical importance. As trust and confidence are key to buy-in, availability of information in local languages can increase buy-in and participation in initiatives. For all major global issues, education is an important component in an effective global response, and educational materials also need to be made available in a variety of languages.

Global health is certainly another area of universal concern, and multilingual communication is "an essential tool for improving global health," and the World Health Organization is an excellent example of an international organization with global health as its mission. The approach to multilingualism at the WHO is communication-based, as "multilingual communication bridges gaps and fosters understanding between people. It allows WHO to more effectively guide public health practices, reach out to international audiences, and achieve better health outcomes worldwide." In terms of the languages used, "while WHO gives priority to its official languages, it recognizes that the world's people live and work in many more. In order to broaden its reach to these audiences, WHO licenses external entities to translate and publish its health information in other languages." In its proactive approach to languages used in

order to reach a larger audience and to increase buy-in, "WHO is always seeking opportunities to expand its multilingual information, and external publishers are key partners in this process. As a result of these partnerships, WHO publications have been translated and published in over 63 different languages." As a result, "a multilingual WHO is better equipped to communicate health messages, to produce and disseminate health information and to generate, share and use knowledge about health in an equitable manner. It is also better placed to meet today's major public health challenge: strengthening health systems in order to provide essential health care for all." (WHO, 2021; WHO, 2021a).

"Multilingual crisis communication has emerged as a global challenge during the COVID-19 pandemic" (Piller, Zhang, & Li, 2020). The ongoing need for a multilingual approach to global health has been highlighted by the COVID-19 pandemic, which has underscored the interconnectedness of the globalized world and the need for health information and responses in multiple languages and also the potential for marginalization of minority languages and their communities. This has been especially important in encouraging communication, but also in preventing misinformation and miscommunication due to language differences and the possibly dire consequences that may result. "Multilingual crisis communication has emerged as a global challenge during the COVID-19 pandemic. Global public health communication is characterized by the large-scale exclusion of linguistic minorities from timely high-quality information. The severe limitations of multilingual crisis communication that the COVID-19 crisis has laid bare result from the dominance of English-centric global mass communication; the longstanding devaluation of minoritized languages; and the failure to consider the importance of multilingual repertoires for building trust and resilient communities" (Piller, Zhang, & Li, 2020). An example of this would be the lack of French used in officially bilingual Canada's early COVID responses in 2020 (AFP in Ottawa, 2020; Chouinard & Normand, 2020).

The key to sustainable multilingualism in both organizational structure and operations, and especially in crisis response is a language policy that is both known to all parties and is clearly-written to provide guidance in the widest variety of circumstances. In addition, in order to avoid overrides and suspensions during emergency situation, its invariability must be clear, with strict accountability for any lapses, especially those which may impact on language rights of individuals and groups and on the public welfare.

#### IV. THE ROLE OF MULTILINGUALISM IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS

Multilingualism plays an essential role in business both globally and locally, in terms of doing business with companies in other countries as well as serving local communities where another language is prevalent. Beyond direct communication, language and cultural skills play a role in supporting effective problem-solving and decision-making, innovation, and harmony externally with clients and customers, and internally, among the organization's personnel. Its economic benefit brings the societal good of a better quality of life (Hogan-Brun, 2017).

It has been reported that in the US "9 out of 10 U.S. employers rely on employees with language skills other than English; 56% say their foreign language demand will increase in the next 5 years; 47% state a need for language skills exclusively for the domestic market; 1 in 3 language-dependent U.S. employers report a language skills gap; and 1 in 4 U.S. employers lost business due to a lack of language skills" (ACTFL, 2019). In addition, the demand for bilingual workers in the US is rising, with demand for bilingual workers in the United States having more than doubled between 2010 and 2015 (NAE, 2017). The global language industry has an estimated value of \$50B (Gala-Global, 2021). . In terms of the economic impact of language skills, Switzerland has reported a 10% benefit from multilingualism, while the UK has reported a loss of 3.5% due to lack of language skills. In Florida and in Canada, bilingual workers have higher earnings (Hardach, 2018). However, the role of multilingualism as a social and economic benefit transcends corporate and individual earnings, and impacts society as a whole in terms of lessening poverty and improving the quality of life.

#### V. THE MANY LANGUAGES ONE WORLD GLOBAL YOUTH FORUM (MLOW) -- THE SIGNIFICANCE OF MULTILINGUALISM IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP

The Many Languages One World Global Youth Forum (MLOW) is a wonderful example of the use of multilingualism as a tool to create a better world. An initiative of the UN Academic Impact, MLOW has examined the significance of multilingualism in the development of a global citizenship mindset and values (United Nations, 2017). Beginning with an essay contest on this topic, college and university student winners were invited to participate in a week-long global youth forum on a US campus near the UN. During this time, students lived in a global and multilingual community, interacting informally as they developed presentations which they would present in the UN General Assembly on action plans to implement the Sustainable Development Goals in their local community or institution. The emphasis on achievable action plans is in alignment with the value of multilingualism as a tool for effecting change and working for a better world.

The key to this initiative was the use of a learned second language that was also one of the official languages of the UN for both the entry essay and the UN presentation. MLOW participants have developed lasting relationships, remaining in contact through social media and local mini-reunions, and have demonstrated continuing commitment and

involvement in global initiatives and through ongoing participation in UN and international events with the goal of making a better world using their multilingual skills.

## VI. ENCOURAGING MULTILINGUALISM FOR A BETTER WORLD

Multilingualism exists in a wide variety of governments, as well as within organizations working for a better world, and language policy provides a legal framework that tends to foster and encourage multilingualism in several ways -- by promoting interest and a public conversation about languages and language learning, and by strengthening language programs through funding and other types of incentivization. It is interesting to note the extent to which the European Union, with its core value of multilingualism and goal of plurilingual skills, has been able to encourage language learning in school from an early age, and through opportunities for work/internships and study abroad.

In order to foster and encourage multilingualism, a broad coalition of language educators and language stakeholders including business and government, and parents and communities, is needed. In terms of education, not all US students have access to this early start to foreign language learning (AMACAD, 2017), and a first step is to ensure that all interested students have the opportunity to learn an additional language from the earliest age, whether through a traditional foreign language program or through immersion. Although languages can be learned at any age, an early start and immersion learning are wonderful advantages.

It is equally important to develop sustainable motivation. Another challenge to language learning and to multilingualism in the US is that many US students may believe that, as English is the global *lingua franca*, it is not necessary to learn other languages, but the reality is that only one quarter of the world population speaks English and that multilingualism is not only our future, but also our present (British Council, 2013; Montlaur, 2019).

Effective responses to these challenges include advocacy for foreign language and immersion programs beginning at the earliest grade levels, pre-professional learning and K-16 collaborations at the high school level, and interdisciplinary collaborations and pre-professional learning at the college and university level, along with intercultural understanding and global learning at all levels.

Beyond the classroom, it is necessary to highlight the value of languages and multilingualism, through the media and public conversation and through communities where a variety of heritage languages are prevalent. In order to promote and to defend language learning, advocacy is needed, and in addition, beyond the classroom, a public conversation including parents and communities is essential in order to bring language learning -- and language use -- into our daily lives.

## VII. CURRENT TRENDS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Multilingualism is on the rise -- in the globalized and interconnected world, and in our local communities and neighborhoods. More than half of the world population is multilingual, and more than 70M Americans speak a language other than English in the home (Ryan, 2013). While many may believe that English, serving as a global *lingua franca*, is sufficient, that is not the case (AMACAD, 2020).

Complex global issues including the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), environmental issues and climate change, as well as global health and COVID, require global solutions. Multilingualism empowers both individuals and organizations to work more collaboratively and effectively toward global solutions.

Challenges include the rise in English as a perceived global language, and the resulting reluctance of English speakers to learn and to use additional languages. Solutions include an early start to foreign language education known in the US as FLES; bilingual education and immersion, which use more than one language of instruction; and multilingual education, which puts the mother tongue first in instruction for the young learner.

At the end of the day, "there are limits to an individual's cosmopolitan development if he or she does not have a set of languages to start with" (Gunesch, 2003). Whether as an individual or an organization desirous of making the world a better place, the ability to bring language skills to the table and to the task are part of the skills set of the 21st century global citizen.

## VIII. CONCLUSIONS

Many still believe that English is the global *lingua franca*, despite the fact that 75% of the world population does not speak English (British Council, 2013). However, "depending on the circumstances, conversations across boundaries can be delightful, or just vexing: what they mainly are, though, is inevitable" (Appiah, 2006). Depending on our vision of the world, we can envision an English-only world, with English as the global language and the resulting commodification of English, or a multilingual world with many voices reflecting diverse worldviews (Cameron, 2012; Montlaur, 2019). While the choice may be ours, the decision will inevitably impact our ability to work together to make the world a better place.

If we can develop a language policy to foster and encourage language learning and use, ensure that all our children have the opportunity to learn one or more additional languages, and incorporate intercultural understanding and appreciation into foreign language learning and the use of languages other than English, our children will have the

linguistic skills and cultural knowledge needed to engage effectively with the world community as global citizens and play a role in global solutions and in making the world a better place.

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**Kathleen Stein-Smith, PhD**, *Chevalier dans l'Ordre des Palmes académiques*, is a dedicated foreign language educator and advocate.

She serves as Chair of the AATF (American Association of Teachers of French) Commission on Advocacy and as a member of the ATA Education and Pedagogy Committee and the MLA Delegate Assembly. She is also active in foreign language education associations, including the NECTFL Advisory Council, CSCTFL Advisory Council, and as a SCOLT sponsor.

She has presented at numerous professional conferences at the state, regional, and national level, is the author of five books and numerous articles about the foreign language deficit and the importance of multilingualism, has given a TEDx talk on the U.S. foreign language deficit, has been interviewed by press and radio, and maintains a blog, "Language Matters."

# Does Studying in a Music-oriented Education Program Affect Non-native Sound Learning? — Effects of Passive Auditory Training on Children's Vowel Production

Katja Immonen

Phonetics and Learning, Age & Bilingualism Laboratory (LAB-lab), Department of Computing, University of Turku, Finland

Jemina Kilpeläinen

Phonetics and Learning, Age & Bilingualism Laboratory (LAB-lab), Department of Computing, University of Turku, Finland

Paavo Alku

Department of Signal Processing and Acoustics, Aalto University, Finland

Maija S. Peltola

Phonetics and Learning, Age & Bilingualism Laboratory (LAB-lab), Department of Computing, University of Turku, Finland

**Abstract**—Earlier studies have shown that children are efficient second language learners. Research has also shown that musical background might affect second language learning. A two-day auditory training paradigm was used to investigate whether studying in a music-oriented education program affects children's sensitivity to acquire a non-native vowel contrast. Training effects were measured with listen-and-repeat production tests. Two groups of monolingual Finnish children (9–11 years, N=23) attending music-oriented and regular fourth grades were tested. The stimuli were two semisynthetic pseudo words /ty:ti/ and /tu:ti/ with the native vowel /y/ and the non-native vowel /u/ embedded. Both groups changed their pronunciation after the first training. The change was reflected in the second formant values of /u/, which lowered significantly after three trainings. The results show that 9–11-year-old children benefit from passive auditory training in second language production learning regardless of whether or not they attend a music-oriented education program.

**Index Terms**—auditory training, children, music, pronunciation, second language learning, vowels

## I. INTRODUCTION

The primary aim of this study was to examine whether children attending a music-oriented education program in elementary school have a sensitivity to acoustic variation that is transferred to the trainability of second language (L2) sound contrasts. In a music-oriented education program, children participate in various musical activities that are not included in the regular elementary school curriculum. The program is meant for children who are interested in music and they take musicality tests before admission. We tested two groups of 9–11-year-old Finnish children from a music-oriented and a regular fourth grade with a two-day auditory training paradigm. Training effects were measured with listen-and-repeat production tests before, during and after the experiment. The passive auditory training paradigm included the Swedish close rounded vowel contrast /y/-/u/. The hypothesis was that the children who attend a music-oriented fourth grade could be more sensitive to subtle acoustic differences than the children who attend a regular fourth grade. If this hypothesis is true, this sensitivity might enable them to learn to perceive and produce a non-native sound contrast more efficiently through auditory training. Since the aim of the experiment was to discover possible differences in the children's sensitivity to acoustic contrasts in L2 sounds, the training paradigm was designed to be a simple listening task without any production training or articulatory instructions. This was to ensure that any changes in articulation found in the production tests would be the effect of the auditory training.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Models of Second Language Learning

The phonetic learning of a second language (L2) poses the learner with the challenge of acquiring non-native

perception and production patterns that do not necessarily comply with the sound categories of their native language (L1). Studies in cross-language sound categorization have offered evidence that problems in non-native sound perception and production arise from the relative differences and similarities between the phonological systems of the speaker's L1 and L2 (e.g. Best & Strange, 1992; Best, 1994; Flege, 1987; Flege, Munro, & Mackay, 1995). These cross-language studies have led to the emergence of several theoretical frameworks of second language learning, such as the Speech Learning Model (SLM, Flege, 1987, 1995), the Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM, Best, 1994, 1995) and the Second Language Linguistic Perception model (L2LP, Escudero, 2005). These theoretical models take a comparative approach to the phonetic and phonological differences between languages, aiming to explain and predict the possible problems that may arise when learning a new language.

According to the SLM (Flege, 1995), the degree of similarity or dissimilarity between the L1 and L2 sounds determines the degree of difficulty that the speaker is faced with when learning new speech sounds. In other words, in order to learn to perceive and produce L2 sounds, speakers need to learn to adapt the phonetic categories of their L1. Compared to the native sound system, non-native sounds can be perceptually either identical, similar or new. The SLM proposes that the probability of a new L2 category to be formed increases linearly as the perceived similarity between L1 and L2 sounds decreases. When an L2 sound is identical to an L1 category, the formation of a new L2 category is not necessary and therefore unlikely. On the other hand, when an L2 sound is completely new and does not resemble any L1 categories, the formation of a new sound category is more probable, but requires input and practice. Similar L2 sounds that resemble a native sound to some extent, but are still distinct from all L1 categories, are considered to be the most difficult to learn, since category formation is less easily achieved but necessary for accurate perception and production of the L2 sound. In addition, the SLM proposes that perception precedes and guides production in L2 speech learning. In other words, accurate L2 perception does not require accurate production, but accurate production does require accurate perception (Flege, 1995, 1999; Flege, MacKay, & Meador, 1999).

The PAM (Best, 1994, 1995; Best & Tyler, 2007) takes a slightly different approach to cross-language category perception, though it shares the comparative aspect of the SLM. Instead of concentrating on the perception of individual L2 sounds, the PAM approaches the issue of L2 category perception through examining non-native sound contrasts. The PAM aims to explain L2 sound perception through assimilation patterns, which describe the degree to which L2 sounds can be assimilated to one or several L1 sound categories. The PAM suggests that the equal assimilation of two L2 sounds to one L1 category (single-category assimilation) is most likely to cause persistent difficulties in L2 perception and production.

A more recent model for L2 sound perception is the L2LP established by Escudero (2005). The L2LP model proposes that L2 perception and production requires learners to either create new perceptual mappings for L2 sounds, or adjust the existing perceptual mappings of their L1 to fit the L2 phonological representations. The L2LP model predicts that a learning situation where two or more sounds are perceptually mapped to one L1 category causes challenges in L2 perception and production. This is because the learner is required to create new perceptual representations for these sounds and possibly adjust existing overlapping perceptual L1 categories. The L2LP refers to these L2 sounds as new but the learning task is comparable to the classification of similar sounds described by the SLM.

To summarize, the SLM, the PAM and the L2LP all propose that the close resemblance of an L2 sound with an L1 sound category potentially causes major difficulties in L2 perception and production. These models of L2 phonetic learning provide the theoretical basis for stimulus selection in the present study.

#### *B. The Close Rounded Vowels of Finnish and Swedish in the Light of L2 Learning Models*

To ensure that the stimuli used in the present study would represent a theoretically difficult learning situation for monolingual Finnish speakers, the vowel categories of Finnish and Swedish were viewed in the light of the L2 learning models (SLM, PAM, L2LP). The Finnish close rounded vowel continuum is divided into two categories /y/–/u/, whereas Swedish has three close rounded vowel categories /y/–/u/–/ʊ/ in the same vowel space. The Swedish vowel /ʊ/ is therefore situated on the border of Finnish /y/ and /u/ categories. This makes /ʊ/ difficult for Finnish speakers to perceive and produce, as it is perceptually relatively close to both of the native categories and can be categorized to either one or both according to the SLM (Flege, 1995), the PAM (Best, 1994, 1995; Best & Tyler, 2007) and the L2LP (Escudero, 2005). Based on these L2 learning theories, it can be assumed that the perceptual challenge of categorizing the non-native sound is also reflected in production. This means that the accurate pronunciation of the Swedish vowel /ʊ/ also requires the accurate perception of the L2 vowel contrast by Finnish speakers. Therefore, the SLM's proposition that L2 perception precedes L2 production is an essential part of the present study, as the experiment was designed to measure auditory sensitivity to L2 sound contrasts by examining production learning through perceptual training. To be more precise, the training paradigm of the present study is designed to measure whether perceptual sensitivity to acoustic differences is transferred to the trainability of an L2 vowel contrast, and whether auditory training affects the articulation of the trained vowels.

#### *C. Second Language Perception and Production Studies on Children and Adults*

The processes and mechanisms of L2 learning have been studied widely in different age groups, and especially the comparison of child and adult learners has received considerable attention. For example, a study investigating the perception and production of English vowels by native Korean adults and children found that child learners were able to

produce and discriminate L2 vowels more accurately than adult learners (Tsukada et al., 2005). These findings were later supported by another study that measured the pronunciation of English vowels by Japanese adults and children living in the United States (Oh et al., 2011). The participants' productions were recorded on two occasions: shortly after arrival in the USA and one year later. The results showed that children reached higher production accuracy than adults when their pronunciation was compared to age-matched native speakers of English. Furthermore, a phonetic training study by Giannakopoulou, Uther and Ylinen (2013) revealed that high-variability perceptual training (HVPT) improved L2 vowel identification and discrimination both in Greek adults and children (7–8 years), but the degree of improvement was more pronounced for the child learners. The authors suggest that these results indicate enhanced plasticity for language learning at this developmental stage (Giannakopoulou et al., 2013).

These findings have also been supported by other experimental training studies on children. For example, a production training study by Taimi, Jähi, Alku and Peltola (2014) examined how a simple listen-and-repeat training affects 7–10-year-old children's production of an L2 vowel. The results showed that children changed their pronunciation of the L2 sound after three short training sessions. This indicates that children are able to adapt their existing L1 production patterns quickly towards an acoustic model through phonetic listen-and-repeat training. Another training study on adult learners showed that adults did not benefit from auditory training of an L2 vowel contrast, but their perception and production results did improve with a two-day listen-and-repeat training paradigm (Peltola, Tamminen, Alku, Kujala & Peltola 2020). However, results from an earlier study by Peltola, Rautaoja, Alku and Peltola (2017) showed that L1 Finnish and L1 English speaking adults did not learn to produce an L2 vowel contrast after a one-day listen-and-repeat training paradigm. These results suggest that even though adults can improve their perception and production of L2 sounds through motoric training, the amount of training affects training results.

Overall, these findings offer evidence that children benefit efficiently both from experimental L2 training paradigms as well as naturalistic L2 input. The findings on adult learners show that they are often less successful L2 production learners than children in naturalistic L2 learning settings. On the other hand, adults can benefit from some types of phonetic training, but changes in perception and production are not as rapid or as pronounced as in child learners.

#### *D. Music and Second Language Learning*

The relationship between music and language has received considerable attention from scientists in recent years, but there are many different ways of defining and measuring musicality. However, the present study does not focus on musicality or any specific area of musical ability. Instead, we examine musical experience from a more general perspective by testing children who study in a music-oriented education program. There is little or no previous research on how music-oriented programs or musical experience in general might affect children's L2 perception and production learning. Nonetheless, there are some relevant findings from earlier studies that have examined the relationship between music and L2 learning from slightly different perspectives.

Studies on the effects of musical background factors on L2 perception are of particular interest for the present study. For example, Marie, Delogu, Lampis, Belardinelli and Besson (2011) investigated the perception of tonal and segmental variations in Mandarin Chinese by French musicians and non-musicians with behavioral discrimination tests and electroencephalography (EEG) measurements. The musicians showed better discrimination accuracy for both tonal and segmental variations than non-musicians. Furthermore, the event-related potential (ERP) results revealed that the tonal variations elicited an earlier N2/N3 response in musicians than non-musicians and that the musicians also showed enhanced P3b components for the tonal and segmental variations. Another study on the perception of lexical tones of Mandarin Chinese (Delogu, Lampis, & Belardinelli, 2006) investigated the connection between melodic ability and tone discrimination in L1 Italian speakers. The overall results showed that the participants were better at identifying phonological variation than tonal variation, but speakers with high melodic ability performed better in tonal discrimination tasks. However, melodic ability did not influence phonological discrimination. Delogu et al. (2006) conclude that, in spite of the different role of pitch variations in music and language, it seems that a music-to-language transfer effect does occur. Ghaffarvand Mokari and Werner (2018) examined whether musical ability affects participants' response to high variability intensive phonetic (HVIP) training of L2 vowels. Vowel discrimination and production were measured in pre- and post-tests. The participants were L1 Azerbaijani speakers who were trained with British English vowels. The results showed no connection between overall musical ability and L2 perception and production, but there was a connection between discrimination accuracy and tonal memory.

Contrary to the results obtained by Ghaffarvand Mokari and Werner (2018), Bhatara, Yeung and Nazzi (2015) did not find a connection between L2 experience and melody perception when they tested the correlations between L2 learning and different areas of music perception in 147 French speakers. However, their results showed positive correlations between rhythm perception and L2 experience as well as rhythm perception and music training. According to Bhatara et al., both music training and L2 learning are related to native French speakers' perception of rhythm but not melody, and the results suggest a common perceptual basis for rhythm in language and music (2015). Furthermore, another study by Boll-Avetisyan, Bhatara, Unger, Nazzi and Höhle, (2016) found that adult native French listeners' sensitivity to rhythm can be enhanced through music and L2 experience. The experiment tested forty French late learners of German who participated in a rhythmic grouping task where they listened to sequences of co-articulated syllables that varied in intensity or duration. The results showed that musical experience as well as L2 input quality and quantity influenced grouping preferences.



The interplay between music and L2 learning has also been investigated in children, though from a very different perspective than in the present study. For example, a study by Milovanov, Huotilainen, Välimäki, Esquef, and Tervaniemi (2008) examined the relationship between musical aptitude and L2 production. The participants were Finnish children (aged 10–12 years) who were divided into two groups according to their English pronunciation skills. When tested with a Seashore musicality test (standardized musical aptitude listening test; Seashore, Lewis, & Saetveit, 2003), the children with more advanced L2 pronunciation skills obtained higher musical aptitude scores than children with less advanced L2 pronunciation skills for pitch discrimination, timbre, sense of rhythm and sense of tonality. In addition, the pre-attentive processing of chords was measured with EEG and the results showed that children with advanced L2 pronunciation skills had more pronounced sound-change evoked activation with music stimuli than children with less accurate L2 linguistic skills. Milovanov et al. (2008) conclude that it appears that musical and linguistic skills might partly be based on shared neural mechanisms.

Taken together, the results from earlier studies on the relationship between music and language provide evidence that there is some interplay and overlap between some musical factors and phonetic L2 processing. The results by Marie et al. (2011), Delogu et al. (2006), and Ghaffarvand Mokari and Werner (2018) indicate that musical expertise as well as melodic and tonal abilities might be connected to the perception of tonal and segmental variations in speech sounds. On the other hand, the findings of Bhatara et al. (2015) and Boll-Avetisyan et al. (2016) indicate connections between rhythm perception, musical expertise and L2 experience. Most importantly, the results of Milovanov et al. (2008) suggest that children's L2 production skills and musical aptitude might be connected. However, the effects of musical experience on L2 perception and production learning remain somewhat unclear. As the models of L2 phonetic learning propose, difficulties in L2 sound production are often caused by difficulties in L2 sound perception. Therefore, if there is a difference in auditory sensitivity to sounds between children from a music-oriented and a regular education program, it should be reflected in the production tests.

### III. METHODS

#### A. Participants

Altogether 25 monolingual Finnish speaking children from two elementary schools in Southwest Finland participated in the study. However, two of the children did not complete the experiment and they had to be excluded from the data. Therefore, a total of 23 children (aged 9;10–11;2 years, mean age 10;5, 20 females) were tested. The participants were divided into two groups: a Music group and a Non-music group. The two groups were compared to see whether the amount of musical activities in school would affect children's training results.

The Music group included 11 children (aged 9;10–10;9 years, mean age 10;4, ten females) from a music-oriented fourth grade. Children in a music-oriented education program participate in various musical activities, such as solo and choir singing, playing different instruments, listening to music across genres as well as preparing and performing musical shows and productions. To be admitted, children have to take a test that measures their musical abilities. The music-oriented education program starts at the beginning of the third grade and continues throughout elementary school, until the sixth grade. At the time of the experiment, the children were in their second year of the program.

The Non-music group included 12 children (aged 10;1–11;2, mean age 10;7, ten females) from regular fourth grades from two elementary schools. The group represented typical monolingual Finnish children who have one compulsory music lesson per week, as dictated by the national core curriculum.

Before participating in the experiment, the children and their parents gave informed written consent and answered to a language background questionnaire. The questionnaire was used to ensure that none of the children knew any Nordic languages and that they had not lived in any Nordic countries outside Finland. All participants had studied English basics in school for a little over a year. All children reported to have normal hearing. None of the children reported having speech defects, except for one participant who reported having had minor difficulties in the production of /r/ in early childhood. This participant was not excluded from the experiment as no words containing the sound /r/ were used in the experiment.

#### B. Stimuli

The stimuli were two semisynthetic pseudo words /ty:ti/ and /tʌ:ti/ with the close rounded vowels /y/ and /ʌ/ embedded in the first syllable. The stimuli were created using the Semisynthetic Speech Generation method (SSG, Alku, Tiitinen, & Näätänen, 1999). The natural speech productions of a 24-year-old Finnish-Swedish bilingual male speaker were used as the basis of the stimuli. The glottal excitation waveform was first extracted from the natural speech signal. This waveform was then used to excite a digital vocal tract model with a desired formant structure to create the semisynthetic word pair /ty:ti - tʌ:ti/. The first formant (F1) value for the non-native vowel /ʌ/ in the stimulus word /tʌ:ti/ was 338 Hz and the second formant (F2) value was 1258 Hz. The F1 and F2 values for the native vowel /y/ in /ty:ti/ were 269 Hz and 1866 Hz respectively. Therefore, the primary acoustic difference between the vowels /y/ and /ʌ/ lies in the F2.

For the purpose of this study, any changes in the F2 towards the acoustic model /tʌ:ti/ will be considered as a sign of learning, since the non-native vowel /ʌ/ has considerably lower F2 values than /y/, due to more backed tongue position

during articulation. However, the pitch (F0) of the male voice used in the stimuli is considerably lower than that of a child, and the F1 and F2 values of the first syllable vowels in the stimuli were those typical for an adult male speaker. Therefore, the child participants in this study are not expected to reach the exact formant values of the stimuli in their own productions. The focus of the experiment is on the direction of the possible change in the participants' pronunciation.

### C. Procedure

The procedure was a short training paradigm consisting of four alternating recording and training sessions on two consecutive days. The experiment was conducted during school hours. The participants were tested in a quiet room using a portable laboratory consisting of an HP laptop computer with a Beyerdynamic MMX300 headset and an Asus Xonar U3 sound card. The auditory stimuli were presented automatically in an alternating order during recording and training sessions with Sanako Study Recorder software (version 8.22.0.0) with an interstimulus interval (ISI) of 3 seconds. The same software was also used to record the participants' productions. During recording and training sessions, the stimuli were presented in turns in a fixed order, so that every other word was /tʌ:ti/ with the non-native vowel /ʌ/. During recording sessions, the participants listened and repeated each stimulus word ten times. During training sessions, they listened to each stimulus word 30 times without repeating them. Both days of the experiment consisted of two recording sessions and two training sessions. Overall, the participants heard each stimulus word 120 times during trainings and produced them 40 times during recordings.

The first day of the experiment started with a short familiarization, where the participants heard both stimuli three times. The purpose of the familiarization phase was to allow the children to adjust the volume to a comfortable level and get accustomed to the pace of the experiment. After familiarization, the first day continued with the first recording (baseline) followed by the first training, then a second recording and a second training. On the second day the experiment proceeded in reverse order, in other words the day began with a third training session followed by a third recording, a fourth training and ended with the final recording. The experiment lasted around 15 minutes per day. The children were instructed to listen carefully to the auditory stimuli without repeating them during training sessions, whereas during recordings they were instructed to listen and repeat what they heard. The procedure was designed not to include any production during training, because the aim was to test the children's auditory perception skills and their ability to adapt their own production through merely listening to an L2 sound contrast. For a summary of the experiment procedure, see Table I.

TABLE I  
THE EXPERIMENT PROCEDURE

Day 1		Day 2	
Listen and repeat	1 <sup>st</sup> Recording session 10 x /tʌ:ti/ 10 x /ty:ti/ →Recorded	Listen and repeat	3 <sup>rd</sup> Training session 30 x /tʌ:ti/ 30 x /ty:ti/ →Not recorded
	1 <sup>st</sup> Training session 30 x /tʌ:ti/ 30 x /ty:ti/ →Not recorded		3 <sup>rd</sup> Recording session 10 x /tʌ:ti/ 10 x /ty:ti/ →Recorded
	2 <sup>nd</sup> Recording session 10 x /tʌ:ti/ 10 x /ty:ti/ →Recorded		4 <sup>th</sup> Training session 30 x /tʌ:ti/ 30 x /ty:ti/ →Not recorded
	2 <sup>nd</sup> Training session 30 x /tʌ:ti/ 30 x /ty:ti/ →Not recorded		4 <sup>th</sup> Recording session 10 x /tʌ:ti/ 10 x /ty:ti/ →Recorded

The stimuli were presented in a fixed order during trainings and recordings, so that every other word was /tʌ:ti/ and every other word was /ty:ti/.

### D. Analysis

The production data was acoustically analyzed using Praat software version 6.0.43 (Boersma & Weenink, 2020). The first and second formants were measured from the steady state phase of the first syllable vowels using the Linear Predictive Coding (LPC) Burg algorithm. The participants produced both words ten times during each of the four recording sessions and all these productions were analyzed. Altogether 920 productions of /ty:ti/ and 920 productions of /tʌ:ti/ were analyzed (a total of 1840 tokens), of which 440 repetitions per word were produced by the Non-music group and 480 by the Music group. After acoustic analysis, the speakers' individual average formant values for /y/ and /ʌ/ from the ten repetitions within each recording session were calculated. The F1 and F2 values of the two vowels in all four sessions were then subjected to statistical analysis using IBM SPSS Statistics (version 25.0.0.1) software. During the analysis, special attention was paid to any changes in the F2 values of the children's productions.

## IV. RESULTS

A repeated measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed for the average formant values with the between-subject factor defined as Group (Music, Non-music) and the within-subject factors defined as Session (first, second, third, fourth), Word (/ty:ti/, /tu:ti/) and Formant (F1, F2). The initial ANOVA was performed in order to see whether the groups differed in any way in their productions across recording sessions. The main effects of Formant are not reported, because the F1 and F2 values are expected to differ automatically from each other. The analysis revealed the main effect of Word ( $F(1,21)=32,419$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The main effect of Word suggests that the participants had produced the target and non-target vowels differently, in other words that the vowels had not been assimilated to a single sound category. The initial analysis also revealed a Word  $\times$  Formant interaction ( $F(1,21)=35,461$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), which means that the formants of the target and non-target vowels were produced differently in the two words. Furthermore, a Session  $\times$  Formant interaction ( $F(3,19)=4,314$ ,  $p=0.018$ ) was discovered, which suggests that the formants F1 and F2 developed differently between sessions. More importantly, the interaction between Session and Formant indicates that there is a significant change in the F1 or F2 values of the vowels between sessions, meaning that there is some change in the children's productions across time. The initial ANOVA did not reveal any significant differences between the two groups. In other words, even though there seems to be a slight difference in the F2 values of /u/ produced by the two groups (Fig. 1), the difference did not reach significance.

The interaction between Session and Formant was investigated further with a Group (2)  $\times$  Session (2)  $\times$  Word (2)  $\times$  Formant (2) repeated measures ANOVA with the same factors as in the initial analysis, but only two sessions tested at a time. The first recording session (baseline) was compared to the second, third and fourth sessions separately. The comparison of the first and second sessions revealed the main effects of Session ( $F(1,21)=4,681$ ,  $p=0.042$ ) and Word ( $F(1,21)=27,026$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). In addition, Session  $\times$  Formant ( $F(1,21)=7,082$ ,  $p=0.015$ ) and Word  $\times$  Formant ( $F(1,21)=30,043$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) interactions were found. Next, the main effects of Session ( $F(1,21)=8,678$ ,  $p=0.008$ ) and Word ( $F(1,21)=29,109$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), as well as Session  $\times$  Formant ( $F(1,21)=9,569$ ,  $p=0.006$ ) and Word  $\times$  Formant ( $F(1,21)=33,298$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) interactions were discovered when comparing the first and third sessions with the same ANOVA. Comparison of the first and fourth sessions revealed the same main effects of Session ( $F(1,21)=8,533$ ,  $p=0.008$ ) and Word ( $F(1,21)=30,394$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), as well as Session  $\times$  Formant ( $F(1,21)=8,222$ ,  $p=0.009$ ) and Word  $\times$  Formant ( $F(1,21)=31,503$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) interactions. To summarize, the same main effects and interactions were found in all three session pairs. This finding shows that there is a change in the participants' productions already after the first training session and that the change remains throughout the experiment. The Session  $\times$  Formant interactions suggest that the F1 or F2 values somehow differed between the sessions.

Paired samples t-tests for both words' F1 and F2 values in all three session pairs were performed to see how the formants developed in the second, third and fourth sessions compared to the baseline. Significant differences in the target vowel's F2 values (Fig. 2) were found between the first and third sessions ( $t(22)=2,842$ ,  $p=0.009$ ) as well as the first and fourth sessions ( $t(22)=3,206$ ,  $p=0.004$ ). There were no significant changes in the F1 values of the target word. In addition, no significant changes were found in the F1 or F2 values of the vowel /y/ in the non-target word /ty:ti/.

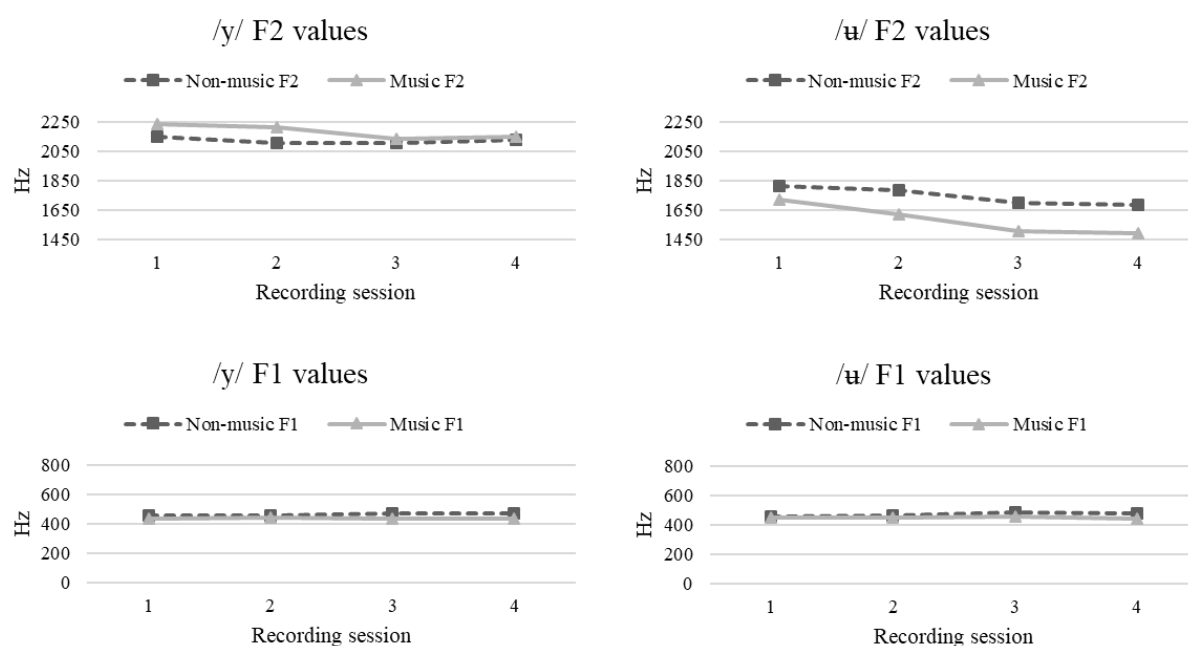


Figure 1. The Average F1 and F2 values for both vowels produced by the two groups.

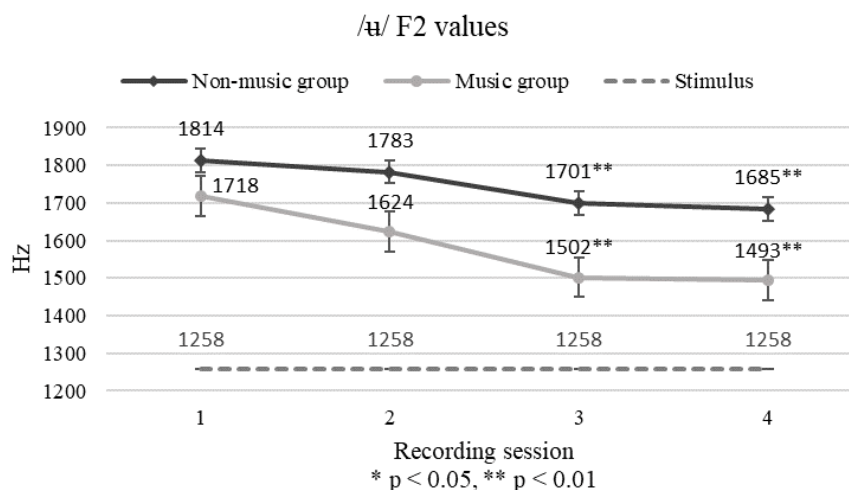


Figure 2. Both groups' average F2 values for the vowel /u/ across recording sessions. The dashed line indicates the F2 of the acoustic stimulus. Paired samples t-tests revealed that the /u/ F2 values lowered significantly between the first and third recording session. Significant between-session changes are marked with asterisks. No significant changes emerged for the vowel /y/ or the F1 values in /u/.

## V. DISCUSSION

The results show that both groups benefitted from the auditory training paradigm and that their production of /u/ changed as a function of training by the second recording session. The change in production was also reflected in the F2 values of /u/, which lowered significantly by the third recording session. The fact that there were no changes in the native vowel /y/ shows that the children were able to perceive and produce the vowels as two separate sounds. Their production of /y/ remained stable while they adjusted their production of the difficult non-native sound /u/ to fit the acoustic model. The results indicate that the 9–11-year-old children in this study were able to distinguish subtle acoustic differences in vowel qualities, even when the difference is not relevant in their L1. Moreover, the results show that they can rapidly modify their own articulation patterns towards the acoustic target. Contrary to the children tested in the present experiment, adult learners tested by Peltola et al. (2020) did not benefit from auditory training of an L2 vowel contrast. In addition, the findings of Taimi et al. (2014) showed that 7–10-year-old children changed their production of an L2 vowel already after three listen-and-repeat training sessions. Comparing our findings to these results further supports the proposition that children benefit rapidly and more efficiently than adults from auditory phonetic L2 training paradigms. In addition, our results suggest that children are sensitive to acoustic differences in non-native sounds and benefit from auditory training regardless of whether or not they attend a music-oriented education program in elementary school.

The statistical analysis revealed that the participants changed their pronunciation already in the second recording session and produced the non-native vowel /u/ with significantly lower F2 values in the third recording session. The fact that the main effect of Session was found already between the first and second recording sessions indicates that there was a significant change in production already after the first training, even though there were no significant changes in the F2 values of /u/ until the third recording session. The fact that the main effect of Session found between the first and second sessions was not reflected in the F2 analysis is most probably explained by the rather large overall standard deviations (Table II). This can be interpreted as a reflection of the learning process being in progress. This means that the children were already making changes in their pronunciation in the second session, but were not yet consistent in their articulation of the non-native vowel /u/. This implies that the changes in the children's production were immediate, but they still needed to practice their articulation before producing the difference consistently in their own speech. As the F2 value in vowels is usually related to tongue backness or lip rounding during articulation, the change in the children's F2 values implies that they started to move their tongue backwards or rounded their lips more when articulating the vowel /u/ during recordings. However, both /y/ and /u/ are rounded vowels and the Finnish close rounded vowel space also has the backed rounded vowel /u/. Therefore, it is more likely that the children produced the difference between the vowels by articulating /u/ with a more backed tongue position. In addition, the formant values in Table II show that the participants did not produce the non-native vowel /u/ as the Finnish close back rounded vowel /u/, since their F2 values remained considerably higher than those of a typical Finnish /u/ (F1=332 Hz and F2=690 Hz; Iivonen, 2012).

TABLE II  
THE AVERAGE VOWEL FORMANT VALUES (HZ) PRODUCED BY THE GROUPS IN EACH RECORING SESSION

			Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4
/u/	Non-music	F1	454 (34)	461 (41)	481 (28)	474 (36)
		F2	1814 (540)	1783 (523)	1701 (509)	1685 (508)
	Music	F1	445 (31)	449 (28)	456 (58)	439 (35)
		F2	1718 (383)	1624 (362)	1502 (403)	1493 (416)
	Both groups	F1	450 (32)	455 (35)	469 (46)	457 (39)
		F2	1768 (463)	1706 (450)	1606 (462)	1593 (466)
/y/	Non-music	F1	460 (33)	458 (35)	474 (30)	470 (30)
		F2	2148 (176)	2104 (188)	2103 (162)	2127 (210)
	Music	F1	438 (32)	441 (29)	438 (45)	437 (51)
		F2	2232 (158)	2215 (144)	2135 (242)	2149 (230)
	Both groups	F1	449 (34)	450 (33)	457 (41)	454 (44)
		F2	2188 (169)	2157 (174)	2118 (200)	2137 (215)

Both words were repeated ten times in each session by all speakers. The standard deviations are reported in parentheses.

Our hypothesis was that the Music group would have an enhanced auditory sensitivity to vowel quality differences due to musical experience received in the music-oriented education program or their musical abilities in general. Our hypothesis was based on previous results from studies on the connection between musicality and L2 processing (e.g. Marie et al. 2011; Milovanov et al. 2008). However, the hypothesis was not confirmed. The results indicate that studying in a music-oriented education program did not affect L2 production learning facilitated by auditory training in the children tested in the current experiment. There are two possible explanations that need to be discussed in order to understand this finding.

Firstly, since the sample size of this study is comparable to other studies in the same field, it is unlikely that the individual differences in the data would affect the result to a great extent. However, it is possible that the tentative group difference in the F2 values of /u/ seen in Fig. 2 could reach significance with a larger sample size. To test this possibility, additional data would need to be collected to both groups.

Most importantly, it is possible that the participants were at a linguistically sensitive age, making them naturally efficient learners of L2 sounds. The finding that the two groups responded similarly to training indicates that their perceptual abilities were naturally accurate enough to distinguish subtle acoustic differences in speech sounds. Therefore, it is plausible that at this developmental stage, the benefits of age are greater than the possible benefits of musical experience on L2 sound production learning through auditory training. This hypothesis is supported by earlier findings showing that children are more successful and efficient L2 learners than adults (e.g. Giannakopoulou et al., 2013; Oh et al., 2011; Tsukada et al., 2005) due to their young age and plasticity. Therefore, we propose that in the present experiment, the effects of age outweighed the possible effects that studying in a music-oriented program might have on L2 sound learning. Musical experience and musical aptitude might have a greater effect on the perception and production of L2 sounds in adult or adolescent learners, who are no longer at the same linguistically sensitive developmental stage as 9–11-year-old children. This question could be explored further by recreating the experiment with different age groups to see whether exposure to music affects auditory L2 training results for instance in adolescent or adult learners.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

The results show that the 9–11-year-old children examined in this study had a sensitivity to acoustic differences in L2 sound contrasts and can change their production of a difficult L2 vowel after just one session of passive auditory training. The results indicate that attending a music-oriented education program does not affect children's L2 production learning. This suggests that, at least at the developmental stage of the children tested in the current study, the benefits of linguistic plasticity and age may outweigh the possible benefits of musical experience on L2 sound learning. However, further research is needed to draw more definite conclusions on the effects of music on L2 perception and production learning in different age groups.

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**Katja Immonen**, MA, is a PhD candidate in Phonetics at the Learning, Age & Bilingualism Laboratory (LAB-lab), University of Turku, Finland. Her main research is focused on the effect of different language learning backgrounds on children’s second language learning. Her research interests also include children’s second language perception and production.

**Jemina Kilpeläinen**, MA, is a PhD candidate in Phonetics at the Learning, Age & Bilingualism Laboratory (LAB-lab), University of Turku, Finland. Her research is focused on the effect of audiovisual learning cues on non-native language learning in different types of adult learners. Her research interests also include the relationship between language learning and music.

**Paavo Alku**, Dr. Tech, is an Academy Professor from Department of Signal Processing and Acoustics, Aalto University, Finland. His research interests include a wide range of topics related to the speech communication technology, e.g. analysis and

parameterization of voice production and HMM-based speech synthesis.

**Maija S. Peltola**, PhD, is a Professor and the head of Phonetics and Learning, Age & Bilingualism Laboratory at the University of Turku, Finland. Her research interests include a wide range of topics related to the perceptual and productional acquisition of non-native speech.

# The Distinguishing Characteristic of Task-based Language Assessment

Majeed Noroozi

Florida International University, Miami, USA

Seyyedmohammad Taheri

Texas A & M University, College Station, USA

**Abstract**—Since its advent, the principles of Task-Based Language Teaching have been extended to assessment giving rise to Task-Based Language Assessment. Despite the growing body of research on the efficacy of Task-Based Language Teaching in instruction, the application of the assessment based on the tenets of Task-Based Language Teaching has been mainly neglected in some studies owing to their lack of use of Task-Based Language Assessment to measure the effectiveness of Task-Based Language Teaching (viz., Li, et al., 2016). The present study emphasizes the importance of Task-Based Language Assessment and highlights the feature that distinguishes this type of assessment from other assessments. The study concludes that while the performance-referenced feature of Task-Based Language Assessment is an essential characteristic thereof, it is, in fact, the holistic and direct feature of Task-Based Language Assessment that distinguishes it from other assessments. The more the assessment measure is incorporated in the performance of assessment tasks, the more the assessment tasks are based on the tenets of Task-Based Language Assessment. Therefore, the holistic and contextualized assessment tasks improve the confidence with which language teachers could generalize the results of the assessment tasks to real-life situations.

**Index Terms**—task-based language assessment, task-based language teaching, assessment task, measure of performance

## I. INTRODUCTION

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) emerged in the mid-1970s in the UK as a reaction to the previous methods of language teaching, which deemed language as a pure linguistic system through which the phonological, lexical, and grammatical aspects of language were emphasized (Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008). The focus of Communicative Language Teaching was on the 'use' as opposed to the 'usage' of language, which is the ability to use language meaningfully and communicatively (Ellis, 2003). Task-Based Language Teaching and the concept of task gained popularity in response to the criticism of the Communicative Language Teaching's inefficiencies regarding its notional-functional syllabus. Communicative Language Teaching's notional-functional syllabus was still following a structure-based syllabus with a cumulative view of language in which the communicative activities revolved around discrete, pre-selected items where students would go through presentation of items in a controlled manner and ultimately practice them in free production (Bygate, 2016; Ellis, 2009). Task-Based Language Teaching took issue with the concept of structural syllabus' breaking language into small components and instead put forth the notion of learning through performing in the relevant context. Task-Based Language teaching is a subset of Communicative Language Teaching that emphasizes involving language learners in authentic language use through performing tasks (Ellis, 2012). In other words, Task-Based Language Teaching stresses the importance of experiential learning or learning through doing where the language is treated as a means to the end of achieving communicative goals.

Task-Based Language Teaching's tenets have been applied to assessing and evaluating language through Task-Based Language Assessment, an alternative form of assessment to replace large-scale Discrete-Skills Assessment (DSA) that emphasized rote memorization (Norris, 2016). In essence, Noroozi (2021) contends that the need for an alternative assessment gave rise to assessment paradigms, such as performance assessment and, subsequently, Task-Based Language Assessment (TBLA) (Mislevy, Steinberg, & Almond, 2002; Norris, 2002), also known as Task-centered assessment (Brindley, 1994), Task-Based Language Performance Assessment (TBLPA) (Bachman, 2002), and task-based assessment (Brown, Hudson, Norris, & Bonk, 2002). More importantly, since discrete-point tests cause the issue of negative wash-back effect for Task-Based Language Teaching's performance-based instruction (Ellis, 2017), it was about time that Task-Based Language Teaching had a framework of assessment compatible with its instructional principles; Task-Based Language assessment filled that gap (Noroozi, 2021).

Task-Based Language assessment stresses the authenticity of assessment and language learners' use of the language ability rather than having a superficial knowledge of the language. Task-Based Language assessment requires language learners to use the language to achieve the assessment task's communicative goals (Norris, 2016). Wigglesworth (2008) contends that Task-Based Language Assessment is a type of performance assessment that emphasizes the performance



of practical skills rather than simply abstract knowledge of the language. In essence, assessment tasks require language learners to use their 'cognitive skills and domain-related knowledge' in their performance in order to achieve the outcome (Norris, 2009).

The present study highlights the significance of Task-Based Language Assessment in that it is a compatible means of assessment to Task-Based Language Teaching. Additionally, the unique characteristic of this assessment framework that distinguished it from other types of assessment is examined.

#### *Performance in Task-Based Language Assessment*

It would be easier to highlight characteristics of Task-Based Language Assessment once a clear definition is put forth. Task-Based Language Assessment has been defined by Brindley (1994) as the process of evaluating the quality of learners' communicative performances obtained through their goal-directed, meaning-focused language use necessitating the combination of skills and knowledge. Brown (2004) defines task-based assessment as any assessment that requires language learners to be involved in a type of language behavior that triggers goal-oriented language use beyond the language testing context. Along the same lines, Brindley (2013) holds that Task-Based Language Assessment focuses on how well learners can use their language in order to achieve their real communicative goals, as opposed to examining their knowledge of language systems and structures. Therefore, Task-Based Language Assessment could be referred to as a holistic assessment procedure that uses assessment tasks as its principal instrument in order to elicit a meaning-focused, goal-directed language use typical of that of the target context from language learners while they attempt to accomplish the task outcome.

One of the main features of Task-Based Language Assessment, among others, is that it's performance-referenced (Shehadeh, 2012). Both performance assessment and task-based assessment highlight the significance of performance in assessment; however, the success or failure in accomplishing the task matters in Task-Based Language Assessment as opposed to performance assessment (Brown, 2004). The question arises as to what distinguishes Task-Based Language Assessment from other types of assessment, specifically other forms of performance assessment.

Long and Norris (2000) hold that the distinguishing characteristic of Task-Based Language Assessment is the use of performance as the construct of assessment. They argue that assessment tasks in Task-Based Language Assessment are not merely a means to elicit language samples; in fact, the performance of the assessment tasks is an end in itself. The focus of assessment, rather than testing the mastery of the language components, is to perform the task successfully. While performance is a significant part of Task-Based Language Assessment, the inference made from that performance is even more critical. One of the approaches to Task-Based Language Assessment makes inferences from the performance obtained from the task based on the underlying language ability. For instance, the performance obtained from the oral presentation of language learners in class can be analyzed based on the linguistics feature such as grammatical accuracy and vocabulary dominance. Ellis (2003) calls this approach to Task-Based Language Assessment the construct-centered approach. On the other hand, that performance could also be assessed based on the real-world criteria; that is, other non-linguistic factors could also be considered in the assessment of the language learners' performance, such as strategic and sociolinguistic techniques in conveying meaning (Long & Norris, 2000). In this approach, what language learners can actually do in a particular context is important; in other words, the whole task itself is the construct of interest or the measure of assessment (Long & Norris, 2000). In the same vein, Brown (2004) believes that even though performance is of great importance in Task-Based Language Assessment, it is the successful completion of the task that counts in the final assessment of tasks.

While performance is an essential part of Task-Based Language Assessment, it is not what distinguishes this assessment from other types of assessment. Task-Based Language Assessment's distinctive feature is the integration of the measure of the test taker's performance in the task itself, or in other words, the assessment task's directness of measurement (Ellis, 2003). Simply put, the assessment performance is the assessment measure in and of itself. Once the measure of task performance is inherent in the task, then the claim that it is the completion of the task that counts would be more meaningful.

## II. CHARACTERISTICS OF TASK-BASED LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

Task-Based Language Assessment is a testing framework that uses assessment tasks as its principal unit, and that is based on the tenets of Task-Based Language Teaching (Shehadeh, 2012). Task-Based Language Assessment has the following main characteristics:

- It uses assessment tasks as the main instrument.
- It requires meaning-focused, goal-directed language use.
- The target measure (construct) of the assessment task is authentic, real-world behavior or real-world language use typical of the target context.
- The measure of test-takers' performance is incorporated into the assessment task (holistic).
- It is a criterion-referenced assessment commonly used as a formative assessment.

### *A. Assessment Task as the Main Instrument*

The first feature of Task-Based Language Assessment highlights the distinguishing role of assessment tasks. Long and Norris (2000) hold that in a genuinely Task-Based Language Assessment, tasks have the central role of being the

significant unit of analysis, which motivates item selection, test instrument construction, and the rating of task performance. Assessment tasks play a pivotal role in the design of tests in Task-Based Language Assessment. They require that test-takers use the language by combining both skill and knowledge and getting engaged in meaningful language communication (Brindley, 1994; Norris, 2002, as cited in Noroozi, 2018). As Task-Based Language Teaching uses pedagogical tasks, in the same vein, its relative assessment, Task-Based Language Assessment, necessitates the use of assessment tasks. The definition of the assessment task in the literature has been mainly derived from that which was put forth in Task-based Language Teaching. Ellis (2003) defines assessment tasks as tools used in the context of meaning-focused, goal-directed language use to elicit and evaluate learners' communicative performance. The communicative performance is elicited when language learners make an effort to achieve the non-linguistic outcome of the assessment task. Norris (2016) holds that assessment tasks require 'functional language use' to communicate meaningful ideas within a well-defined communicative setting (p. 239).

Assessment with tasks is quite different from Discrete-Skills Assessment (DSA), which only measures language learners' linguistic competence via the use of discrete and decontextualized test items. In essence, the use of Assessment tasks in Task-Based Language Assessment is conducive to assessing not only the linguistic competence of language learners but also their communicative competence. In other words, Task-Based Language Assessment transcends the scope of language knowledge and assesses language learners' ability to use language knowledge properly and effectively (Mislevy et al., 2002).

As for the choice of task and the measure of task performance, there are two major differences between Task-Based Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Assessment. As for the choice of the task, tasks both in teaching and testing should well cover and represent the construct or the domain being focused on (Noroozi, 2018). However, the importance and weight given to these criteria differ between Task-Based Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Assessment. In essence, the choice of the task is a more sensitive job in Task-Based Language Assessment compared to Task-Based Language Teaching since the choice of the task in Task-based Language Assessment has a direct impact on validity, which determines the credibility of scores (Ellis, 2003). Validity refers to the extent to which an assessment task successfully measures what it has been designed to measure. In other words, validity is the measure of correspondence between the intended use of an assessment use and what it actually measures (Ellis, 2003). It is imperative that the task used in Task-Based Language Assessment represent and cover the construct and the domain to be tested, while in Task-Based Language Teaching, it is desirable and satisfactory if the tasks to be taught have this feature (Noroozi, 2018). Besides, the measurement of task performance in Task-Based Language Assessment should be more explicit than in Task-Based Language Teaching. Developing such measures in assessing task performance in order to ensure reliability and validity is a painstaking process that requires time and expertise.

Assessment tasks need to have a clear-cut, explicit assessment criterion that indicates how to measure performance. This feature somewhat distinguishes Task-Based Language Assessment from Task-Based Language Teaching, where having an explicit performance measure is not required. Depending on the underlying criterion of the assessment task, there are two major approaches to Task-Based Language Assessment: (a) the assessment developed from the underlying ability or construct, (b) the assessment adapted from the holistic performance of the target task (Bachman, 2007; Brindley, 2013; Ellis, 2003; Long, 2015, as cited in Noroozi, 2018). The procedure of taking account of the underlying ability or the construct utilizes assessment tasks to provide information about test-takers' mastery of a certain underlying ability or construct of language. McNamara (1996) refers to this procedure as the weak version of the second language performance assessment since language takes precedence over task performance. In other words, tasks solely serve the purpose of eliciting language samples from learners for evaluation. The tests used in the ability/construct category of Task-Based Language Assessment are system-referenced, drawing on a psycholinguistic view of language use in their design. The underlying ability/construct approach focuses on linguistic components such as grammar, vocabulary, etc., in order to assess language learners' task performance. Long (2015) holds that defining the underlying ability or construct is a complicated issue of this procedure. The other Task-Based Language Assessment approach, which Ellis (2003, as cited in Noroozi, 2018) refers to as a work-sample approach, is more concerned with how learners can perform the task and what they can do in the assessment rather than with their language ability. In this approach, the whole task is the construct to be assessed rather than just the learners' linguistic proficiency (Long & Norris, 2000). McNamara (1996) refers to this procedure as the strong version of the second language performance assessment where language is deemed as just a means to an end, the end being the completion of the task requirement. Brindley (2013) contends that it is the 'real-world' criteria that should be taken into account in assessing students' performance rather than the language criteria (p. 1). For instance, the ability to deliver a lecture requires more than just using the linguistic elements; thus, assessing non-linguistic elements should also be incorporated in the assessment. More specifically, one can be accurate in terms of grammar but not be able to convey the key points in delivering a lecture. Hence, task completion plays a significant role in this particular Task-Based Language Assessment approach. Ellis (2003) states that the assessment tasks based on this approach are often performance-referenced tests. However, this approach suffers from the transferability issue; that is, it is difficult to predict the real-life task performance based on a specific task-assessment performance (Long, 2015).

#### *B. Meaning-focused Goal-directed Language Use*

The second feature of Task-Based Language Assessment has to do with promoting meaning-focused, goal-directed language use. This feature requires that the assessment tasks focus on the meaning and purpose of the task in order to reach the communicative goals of the task. This characteristic is evident in pedagogical tasks where there is some gap to be filled or an outcome that the test-takers need to accomplish. Language learners need to use their linguistic and non-linguistic repertoire in order to achieve the goal of the task and successfully perform it. Brindley (1994) argues that the goal-directed, meaning-focused language in Task-Based Language Assessment requires the integration of skills and knowledge; that is, language should serve the purpose of reflecting or achieving a particular skill, knowledge, or outcome. Given this criterion as the goal of Task-Based Language Assessment, language should not be used separately from its main function, which is getting across meaning or achieving a goal. In fact, this feature ensures that there is some non-linguistic purpose behind using the language. Therefore, language itself would not be the focus of the assessment; the main focus of the test-takers' attention is drawn to the ultimate goal that they achieve by accomplishing the task. Test-takers use both their linguistic and non-linguistic resources to successfully perform the task. Even though the test developers' purpose might ultimately be assessing the language as one of the important factors in accomplishing the task, the language would not be the center of the performance in assessment but a means to achieving the non-linguistic outcome of the assessment task.

### *C. Authentic Real-world Behavior/Language Use*

The underlying construct of the assessment task could be language ability/processing or the performance/behavior that represents a real-life situation. A closer look into this feature of Task-Based Language Assessment indicates that it is more related to the issue of the validity of the assessment where the tests are required to assess what they purport to assess. Task-Based Language Assessment requires that the type of performance in the assessment task be as close as possible to the real-life, authentic performance. As Ellis (2003) puts it, the task performance in assessment should closely correlate with the criterion performance, or what the test-takers would do in the real-life situation. Due to the limitation of test settings, it would be very idealistic to have an assessment task that perfectly correlates with the real-life task. Nonetheless, attempts should be made by task designers to approach as much as possible the performance typical of the real-life settings. The authenticity of the assessment tasks improves the generalizability of the assessment, which is as the degree to which an assessment task could be extrapolated to a real-life target task or could predict the test-takers' performance on the real-situation task (Ellis, 2003). Even though the definition might sound simple, the achievement of this goal can be challenging.

There have been some proposals to improve the authenticity of the assessment, such as Bachman and Palmer's (1996) and Douglas's (2000) frameworks that specify the characteristics that Target Language Use (TLU) tasks, i.e., the real-world tasks and assessment tasks should share. These frameworks are designed to increase the confidence with which the performance in the assessment task could be generalized to the performance in the TLU task. In other words, these frameworks work as a template to show the differences between the assessment task and the real-life tasks. Noroozi (2021) holds that in order to make the best use of this framework, test developers need to standardize the conditions that are fixed in the TLU situation, which would help the generalizability of the assessment. Nevertheless, Ellis (2003) takes issue with this claim, holding that the matching of the assessment task and TLU task might be effective in improving the situational authenticity, yet it cannot enhance the interactional authenticity. Interactional authenticity refers to the quality of interaction between the test-taker, assessment task, and the testing context, while interactional authenticity accounts for the degree of correspondence between the interaction arising from the assessment task and the real-life task (Ellis, 2003). There is also some limitation in this approach since the frameworks per se will not guarantee the improvement of generalizability; it is ultimately left to the test developers' subjective interpretation, judgment, and creative skill to translate the TLU characteristics as perfectly as possible to the assessment tasks.

### *D. Direct Measure of Performance*

The distinguishing feature of Task-Based Language Assessment is that the measure of a test-takers' performance is incorporated in the task itself and is not separate from the task. In effect, what makes a test not be an assessment task is exactly this undue separation. Take the example of a test requiring the language learners to listen to a lecture and subsequently answer multiple-choice items. The test is indeed performance-referenced in that it requires learners to process a real-life lecture; however, it is not task-based since the measure of the language performance is not included in the task performance, i.e., the lecture that testees listen to. In fact, the measure of the language performance is indirectly and separately assessed through analyzing the test-takers' answers to the multiple-choice items. It is evident from the example that the measure of students' proficiency must be inherent in and incorporated into the performance of the task; otherwise, the separation of performance measure would question the task-based nature of a test. Therefore, the whole performance of the task is the measure of assessment. In other words, task performance and task measure are the same or inextricably intertwined. While performance is an essential part of assessment tasks, it is not sufficient to ensure that the assessment is truly task-based. Assessment tasks need to be direct to be truly based on the tenets of Task-Based Language Assessment.

### *E. Criterion-referenced Formative Assessment*

Long (2015) holds that assessment tasks in Task-Based Language Assessment are formative criterion-referenced; that is to say, the students' abilities are not compared with other students yet are evaluated solely based on whether or not they accomplish the task. That is, assessment tasks have not been commonly used for norm-referenced assessment and might not even lend themselves perfectly to this type of assessment. Task-Based Language assessment is more commonly used as a formative assessment; i.e., it is used at the service of the instructional curriculum (Ellis, 2003; Shehadeh, 2012). Assessment tasks can be used for both summative and formative assessment, even though the summative use of Task-Based Language Assessment is not usually associated with language education and, in particular, Task-Based Language Teaching; it is mostly used for vocational and business purposes.

Task-Based Language Assessment provides teachers with the opportunity to investigate multiple aspects of language ability and development, such as accuracy, fluency, complexity, procedural knowledge, and pragmatic proficiency through a single performance (Norris, 2016, as cited in Noroozi, 2021). Therefore, Task-Based Language Assessment offers positive washback effects, which helps the educators and teachers to reconsider how teaching and learning happens. The wash-back effect of Task-Based Language Assessment plays a significant role in improving course content and objectives for the classroom. It also lays the groundwork for learners to receive diagnostic feedback as they can compare their task performance with the clear performance criteria presented to them. Additionally, Task-Based Language Assessment utilizes a variety of outcome reporting formats that are expressed in performance terms, which are more familiar to the non-expert audience. Therefore, Task-Based Language Assessment fosters communication between people who want to use performance information and educational institutions as Task-Based Language Assessment uses performance terms that are more intelligible to them (Brindley, 2013). In other words, Task-Based Language Assessment is capable of producing publically meaningful data that determines the summative functions of the language learning program, such as certification (Norris, 2016).

### III. CHALLENGES IN TASK-BASED LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

#### A. *Target Language Use*

Task-Based Language Assessment purports to be an authentic method of assessing language performance. To this end, Task-Based Language Assessment needs to utilize assessment tasks that correspond with the real-life target tasks. Therefore, Task-Based Language Assessment needs a set of yardsticks that could ensure the degree of overlap between the assessment tasks and real-life target tasks. To achieve this goal, Bachman and Palmer (1996) put forth a framework of task characteristics that identify the TLU domain. The TLU domain incorporates TLU tasks which indicate a set of criteria to determine the extent to which there is correspondence between the assessment task and the TLU task. They contend that this framework can be applied to describe both the TLU task and assessment task so as to investigate the extent that they converge. Noroozi (2021) contends that the best procedure to use this framework is "to control and fix the testing procedure through a set of different tasks which are representative of the target language domain" (p. 889). It should be noted that this framework not only helps assessment tasks enhance the level of their generalizability but also improves the authenticity of assessment tasks as well as the validity of inferences made by them. Therefore, this framework functions as a yardstick to examine the level of correspondence between the assessment task and the TLU task by describing the TLU domain (Noroozi, 2021). The framework of task characteristics identifies five rubrics: (a) the setting, (b) test rubric, (c) input, (d) the expected response, (e) the relationship between the input and response. Douglas (2000, as cited in Noroozi, 2021), drawing on Bachman and Palmer's framework, makes some adjustments to this framework by adding a new rubric, namely assessment. Besides the TLU situation characteristic framework, Douglas puts forth another framework for language features in the TLU situation. It seems that the framework of the language characteristics would be useful for the construct-based or ability-based approach in the type of language ability, which is required in the TLU situation. Douglas's framework is more inclined towards listing the features of the TLU domain that could be a reference point for the assessment task, while Bachman and Palmer's framework is more predisposed towards specifying the assessment tasks and then describing how they should look like in the TLU situation (Noroozi, 2021).

#### B. *Scoring and Interpretation*

Assessment and scoring of test-takers is a challenging job since assessment tasks inherently do not offer a measure to assess the performance of language learners. Three methods of assessing language learners' performance: (a) direct assessment of tasks performance, (b) discourse analytic measures, and (c) external ratings could be used in Task-Based Language Assessment (Ellis, 2003). Direct assessment includes measuring language learners' performance based on whether they achieve the outcome of the tasks successfully or not. Generally, closed tasks, which have a fixed outcome, lend themselves well to this method of measuring performance, while open tasks, which are subject to the interpretation of the assessor, do not fit well in this method. The discourse analytic method offers a less direct assessment of performance as, in this method, some specific linguistic, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse features are highlighted and focused in assessment. Therefore, this method of assessment does not yield an authentic measure of performance since one particular aspect of tasks is derived for assessment. External rating is a method of assessment that involves the assessor's subjective judgment of the learner's performance. This method usually makes use of rating scales to assess performance. These scales are based on the competency and level of performance in assessing language learners'

performance. Task-Based Language Assessment uses all of these three methods depending on the purpose for which the assessment is to be used. Direct assessment is usually used for vocational purposes where tasks are dichotomously score, such as a pass/fail at the end of a certificate program. The discourse analytic method is mainly used in task-based research, and external ratings is the most commonly used measurement method in Task-Based Language Teaching. External rating is mainly for pedagogical purposes and high stake tests such as IELTS.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

The incorporation of the measure of the assessment in the performance of the assessment task is an ideal concept since there is always some reliance on some specific parts of the performance from which the measure is derived for assessment. The feature of directness should be considered as a continuum where on the one extreme, the measure of task performance is perfectly incorporated in the assessment, and on the other, this incorporation is not there. In essence, the more test developers could reach this ideal, the more task-based the assessment would be (see Figure 1). In the same vein, Shehadeh (2012) holds that there is always some degree of induction from the task performance based on the ability underlying the performance; that is, test developers are always bound to stick to the ability that underlies the task performance. This issue is also related to the generalizability of assessment, where assessment scholars attempt to set a framework to define the criteria of measurement in task performance more precisely so as to design assessment tasks and assessment measures that are as close as possible to the real-life situation.

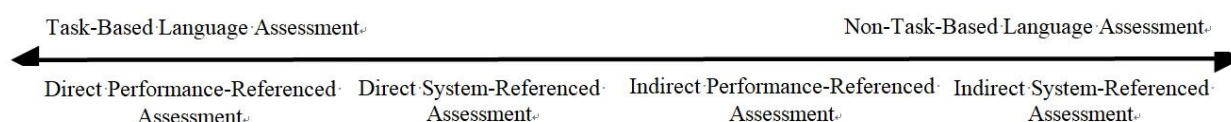


Figure 1. Linear Spectrum of Forms of Task-Based Language Assessment

The degree to which a test is performance-referenced or direct indicates the extent to which it is based on the principles of Task-Based Language Assessment. The feature of directness plays a more significant role in transforming a test into a form of Task-Based Language Assessment than the performance-referenced feature of a test. Therefore, direct tests are closer to the Task-Based Language Assessment end of the spectrum. An assessment task that is direct and performance-referenced is arguably more task-based than the one that is not performance-referenced. In the same vein, the direct performance-referenced tests are more task-based than the direct system-referenced tests that treat language knowledge as a system to be assessed. Since directness is a distinguishing characteristic of Task-Based Language Assessment, both direct performance-referenced and direct system-referenced tests are different forms of Task-Based Language Assessment. The direct performance-referenced tests consist of real-world tasks such as asking students to order pizza on the phone. Direct system-referenced tests refer to the tests such as information-gap or opinion-gap tasks.

Indirect system-referenced tests are not task-based as they do not use tasks in their assessment; in other words, these tests lack both the features of performance-referenced and directness. Discrete-point tests such as multiple-choice tests are an instance of indirect system-referenced tests. The case of indirect performance-referenced tests, for instance, tests of academic language ability, such as TOEFL and IELTS, is a little bit tricky as, on the surface, they could be deemed as task-based tests; however, the measure of assessment is not incorporated in these tests. Thus, the feature of being performance-referenced in these tests does not make these tests task-based. In effect, the mere fact that a test is performance-referenced does not guarantee that it is task-based.

#### V. CONCLUSION

Derived from the principles of Task-Based Language Teaching, Task-Based Language Assessment advocates using authentic assessment tasks that would elicit the type of performance from the students that is close to the real-life situation. However, the goal of Task-Based Language Assessment is not simply using the authentic tasks to elicit certain components of the language system that are then assessed. In fact, Task-Based Language Assessment evaluates the performance of the task as the most important construct or the measure of assessment. Language learners have to perform in order to accomplish the assessment task. Therefore, the performance-referenced feature of Task-Based Language Assessment is one of the necessary features thereof; however, it is not sufficient to distinguish it from other types of assessment. The direct nature of Task-based Language assessment is another important feature that should be retained in any test that purports to be based on the principles of Task-Based Language Assessment. Any derivation from and separation of the criterion measure from the performance of the assessment task undermines the *taskness* of the assessment task in Task-Based Language teaching.

Hence, for a particular test to be based on the principle of Task-Based Language Assessment, first and foremost, it needs to use an assessment task in the assessment. Second, the measure of assessment must be incorporated into the assessment task. Not being performance-referenced per se does not necessarily make a test less task-based, even though

it always helps a test be more task-based. Additionally, the settings where the assessment task is performed must correspond as much as possible with the real-life situation in which the authentic real-life task occurs. The assessment rating also determines to what extent the assessment of the tasks corresponds with and predicts the performance in authentic tasks in real-life situations.

## VI. IMPLICATIONS

Task-Based Language Assessment has a couple of benefits for language teachers. As discussed above, Task-Based Language Teaching, as a formative assessment, provides teachers with the chance to fine-tune their syllabus according to the tasks undertaken in real-life situations. Task-Based Language Assessment's positive washback effects allow teachers to learn from their mistakes and improve the effectiveness of their syllabus based on the test-takers' performance on the assessment. In the same vein, Task-Based Language Assessment allows the learners to receive diagnostic feedback as they can compare their task performance with the clear performance criteria presented to them (Noroozi, 2018). Furthermore, Task-Based Language Assessment utilizes various forms of reporting the assessment outcome in terms of performance, which is comprehensible to novice teachers and non-specialists.

More importantly, Task-Based Language Assessment derives its principles from Task-Based Language Teaching; therefore, Task-Based Language Assessment is the best assessment to measure the effectiveness of Task-Based Language Teaching in comparison with other teaching approaches, such as Present, Practice, Produce. This could highlight the significance of Task-Based Language Assessment in the classroom and research. In effect, language teachers can get a better picture of the effectiveness of their Task-Based Instruction through using its relative assessment, that is, Task-Based Language Assessment. This important fact has been to a great extent neglected in the field of second language research since most studies have used other forms of assessment except for Task-Based Language Assessment to assess the effectiveness of Task-Based Language Teaching (e.g., De la Fuente, 2006; De Ridder et al., 2007; Gonzalez-Lloret & Nielson, 2015; Lai et al., 2011; Li et al., 2016; Shintani, 2011, 2013). On the other hand, some studies reported great effects of Task-Based Language Assessment in the L2 classroom (see Winke 2010; Yeh 2010). For instance, Winke (2010) reports the effectiveness of the use of online tasks, as a formative assessment tool, in providing progressive feedback to teachers and language learners.

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**Majeed Noroozi** received his Ph.D. in Language Education from Florida International University. His research interests include Task-Based Language Teaching and Bilingualism.

**Seyyedmohammad Taheri** is a Ph.D. student of Educational Psychology at Texas A&M University. His research focuses on Task-Based Language Teaching and Corrective Feedback.

# Attempts of PAD Teaching Methodology in Modern Chinese *College English Writing* Class: A Grounded Theory Based Perspective

Huanan Su

College of Arts and Sciences, University of the Cordilleras, Baguio City, Philippines

**Abstract**—This research paper attempts to have an in-depth understanding of PAD (presentation-assimilation-discussion) teaching methodology applied in a modern Chinese college course, which is *College English Writing* class, from the perspective of the Grounded Theory. Based on a detailed introduction and analysis of the Grounded Theory, this research makes efforts to answer such a question that how PAD teaching methodology is applied in modern Chinese *College English Writing* class as well as how it helps Chinese college students learn in their *College English Writing* class. The PAD teaching methodology in modern Chinese *College English Writing* class is a new type of teaching mode, being divided into three processes: presentation, assimilation and discussion (which is the co-called PAD). The key innovation in the PAD teaching methodology in modern Chinese *College English Writing* class is to stagger the lectures and discussions in time, so that students have a week time for personalized assimilation, which mobilizes students' interest in learning, promotes students' enthusiasm, cultivates students' learning autonomy, and improves the quality of the teaching of *College English Writing* class. As a qualitative research, this paper employs methods of literature synthesis and comparative analysis to reach such a conclusion that PAD teaching methodology does help and facilitate modern Chinese college students in their learning of *College English Writing* class. An important perspective from the Grounded Theory has provided a strong support to further verify the necessary role that PAD teaching methodology has played in modern Chinese *College English Writing* class.

**Index Terms**—PAD teaching methodology, *College English Writing* class, modern Chinese college students' language learning, a grounded theory based perspective

## I. INTRODUCTION

The reform of college English teaching in modern China is constantly developing. College English writing teaching is highly valued in the domain of foreign language teaching in college classes. Higher requirements have been putting forward for the cultivation of college students' writing ability. College teachers' characteristics and attitudes, college students' characteristics and attitudes, the teacher-student ratio, writing strategies and activities, as well as the writing assessment will have a direct impact on college students' comprehensive writing ability.

Professor Zhang Xuexin, from Department of Psychology, School of Social Development and Public Policy, Fudan University, combines the advantages of lecture-based classrooms and discussion-based classrooms and puts forward a new idea called "The PAD Class" (Zhang, 2015), creatively reforming the Chinese traditional classroom teaching mode and fully mobilizing the enthusiasm and interest of college students, which finally improves the autonomy of modern Chinese college students' writing behavior, as well as their writing ability.

In view of this, based on a series of research literature, this research paper adopts the Grounded Theory based paradigm to conduct this exploratory research, specifically to conduct this qualitative research on the factors affecting English writing ability in the process of modern Chinese college students' English language learning. At the same time, since PAD teaching methodology is introduced within this research paper, this will definitely help us understand more about the basic principles of PAD teaching methodology (Zhang, 2018) and its application in modern Chinese *College English Writing* classes.

Therefore, the research paper helps us further understand the psychological processes involved in the English language learning of contemporary Chinese college students, understand the mechanism and restriction conditions of the English language learning. Nevertheless, it will also place great significance for the first and foreign language learning of contemporary Chinese college students as well as the first and foreign language teaching of contemporary Chinese college language educators.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

For this part of the research paper, a review of literature will include three main components. A brief review of the Grounded Theory starts this part, followed by the introductions and analyses of the social constructivist theory and the PAD teaching methodology.



### A. *The Grounded Theory*

What is the Grounded Theory? The Grounded Theory is the one that is jointly developed by two scholars whose names are Anselm Strauss and Barney Glaser (1987) from Columbia University at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Simply put, the Grounded Theory is a qualitative research method that uses a systematic procedure to develop and inductively lead a rooted theory for a certain phenomenon as well as for a series of related phenomena (Glaser, 1998).

#### 1. Definition

The Grounded Theory (GT) is a qualitative research method whose main purpose is to establish a theory based on empirical data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Researchers generally do not have theoretical hypotheses before the start of their researches, and they start directly from actual observations, summarize empirical generalizations from the original data, and then rise to a systematic theory. The Grounded Theory is actually a method of establishing a substantive theory from the bottom-up way, which is, searching for core concepts that reflect the essence of things and phenomena on the basis of systematic collection of data.

The Grounded Theory constructs relevant social theories through the connections between concepts analyzed. The Grounded Theory must be supported by empirical evidences, but its main feature is not in its empirical nature, but in that it abstracts new concepts and ideas from empirical facts. In philosophical thinking, the grounded theoretical methods are based on the paradigm of post-positivism, emphasizing the falsification of established theories. Therefore, the Grounded Theory also has a certain connection with the social constructivist theory.

#### 2. Theory Generation

The Grounded Theory especially emphasizes the promotion of theory from data, and believes that only through in-depth analysis of data can a theoretical framework be gradually formed. This is actually a process of induction, condensing data continuously from the bottom to the top. Different from the General Grand Theory, the Grounded Theory does not make logical deductions on the hypotheses set by the researchers themselves, but conducts inductive analysis from the data instead. The theories must be traceable to the original data they produced, and they must be based on empirical facts. This is because the Grounded theorists believe that only those theories derived from data have vitality in practice. If the theory is consistent with the data, combined with the social constructivist theory, the theory will have practical uses and can be used to construct and guide people's specific life practices in their daily lives.

#### 3. Important goals

The primary goal of the Grounded Theory is to establish a substantive theory between the Grand Theory and the micro-operational hypothesis, but it does not rule out the construction of a universal formal theory. However, formal theory must be established on the basis of substantive theory. Only after the substance theory is established on the basis of data, can the formal theory be established on the basis of various related substantive theory. This is because the Grounded Theory believes that knowledge is accumulated, and it is a process of continuous evolution from facts to substantive theory, and then to formal theory. Meanwhile, the construction of formal theory requires a large amount of data sources and the intermediary of substantive theory. For instance, if a formal theory is constructed directly from a data source, meaning that the jump is too great, and then a great number of loopholes may arise consequently.

#### 4. Theory Flexibility

While using predecessor theories appropriately, the Grounded Theory believes that the researcher's personal explanations can also play an important role in constructing theories. The reason why researchers can "understand" the data is because the researchers have brought in their own empirical knowledge. The theory generated from the data is actually the result of continuous interaction and integration between the data and the researcher's personal interpretation.

We know that the use of relevant literature can broaden our horizons and provide new concepts and theoretical frameworks for data analysis, but at the same time, we must also pay attention not to use predecessor theories too much. Otherwise, the thoughts of our predecessors may constrain our thinking, causing us to consciously or unconsciously apply other people's theories to our own data. Or in other words, it is very dangerous to put your own information into other people's theories.

#### 5. Theory as a Research Method

With regard to the choice of the Grounded Theory as a research method, since there are currently no mature theoretical hypotheses and related research in China and abroad and quantitative research methods seem to be inappropriate for the original intention of this research. Therefore, this research paper adopts the Grounded Theory as an exploratory research method, which is very important for the study of language learning of modern Chinese college students. According to Anselm Strauss and Barney Glaser (1987), as a qualitative research method, the Grounded Theory is considered to be the most influential research paradigm in the field of language acquisition researches, and it is actually at the forefront of the qualitative research revolution (Charma, 2000).

For instance, this research method aims to establish substantive theories from a large amount of English learning and English teaching experience data from college students and teachers without research hypotheses. The core lies in the use of scientific deduction, analysis, logical induction (Thomas & James, 2006) and other methods to continuously compare and analyze the data of English learning and English teaching, and even more detailed aspects, such as the relevance of English writing, and finally to arrive at new theories.

Meanwhile, there are no more related results using the Grounded Theory research method in the domestic and foreign

language initiation research literature. Therefore, the Grounded Theory research method is an innovation and attempt in the application of this paper. Specifically, in the research steps of the Grounded Theory method, the collection and analysis of English learning and English teaching materials are carried out simultaneously and continuously, which is reflected in every coding process.

In a nutshell, the step-by-step coding of English learning and English teaching data is the most critical link in the Grounded Theory, including three levels of coding, which are open coding, axial coding and selective coding. The research flow of the Grounded Theory is shown below in Figure 2.1.

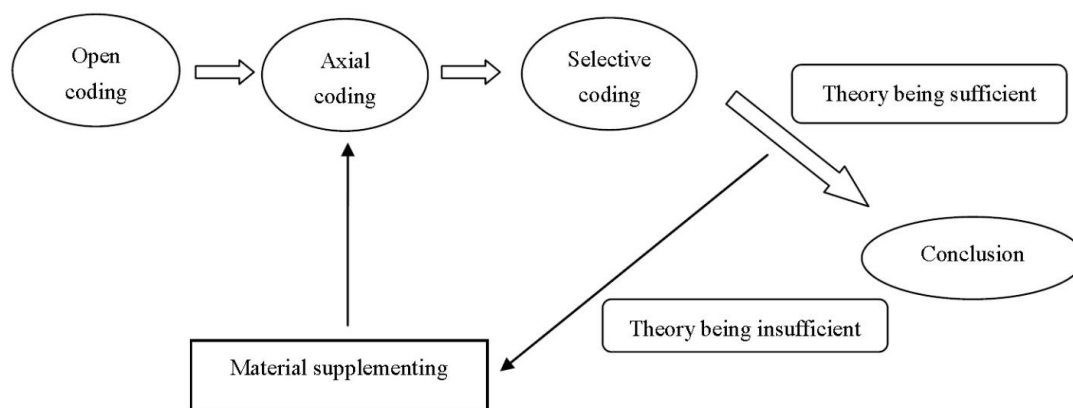


Figure 2.1 Research Flow of the Grounded Theory

### B. The Social Constructivist Theory

The social constructivist theory emphasizes the importance and the role of culture and context in a developing personal interpretation and an understanding of society (Wu, 2017). Systemic-functional linguists believe that texts are produced and determined by social contexts, so that it is possible to identify the social elements from language teaching and language learning, as Wu (2017) interprets. Therefore, this section will analyze how the social constructivist theory is contextualized in language teaching and language learning, especially in the language learning programs. Later than that, as the two fundamental contributors to a language classroom, teachers and learners' roles and joint efforts will also be introduced in this section.

#### 1. Theory of Language Teaching

The social constructivist approaches related to language teaching involve a large number of innovations amongst instructors' teaching in various classroom settings (Santrock, 2011). In this subsection, based on the viewpoint of social constructivist theory, the author will focus on a consolidation of knowledge about various constructivist perspectives as well as the points where the social constructivist approaches fit in the overall college English argumentation writing classroom.

From a general view, the social constructivist approach underlines the social context of language learning and the idea that knowledge is actually mutually built and constructed within a certain environment (Santrock, 2011). Language learners' involvement with other people produces chances for learners to evaluate and refine their understandings once they are exposed to the thinking of others and when they are participating in creating shared understandings in a broader social context. In this way, experiences in a social context provide an important mechanism for the further development of the learners' thinking (Johnson & Johnson, 2010).

Vygotsky's social constructivist theory is especially relevant for the teaching of a language. Moving from Piaget to Vygotsky, the conceptual social constructivist change is from the individual to collaboration, social interaction and sociocultural activity (Daniels, 2011) (see Figure 2.2 below). In Piaget's cognitive constructivist approach, learners construct knowledge by transforming, organizing, and reorganizing their previous knowledge and information, while Vygotsky's social constructivist approach emphasizes that learners construct knowledge through social interactions with others in a broader social context (Santrock, 2011). The content of this knowledge is actually influenced by the culture in which the learners live, which includes different kinds of languages, different kinds of religious beliefs and various language skills in a broader context.

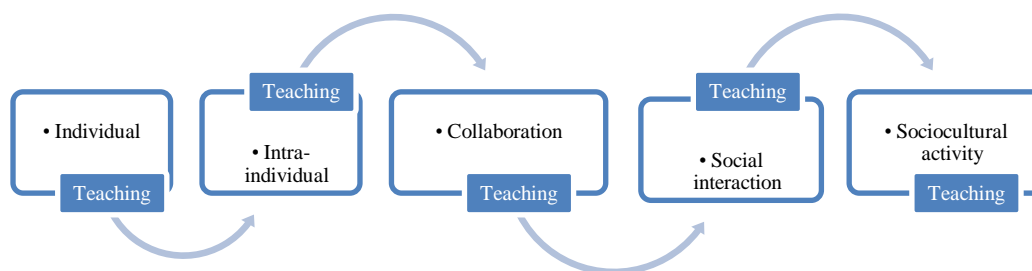


Figure 2.2 Social Constructivist Change of Language Teaching

While Piaget emphasizes that teachers should provide support for learners to explore and develop their understanding of knowledge (Santrock, 2011), Vygotsky stresses that teachers should create as many opportunities as possible for learners to learn by constructing knowledge along with the teachers and their peers. In both Piaget's and Vygotsky's conceptual theories of learning contexts, teachers are serving as facilitators and guides rather than directors and modelers in the learners' learning contexts of knowledge (Santrock, 2011).

Situated cognition refers to an important assumption in the social constructivist teaching and the idea that learners' critical thinking appears or is situated in social and physical context (Stapleton, 2001; Santrock, 2011). In other words, knowledge is involved in and connected to the context in which knowledge is learned and thus developed. As Santrock (2011) describes, if this is the case, it makes much sense to creating learning situations for the learners that are quite similar to the real-world learning environments as much as possible.

To illustrate, the Pennsylvania State University has ever conducted a study to help learners' understand volcanoes through situated cognition. In order to expand the learners' knowledge and understanding of volcanoes, some learners are placed in the role of scientists studying an active volcano; meanwhile some other learners are given the task of reporting what an emergency evacuation team is expected to do when an active volcano breaks out. As Santrock (2011) describes, using information technology and the internet resources, the "scientist" learners try to examine new stories about the basic information of an active volcano; while the "evacuation team" learners do researches for information about the impact that an active volcano has on inhabitants and how they can be removed from the danger of an erupting volcano.

## 2. Theory of Language Learning

The theoretical framework of the study focuses on the social constructivist theory of learning that connects with Piaget's and Vygotsky's theory, which puts emphasis on the social interaction as a necessary precursor to internalization of meaning in learning. The theory of Piaget and Vygotsky sets the platform to investigate the process of writing amongst learners to construct their knowledge in their writing process.

In the 1960s, Piaget's work as cited by Steffe and Thompson (2000) became the basis for programs of early education that emphasized discovering learning and a supportive rather than a directive form of teaching. From the view of Piaget, the relationship between teachers' teaching and learners' learning must be carefully orchestrated for cognitive development on the part of young learners to occur (Chandler & Jarvis, 2001). Although the majority of educators would no longer give so much weight to independent discovery as the key to learning, Piaget's conception of the learners as actively constructing their knowledge on the basis of what they have brought prior to knowledge in writing, to encounter with new information and experience has taken a firm hold and is presupposed in almost all recent work on learning and development. As is commonly acknowledged that, knowledge is not passively received either through the senses or by the way of communication; however, knowledge is actively built up by the cognizing subjects (Glasserfeld, 1995).

From the socio-cultural perspectives of learning, language is regarded as a tool of social interactions, through which learners who have skills and knowledge at a higher level assist those who are less capable in engaging in a shared activity or in solving a problem (Vygotsky, 1978; Lee, 2000). Thus, according to Vygotsky, social relationships are closely linked to the development of mental abilities as well as learning. This idea is culturally reflected in his theory of "the zone of proximal development (ZPD)", referring to "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86).

Vygotsky's formulation of a socio-cultural approach in learning claims that a higher mental functioning and a human action in general are mediated by technical tools and psychological signs; his focus is on the psychological aspect as opposed to the technical aspect (Lee, 2000). The complex processes of human semiotic action are proposed by him when he outlines the role of sign systems like human language, whether it is in inter-mental or in intra-mental functioning. Learning is mediated firstly on the inter-psychological plane between a person and others as well as their cultural artifacts and secondly appropriated by individuals on the intra-psychological plane (Lee, 2000).

Taking into consideration the work of Piaget and Vygotsky, it is obviously known that knowledge is not fixed,

autonomous and dependent; rather, knowledge is constructed, reconstructed and co-constructed among learning participants in various specific situations. By utilizing the socio-cognitive and the socio-cultural resources at their disposal, learners work collaboratively towards more successful achievements goals that occur in learners' discussions and activities (see Figure 2.3 below). These two social constructivist perspectives focus on the interdependence of social and individual processes in the construction of knowledge, paving a good way to the implementation of PAD-based instruction in classroom practice.

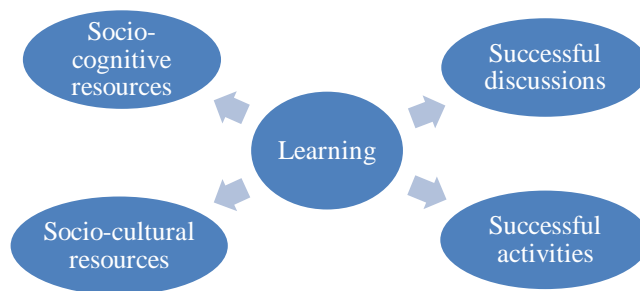


Figure 2.3 A Social Constructivist Situation of Language Learning

### 3. Social Constructivist Language Learning Programs

Language learning programs based on a social constructivist theory vary from one to another, among which there are two programs worth mentioning, referring to the Fostering a Community of Learners (FCL) and the School for Thought (SFT). These two programs will show us some ways to apply social constructivist ideas and techniques in English argumentative writing classroom successfully.

To specify, the School for Thought (SFT) learning program is another formal program of social constructivist learning program that combines aspects of the Jasper Project (JP), the Fostering a Community of Learners (FCL) and the Computer-Supported Intentional Learning Environment (CSILE) in a school learning environment. The Jasper Project, FCL and CSILE share some certain characteristics that allow them to be correlated and combine in a school language learning environment.

#### 4. Teachers and Learners as Joint Contributors

Social constructivist approaches stress that teachers and learners can contribute to learners' learning (Bock, 1986), to name but a few, four learning tools among teachers and learners can help make this happen, namely scaffolding, cognitive apprenticeship, tutoring and collaborative learning, etc.

Scaffolding, which is closely linked to the idea of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978), refers to changing the level of support from learners to teachers (Santrock, 2011). During a course of teaching section, a more skilled person, usually referring to the teacher or the advanced learner, adjusts the amount of guidance to fit the learners' current situations and performances. When the task the learner is learning is new, the teacher may use direct instruction; while the learners have learned a certain amount of knowledge and their competence also increases, the teacher would provide less guidance.

Developmental psychologists Grindstaff and Richmond (2008) have ever emphasized that an important tool for education is the cognitive apprenticeship, a technique in which an expert, namely the teacher, stretches and supports a novice's, namely the learners, understanding and use of a culture's comprehensive skills. The cognitive apprenticeship is important in classroom teaching because learners' learning benefits from teachers who think of their relationship with a student as a cognitive apprenticeship, using scaffolding and guided participation to help the learners learn as much as possible (Grindstaff & Richmond, 2008).

Tutoring is a fundamentally cognitive apprenticeship between an expert and a novice, which is usually utilized between an adult and a kid or between a more skilled person and a less skilled one (Santrock, 2011). In reality, individual tutoring is pretty an effective way that benefits many learners, especially those who are not doing well enough in their learning of a subject or a course (Karsenty, 2010; Slavin, Madden, Chambers, & Haxby, 2009).

Collaborative learning happens when learners work in small groups to help each other learn in a classroom setting, which has been widely used in recent years to enhance learners' learning and skills (Thurston et al., 2010). Collaborative learning groups vary in size, but generally, four is a typical number for a group building reference (Yan & Horwitz, 2008); in some cases, collaborative learning happens in just two learners. In a collaborative learning group, each learner generally learns as a certain part or unit of knowledge and skills and then teaches that part or unit to the group (Keramati, 2010).

### C. PAD Teaching Methodology

There have been many classroom problems in Chinese colleges and universities in recent years. It is not uncommon

for college students to skip lectures and classes. While at the same time, college teachers generally have heavy teaching burdens and great psychological pressure (Kay & Dudley, 1998). Besides, under the impact of the Internet and new media, traditional lecture-based classrooms are even more boring, and there are constant calls for classroom reform. Professor Zhang Xuexin (2018) combines the advantages of lecture-based classrooms and discussion-based classrooms and puts forward a new idea called "PAD classroom", creatively reforming the Chinese traditional classroom teaching mode.

Similar to traditional classrooms, the PAD teaching methodology emphasizes teaching first and then learning, which saves efforts for students' assimilation (Zhang, 2015). Similar to a discussion-based classroom, the PAD teaching methodology emphasizes student to student interaction, requiring them to discuss and study independently, reducing the burden on teachers. All in all, there are mainly three sections within the PAD teaching model, including section of presentation, section of assimilation and section of discussion.

#### 1. Presentation

Presentation is mainly completed by teachers. Teachers will explain the themes, content, background and writing skills of each unit, mainly explaining the key points and difficulties of teaching materials and students' learning materials. Students are required to pay attention to listening and understanding, and they are also required to write down the key points and difficulties during their understanding.

Based on the fact that the students may know very little about the PAD teaching methodology, the teacher in the first lesson of the first week is strongly suggested to explain to the students about the concepts and practical methods of the PAD teaching methodology, and then in the second lesson the teacher introduces the key and difficult points of the unit and arranges homework for the students.

#### 2. Assimilation

Assimilation mainly refers to students' internalized absorption, and it is completed in one week after class. Within one week, students have to study independently, understand the content explained by the teacher in class and summarize the related content, encourage themselves to write unique analysis and to think and experience based on their further understanding.

Students also have to complete personal homework, solve after-class exercises by themselves. They are required to write the materials designated by the teacher, retell and summarize the article, and put forward their own opinions before the first lesson of next week starts.

#### 3. Discussion

Discussion mainly refers to group discussion, which takes place in the classroom. Students are acting as the main actors while teachers' role is like guidance, their participation as a supplement. Generally, students can have groups of four, and they are required to use English throughout the whole process.

The discussion is divided into three sessions. In the first session, each group member is required to list at least two points that they think are wonderful to share with their group members; there is no limit to more. In the second session, each group member is required to pick out at least two points that they understand well and can be used to test their group members; there is also no limit to more. In the third session, each group member has to list at least two points that they cannot understand and ask for help from their group members.

At the end of the discussion, the teacher praises the wonderful part of the discussion, gives guidance and suggestions on the shortcomings, and makes comprehensive summaries.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Research Problem

As a qualitative study, this research paper intends to have a detailed understanding of PAD teaching methodology employed in a modern Chinese college course, as is mentioned at the beginning of the paper, from the perspective of the Grounded Theory. Based on what has been introduced and analyzed in literature review, this research makes efforts to answer such a question that how PAD teaching methodology is applied in modern Chinese *College English Writing* class as well as how it helps Chinese college students learn in their *College English Writing* class.

Therefore, the research problem of the research paper is as follows: how is PAD teaching methodology applied in modern Chinese *College English Writing* class how does it help Chinese college students learn in their *College English Writing* class?

#### B. Research Participants

The author of this research has selected a total number of eighty-eight modern Chinese college students with half of them are female and another half are male from a medical university in China as the research participants. Among the selected Chinese college students, they come from the same medical university, but they have different educational backgrounds. Their current majors are different, and the language learning environments they are exposed to are also different from each other before they enter the university. Selecting college students based on such criteria is more conducive to the research in terms of the reliability and validity of this research topic.

#### C. Research Site

The author has chosen a medical university from Guangxi Province, China as the research site. In the process of conducting the research, in order to collect relevant data more directly and objectively, the research was carried out at the same research site from the beginning to the end. This is also aimed at providing a more convenient and objective environment for data research as well as data analysis in the later stage of the research.

#### D. Research Methods

Qualitative methods are employed to carry out this research. To specify, two analytical methods including the method of literature synthesis and the method of comparative analysis are introduced as follows.

##### 1. Method of Literature Synthesis

The literature synthesis method is the most basic method used in this research. The author has read extensively domestic and foreign books and papers on the Grounded Theory and the PAD teaching methodology, especially those of Professor Zhang Xuexin's methodological thoughts in modern Chinese language classroom teaching. This will make the research as theoretical and original as possible.

At the same time, the author reads and analyzes through a qualitative means in order to analyze the related Grounded Theory and the teaching concepts of PAD teaching methodology more realistically and rationally, and extract the view that the Grounded Theory and PAD teaching methodology are closely integrated to a certain extent. By synthesizing a large number of relevant documents and data, the author strives to demonstrate that the analysis processes and conclusions are comprehensive and objective enough.

##### 2. Method of Comparative Analysis

The comparative analysis method is also adopted for the research. On the one hand, this method can comprehensively sort out some necessary thoughts of the Grounded Theory and unify these scattered thoughts into a systematic and complete theory. The related theories of instructional studies are compared with the related theories of Professor Zhang Xuexin, so as to have a deeper understanding of the progresses of PAD teaching methodology.

The use of comparative analysis methods is more conducive for the author of this paper to accurately analyze the application of PAD teaching methodology in modern Chinese college students' language learning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, and to locate the role of PAD teaching methodology in their *College English Writing* class.

Besides, this paper also draws on relevant content from other disciplines such as philosophy and sociology, and adopts interdisciplinary research methods, which will definitely help to fully understand the relationship between the Grounded Theory and PAD teaching methodology in modern Chinese college students' foreign language learning.

Undoubtedly, the analytical methods mentioned above will lay a solid theoretical and methodological foundation for the research and writing of this paper. It will also provide a necessary and important premise for the writing of the findings which will be shown in the following section.

## IV. FINDINGS

### A. *College English Writing Class for Modern Chinese College Students*

Analyses and summaries of relevant literatures of this research paper clearly show that the course of *College English Writing* occupies a certain position among the courses taken by modern Chinese college students. The *College English Writing* course aims to train, cultivate and improve the English writing ability of modern Chinese college students. At the same time, this course also tries to eliminate college students' fear of writing in English language, so that they will understand how to find opinions, how to organize opinions, and how to make sentences. In the end, through this important course of *College English Writing*, modern Chinese college students will be able to successfully write compositions with clear thinking, rigorous argumentations, and accurate languages.

As the core part of the *College English Writing* course, its main content mainly includes helping college students express clear and strict thinking in the form of "arguments + evidences" during their writing.

In general, the focus of the *College English Writing* class is to firstly introduce the requirements of paragraph arguments writing. Secondly, it will introduce consistency and coherence and transition of different writing paragraphs. Then, in the implementation process of *College English Writing*, the skills of word selection and sentence formation will be treated as the key objects of the course. Finally, through the previous relevant knowledge learned, modern Chinese college students will be able to rationally conceive an English writing framework, modify an English writing idea, and finally create high-quality English writing results.

### B. *PAD Teaching Methodology in Modern Chinese College English Writing Class*

Based on the reviews and analyses of the related literature, it is clearly shown that PAD teaching methodology can free modern Chinese college students from rote memorization and reduce test pressure, as well as make the classroom atmosphere freer and livelier (Seow, 2002). The PAD teaching methodology can fully mobilize the enthusiasm of both college teachers and college students, significantly reduce the classroom teaching burden on college teachers, and highly achieve good teaching qualities for college teachers.

*College English Writing* is one of the compulsory courses for modern Chinese college students in China. Its teaching purpose is to cultivate modern college students' English writing comprehension ability and logical thinking ability. One of the important tasks of this course is to guide college students to master various writing methods and improve the

accuracy of understanding and the speed of writing in the exam of National College English Test Band 4 and 6 (CET 4 & 6). Based on the fact that modern college students already have a foundation in English, there are three processes in the application of PAD teaching methodology in the course of *College English Writing*.

#### 1. Presentation: Listen and Take Notes

Presentation is mainly completed by college teachers. Teachers will explain the themes, content, background and writing skills of each writing unit, mainly explaining the key points and difficulties of writing materials and students' learning materials. Students are required to pay attention to listening and understanding, and they are also required to write down the key points and difficulties of the writing materials during their understanding.

Based on the fact that the students may know very little about the PAD teaching methodology, the teacher in the first lesson of the first week is strongly suggested to explain to the students about the concepts and practical methods of the PAD teaching methodology, and then in the second lesson the teacher introduces the key and difficult points of the writing unit and arranges writing homework for the college students.

#### 2. Assimilation: Think and Write

Assimilation mainly refers to college students' internalized absorption, and it is completed in one week after class. Within one week, students have to study independently, understand the writing content explained by the teacher in writing class and summarize the related content, encourage themselves to write unique analysis and to think and experience based on their further understanding of the writing materials. Students also have to complete personal homework, solve after-class writing exercises by themselves. They are required to write the materials designated by the teacher, retell and summarize the article, and put forward their own opinions through writing before the first lesson of next week starts.

#### 3. Discussion: Speak and Test

Discussion mainly refers to group discussion of their writing tasks, which takes place in the classroom. Students are acting as the main actors while teachers' role is like guidance, their participation as a supplement.

Generally, students can have groups of four, and they are required to use English throughout the whole process. The discussion is divided into three sessions. In the first session, each group member is required to list at least two points that they think are wonderful in their learning of writing to share with their group members; there is no limit to more. In the second session, each group member is required to pick out at least two points that they understand well in their writing learning and can be used to test their group members; there is also no limit to more. In the third session, each group member has to list at least two writing points that they cannot understand and ask for help from their group members. At the end of the discussion, the teacher praises the wonderful part of the discussion of writing, gives guidance and suggestions on the shortcomings, and makes comprehensive summaries in terms of the writing materials.

### V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In general, attempts of PAD teaching methodology in *College English Writing* class divide the whole writing class into two sections, which is not necessarily an absolute division. Based on the concepts of the Grounded Theory as well as the social constructivist theory, in the application of PAD teaching methodology, modern Chinese college students are the main body while the teacher is playing the role of a leader.

The purpose of PAD teaching methodology in the *College English Writing* class is to fully experience modern Chinese college students' role in the learning process and to improve their own learning autonomy and enthusiasm, which meets the initial needs of the social constructivist theory. Attempts of PAD teaching methodology act as an upsurge of classroom reform suitable for modern Chinese college teaching after the flipped classroom.

Therefore, the PAD teaching methodology in *College English Writing* class will definitely further help modern Chinese college students continuously improve their comprehensive ability in college English writing, so as to better prepare for the National College English Test Band 4 and 6 (CET 4 & 6) and to achieve satisfactory results.

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### DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS

The author of this research paper declares no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, the authorship, and/or the publication of this research paper.

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**Huanan Su**, male, born on 1987-08-03, from Puning City, Guangdong Province, China, is the author of this research paper. Su has earned his master's degree in English Language Teaching Methodology from Henan University, Henan Province, China in 2014. At present, Su is a Ph.D. student taking English Language Studies (ELS) in College of Arts and Sciences, University of the Cordilleras, Baguio City, Philippines.

Huanan Su is also a Chinese university lecturer mainly responsible for teaching subject of *College English* for Chinese university students. Besides, he also teaches subjects such as *College English Writing*, *Vocational College English*, *Comprehensive Medical English (ESP)*, *Postgraduate English Course*, etc. Su's academic research area is English Language Teaching (ELT); specifically he is interested in Teaching of English as a Foreign/Second Language (TEFL/TESL).



# Jordanian Wedding Invitation Genre During the Covid-19 Pandemic

Ahmad I. Tawalbeh

Department of English Language and Literature, Irbid National University, Irbid, Jordan

**Abstract**—This study examines the generic components of Arabic wedding invitation cards issued during the Covid-19 period in Jordanian society. It aims to find out the role played by the Covid-19 pandemic in shaping the rhetorical structure (moves and steps) of these cards. The sample consists of 100 electronic wedding cards which were analyzed using top-down (genre analysis approach) and bottom-up processing. The analysis shows that there are nine component moves realized by certain steps, shaping the invitation genre. It is found that this genre is subject to change which essentially affects its common main communicative purpose, viz. to invite people to celebrate the wedding in a place. It is hoped that the results of this study may confirm previous literature about the effects of the surrounding context on shaping a genre, help familiarize those interested in knowing about this Arabic genre and offer insights for those interested in conducting cross-cultural contrast.

**Index Terms**—Arabic wedding invitation, Covid-19, genre analysis, moves, rhetorical structure

## I. INTRODUCTION

The wedding invitation card can be defined as a social practice in which inviters kindly inform and request the presence of invitees. This definition includes two important communicative purposes which would realize the invitation genre. The first is to inform invitees and potentially announce to public that a wedding will be held. The second is to gather invitees in a specific place to celebrate the marriage (Johns, 1997). This matches with the concept of invitation as a social event wherein people are kindly requested to attend a gathering (Al-Ali, 2006). Therefore, this type of genre can go under the umbrella of what Miller (1984) calls 'homely discourse', as it is an instance of everyday language like birth and obituary announcements.

In addition to the communicative purpose, wedding invitation cards may include conventionalized content and form that can help the audience easily identify this type of genre (Johns, 1997). The elements of the invitation, according to Johns, are represented in a conventional phrasal form appearing in separate lines. The content of such cards may present the name of the genre, the name of the bride and groom and the place and time of the wedding.

Jordanian wedding invitation cards have been studied by a number of researchers (Al-Ali, 2006; Momani and Al-Refaei, 2010; Sawalmeh, 2015, 2018). They analyzed the generic components of these cards giving special attention to the role of socio-cultural factors in shaping this genre (see section II). However, there has not been any published research, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, which dealt with the rhetorical structure of the Jordanian written wedding invitations issued during the Covid-19 pandemic. As the above researchers found that the socio-cultural aspects are reflected in this genre, it is possible to expect that the new emerging context of Covid-19 has influenced this genre or the articulation of its communicative purpose. It would be interesting to study this potential influence and find out how this genre has changed, if it does, as genres may develop over time (Swales and Najjar, 1987).

The first wave of Covid-19 in Jordan began in a city in the north of Jordan in March 2020. The initial cause of the virus spread was due to a wedding ceremony. This urged the government to apply strict civic restrictions and ban any gathering that increases the spread of the virus. All places, such as halls and hotels, where wedding celebrations are usually held, have been closed since the beginning of the pandemic. Only the bride and the groom and a few members of their families can take part in the wedding ceremony. These changes affecting all aspects of the wedding ceremony may be significantly reflected in the wedding cards. Therefore, this research is important as it aims to find out if these changes have affected the generic components of the invitation cards.

This study is also important for those interested in becoming familiar with such common social practice in Jordan as the wedding, occurring during the Covid-19 pandemic. It would familiarize them with the generic components and structure of the wedding invitation cards issued during this pandemic and thus may help them understand the nature of these cards in Arabic. This would teach student writers an example of how "genres are socially real" (Johns, 1997). Therefore, the invitation genre would introduce students to the concept of genre in general and may help them in their study of some other types of genres like the academic.

The components of the invitation cards will be explored based on the communicative purpose identified therein. Biber (1988), Swales (1990) and Bhatia (2013) maintain that the communicative purpose is important to identify a genre. Following Swales, this research uses the terms 'moves' and 'steps' to refer to the components of the invitation genre. A 'move', according to Tawalbeh (2019, p. 26), is "part of a text which consists of categories having specific purposes and is realised by some linguistic choices". This part of text carries a communicative function and can be

divided into smaller elements called 'steps'.

#### *Aim and Objectives of the Study*

This study aims at investigating a potential change in the Jordanian wedding invitation genre issued during the Covid-19 pandemic. This is to be achieved by realizing the following objectives: 1. analyzing the rhetorical structure (moves and steps) of the invitation genre; 2. identifying the linguistic exponents realizing these moves and steps; 3. identifying the non-linguistic features; and 4. describing the moves sequence.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Genre analysis, as conducted by Swales (1990, 2004) and Bhatia (2013), relies on the communicative purpose to identify a genre and on the minor functions, which participate in shaping the whole communicative purpose and to identify the component moves and steps of that genre. Swales has offered a significant contribution to the generic analysis of academic texts as he analyzed the introduction section of research articles using move/step analysis approach. Similarly, Bhatia used this approach in his analysis of research articles abstracts. Swales and Bhatia's work represents remarkable examples of using move analysis approach in academic discourse and offers the possibility of extending the applicability of this approach in the genre analysis domain. For example, some researchers have extended this approach to other sections of research articles, such as the results section (Brett, 1994), the discussion section (Holmes, 1997) and the methodology (Tawalbeh, 2019). Some other researchers have also applied move analysis to other non-academic genres, such as the wedding invitation genre (Al-Ali, 2006; Momani and Al-Refaei, 2010; Sharif and Yarmohammadi, 2013; Sawalmeh, 2015).

Sharif and Yarmohammadi (2013) used Swales' genre analysis model to analyze 70 Persian wedding invitations. They found that these invitations are realized by seven moves, namely "Opening", "Identifying the bride and the groom by first name", "Announcing the couple's marriage", "Requesting the participation of the recipients", "Identifying the bride and the groom by last name", "Situating the wedding ceremony" and "Other optional components". Sharif and Yarmohammadi reported that the organization of this genre is influenced by the socio-cultural conventions of that society and ascribed the most influential role to religion.

In the Jordanian context, Al-Ali (2006) analyzed 200 Arabic wedding invitations to investigate the role of socio-cultural context in shaping this genre. Similar to Sharif and Yarmohammadi, Al-Ali reported that religious affiliations and masculine authority affect the construction of the invitations and the lexical items employed therein. The moves which construct this genre in Al-Ali's study are similar to those in Sharif and Yarmohammadi's, namely: "1. Opening 2. Heading 3. Identifying the inviters 4. Requesting the presence of others 5. Identifying the bride and groom 6. Situating the wedding ceremony 7. Closing 8. Other optional components" (Al-Ali 2006, p. 699). Both Al-Ali and Sharif and Yarmohammadi's studies show that this invitation genre is not isolated from the context in which it occurs and thus they motivate studying this genre within the new context of Covid-19.

The moves mentioned above also appeared in Momani and Al-Refaei (2010) and Sawalmeh's (2015) studies of Jordanian wedding invitations. The differences between these two studies and Al-Ali's are only in using different labels for naming some of the moves which carry the same function. Move 2, 'Heading', move 6, 'Situating the wedding ceremony' and move 8, 'Other optional components' in Al-Ali's study are named as 'identifying the celebrating families', 'ceremony arrangements' and 'Notification', respectively, in Momani and Al-Refaei (2010) and Sawalmeh's (2015) study. The similarities found in all the studies above raise a question whether the wedding invitations issued during Covid-19 still carry the same communicative purpose and functions, or not. Therefore, this study attempts to fill the lacuna in literature by investigating the rhetorical structure of the Jordanian wedding invitations which have been issued during the Covid-19 pandemic.

## III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

### *A. Socio-cultural Aspect of the Jordanian Society*

Understanding the socio-cultural context in which Jordanian wedding invitations occur would help gain an understanding of the rhetorical features of the invitation genre in question. This is because: 1. the selection of rhetorical features relies on the culture (Bhatia, 2014); 2. considering the native context of wedding invitations, in terms of the social conventions that give rise to occasions like weddings, would help understand the characteristics of such a genre (Momani and Al-Refaei, 2010); and 3. a genre can be influenced and defined by the social context in which it occurs (Kress and Knapp, 1992). Therefore, this section sheds some light on wedding ceremonies in Jordanian society.

Wedding ceremonies in Jordan usually take place in two phases. The first is engagement (the *khutbah*) wherein requesting the hand of the bride occurs. This event is run by *Jaha* which is a group of the groom's relatives and friends that head to the bride's house where they are received by a similar group. If the proposal is accepted, the groom and the bride sign *'aqid qaran* (marriage contract) after which the groom places a ring on the bride's finger. This is usually followed by a small party in the bride's house or in a hall. The second phase is the wedding ceremony *zafaaf* that is arranged by the groom, the bride and their families. The arrangements include deciding on the time and place of the wedding, and who the invitees are. The groom and bride visit an invitation cards shop to select the design of the cards which are then sent to their relatives, friends and neighbors. Wedding ceremonies in Jordan may begin with one- or

two-night's celebrations where men and women sing, dance and stamp their feet separately till midnight. Guests are sometimes invited to a wedding feast served by the groom's family who slaughters goats and sheep and cook the traditional dish '*mansaf*'. After that, invitees gather in a wedding hall or a hotel to celebrate the wedding occasion. Nowadays, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, weddings halls have been closed and any gathering which includes more than 20 people has been forbidden.

### B. Genre Analysis

The concept of genre analysis is essential to this research as it is used to interpret and identify the organizational structure of the wedding invitations. The genre analysis conducted in this research follows the approach of English for specific purposes (ESP). Bruce (2008) states that the ESP framework examines the organizational features of a text and their linguistic exponents. The seminal work in genre analysis within this framework was initiated by Swales (1981), as mentioned above in section II. Swales (1990, p.48) states that genre

*comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse.*

Swales shows the importance of the communicative purpose in identifying the discourse units (moves and steps) of a genre, which in their turn shape the schematic structure of discourse. This structure, for Swales, is a result of conventions shared by a specific discourse community. The wedding invitations tackled in this study communicate the social event of invitation and cannot be composed without considering the social context including the surrounding circumstances wherein these invitations occur. The invitation genre can be considered a social genre which is, according to Bruce (2008, p.8) "socially recognized constructs according to which whole texts are classified in terms of their overall social purpose'. Bhatia (2002) also confirms the idea that genres are conventionalized constructs used to achieve the purpose of a specific discourse community. For him, genre analysis means

*investigating instances of conventionalised or institutionalised textual artefacts in the context of specific institutional and disciplinary practices, procedures and cultures in order to understand how members of specific discourse communities construct, interpret and use these genres to achieve their community goals and why they write them the way they do. (Bhatia 2002, p. 6)*

## IV. DATA AND PROCEDURES

The data for this study consists of 100 Jordanian written wedding invitation cards issued during the Covid-19 pandemic, from the end of April 2020 till March 2021. These cards were collected electronically using social media, Facebook and WhatsApp. The moves and steps in these cards were identified and some examples with their translations were given to show how these moves and steps are realized. The lexical items that exemplify a move or a step are put in italics.

### A. Procedures of Analysis

This study used both top-down and bottom-up processing for a deep and comprehensive analysis of the data (see Tawalbeh 2019, for the usefulness of employing both top-down and bottom-up). The invitation cards were analyzed in terms of moves and steps using Swales' (1990) move analysis approach. This approach works as a top-down processing method and relies on breaking the higher elements of the text into smaller ones. It also requires understanding the communicative purpose of the whole text and the particular function of text segments to help identify the moves and steps. To do so, it is helpful to build some expectations about what the text may contain. Therefore, Sawalmeh's (2015) outline (see below) was used as an analytical framework in this study. His outline contains detailed elements of Jordanian wedding invitation cards and covers those found in the previous studies conducted on Jordanian wedding invitations by Al-Ali (2006) and Momani and Refai (2010). His outline would be helpful to show the constituting elements shaping this genre before Covid-19. It helps the researcher to compare it with the present sample and find out whether this genre has changed or not.

### B. Analytical Framework

The framework used in analyzing the current data is Sawalmeh's (2015). He conducted his analysis on 500 Jordanian wedding invitations and found the following constituting elements:

1. Opening
2. Identifying the celebrating families
3. Identifying the inviters of the wedding
4. Requesting the presence of the guests
5. Identifying the bride and groom
6. Stating wedding ceremony arrangements
7. Deferential ending
8. Notifications

By applying top-down processing in a preliminary analysis, the researcher assigned a move from Sawalmeh's outline

to the segments of the current text. These segments were identified according to the communicative function they carry. It was found that a few elements from the present sample do not have their equivalent in Sawalmeh's outline; therefore, the researcher conducted a bottom-up analysis. The use of bottom-up processing helped the researcher conduct fine-grained analysis and discover new features that are not part of Sawalmeh's predefined components. The researcher used this processing to follow organized steps to form a detailed outline of the data. This process began with analyzing the linguistic items at the bottom level. This microstructure analysis includes investigating the lexical items, types of phrases and tenses employed to realize a step. In a higher level, a group of steps were then classified under a move type according to the function they perform. The result is adding new elements to Sawalmeh's outline and composing an outline for the moves and their steps in the top level of bottom-up processing, as seen in the results section.

The quantitative aspect of this study includes recording the occurrence frequency of moves to help show the status of each move. This aspect would help indicate which moves can be considered obligatory to realize the invitation genre. Kanoksilapatham (2005) demonstrates that a move can be considered either conventional or optional according to its frequency. For Kanoksilapatham, if a move occurs in more than 60% of the data, it is considered conventional, while an occurrence that is less than 60% would indicate that a move is optional. This cut-off percent would help the researcher build assumptions about the status of the moves realizing the invitation genre.

## V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis shows that the genre of wedding invitation cards has been influenced by the Covid-19 pandemic. Although the moves and steps found in the present sample are similar to those in Sawalmeh's (2015) outline, a few new moves and steps have appeared and apparently changed the whole communicative purpose of this genre. The moves with their constituent steps are presented in table 1 below wherein the new elements are highlighted. The differences between the components found in the present data and those in Sawalmeh's are discussed below, as they reveal the changes affecting this genre.

TABLE 1  
THE MOVES AND STEPS OF THE WEDDING CARDS

Moves	steps
1. Heading	
2. Opening	1. Qur'anic verse 2. prophetic invocations 3. poetic verse
3. Identifying the celebrating families	
4. Identifying the inviters of the wedding	
5. Announcing marriage and requesting distant participation	1. invitation for distant participation 2. seeking invitees' invocations 3. announcing marriage 4. justifying distant participation 5. identifying the channel of participation
6. Identifying the bride and the groom	
7. Stating wedding ceremony arrangements	1. day and date of the wedding 2. ceremony arrangements
8. Deferential ending	1. making wishes and invocations
9. Notifications	1. name of publishing company or the designer

The following is a sample of a wedding card from my data. It is followed by another figure which gives the English translation and transliteration of this card and shows the constituting moves that appear in this card.



Figure 1. A sample of a Jordanian wedding card

wamin ʔa:ya:tihi ʔan khalaqa lakum min ʔanfusikum ʔazwa:jan litaskunu ʔilayha: wajaʔala baynakum mawadatan warahmah		
(move 2: opening)		
“And among His Signs is this, that he created for you mates from among yourselves, that ye may dwell in tranquility with them. And He has put love and mercy between your (hearts)”		
yatasharaf is honored		
ʔassayed X		ʔassayed Y
Mr. name of the bride’s guardian	(move 4: identifying the inviters)	Mr. name of the groom’s guardian
bidaʔwatikum bilʔiltiza:mi fi buyu:tikum fi THili ʔazmati ku:ru:na: waduʔa:ʔi lilʔaru:sayn bitawfi:qi walbarakati wayatasharafa:n biʔishha:ri hafli zafa:fi ʔabna:ʔihim		
(move 5: announcing marriage and requesting distant participation)		
to invite you to abide in your homes in the light of the corona pandemic and pray for the groom and the bride for success and blessing. They are honored to announce the wedding of their children		
name of the bride	(move 6: identifying the bride and the groom)	name of the groom
wadhalika yawma lʔarbiʔa:ʔ lmuwa:fiqi 8/7/2020		
(move 7: stating wedding ceremony arrangements)		
And that will be on Wednesday 8/7/2020.		
wada:mat lʔafra:hu hali:fata diya:rikum lʔa:mirati		
(move 8: deferential ending)		
May joys always last and surround your prosperous homes.		

Figure 2. English translation and transliteration of the above wedding card

### Move 1: Heading

This move occurs in only 18% of the data and it appears either before or instead of the ‘opening’ move in the current sample. The function of the ‘heading’ move is to identify the name of the genre. This move appears in Al-Ali’s (2006) study, but it performs another different function, which is to identify the names of the groom and bride’s tribes. In this study, the ‘heading’ move gives the genre name, which can help understand what the text is about. It is realized using a nominal sentence in which the subject and the predicate are nouns or pronouns, as seen in the following example:

‘اشهار زواج’

1. ʔishha:ru zawa:jin.

1. Announcing marriage.

The subject (*mubtadʔ*) of this nominal sentence is absent (may be considered here *hadha*: : this) and the predicate (*khabar*) is *ʔishha:ru* (announcing). *Zawa:jin*: (marriage) is an annex. The function of the predicate in Arabic is to give information that completes the meaning of the whole sentence. In this example, the predicate informs the readers that the sentence is about an announcement. Therefore, this heading may indicate that the text in question aims to announce the marriage and that request of people’s attendance is not included. A reader would expect that the heading of an

invitation card includes something about an invitation, such as *daʿwatu zafa:fin*: (wedding invitation). Swales (1990) and Johns (1997) assert that the name of genre can identify the text and its purpose. Therefore, it can be said that the genre dealt with in the current study is wedding/marriage announcement cards (see move 5 for further discussion on the purpose of this genre).

#### Move 2: Opening

This move occurs in 73% of the invitations and it introduces the genre with Qur'anic verses, prophetic invocations and poetic verses aiming at promoting marriage. Almost all of the openings are either Qur'anic verses or prophetic invocations, while poetic verses appear in few openings. Openings with Qur'anic verses or prophetic invocations may reflect the couple's desire to have a blessed marriage and show the inviters' Islamic beliefs. For Muslims, starting an event with a Qur'anic verse is believed to be a blessing for that event. The Qur'anic verse that most inviters use is:

(ومن آياته أن خلق لكم من أنفسكم أزواجا لتسكنوا إليها وجعل بينكم مودة ورحمة إن في ذلك لآيات لقوم يتفكرون)

2- And among His Signs is this, that He created for you mates from among yourselves, that ye may dwell in tranquility with them. And He has put love and mercy between your (hearts): verily in that are signs for those who reflect.

Prophetic invocations aim to ask God's blessing that overwhelms the couples. Such invocations are derived from Prophet's Mohammad Sayings in congratulating men's marriage. The invocation that is shared in all of the cards, where the 'opening' move appears, is:

'اللهم بارك لهما وبارك عليهما واجمع بينهما في خير'

3- May God grant blessings to them and bind them with harmony and goodness.

The last variety used to realize the 'opening' move is poetic verses that would express the couple's feelings and emotions about marriage. An example of this is:

'سبحان من جمع القلوب بفضله وعلى رحاب الود عمر دارها'

4- Praise be to God whose generosity joined the hearts and Who established homes full of fondness.

#### Move 3: Identifying the celebrating families

The function of this move is to present the names of the families celebrating the wedding. The couple's families play an important role in the wedding ceremonies as the groom's family meet the bride's family to request the bride's hand (see section III. A.). Therefore, presenting the families' names in the wedding cards can reveal that marriage does not only unite the groom and the bride, but also connect their families. This move has low occurrence frequency (23%) suggesting that its occurrence is not mandatory to realize the invitation genre. The invitation cards use the noun *ʔfra:h* (weddings) followed by the names of the tribes, to which the groom and bride belong, as seen in the example below.

أفراح آل عبيدات وآل حداد

5- *ʔfra:h* a:l ʿbyda:t wa a:l ḥada:d

5- Weddings of the tribes of Aal Obeidat and Aal Hadad.

#### Move 4: Identifying the inviters of the wedding

All of the invitation cards include this move which has the communicative function of giving the names of the inviters for the wedding ceremony. The inviters are usually the fathers of the groom and the bride's (Al-Ali, 2006; Sawalmeh, 2015). Sawalmeh added that the cards are issued by another male from the groom or the bride's family, if either of their fathers is dead. This is true in the present sample. However, it is found that the inviters in a few wedding cards are the groom and the bride themselves. In addition, it seems that the inviters' main role has been changed from inviting people to attend the wedding ceremony physically to just announcing the marriage and inviting guests for remote participation. Such changes occurring in move 4 are likely because there is no longer an invitation statement that requests people's attendance, which cancels the main communicative purpose of wedding invitations (for supporting evidence and examples, see move 5).

#### Move 5: Announcing marriage and requesting distant participation

This move occurs in all of the study sample and it replaces move 4, 'requesting the presence of the guests' in Sawalmeh's outline. The main communicative purpose of wedding invitation cards is to invite guests to celebrate the wedding in such places as halls, hotels and the groom's house. Al-Ali (2006) asserts that the move, 'requesting the honour of participants' is an important one in the invitation genre as it enables the inviters to kindly request the invitees' participation. Therefore, it can be said that this move is essential because it serves the main purpose of these cards. However, this move is not found to occur in the present sample, as people cannot invite others to public gatherings due to restrictions imposed by the Jordanian government during the Covid-19 pandemic. These restrictions prevent such gatherings to stop the virus spreading, to keep the people safe and healthy. Instead, the wedding cards analyzed in this study employ move 5, 'announcing marriage and requesting distant participation' which has the function of informing people of marriage and request their participation without attending at one particular place. The following is a typical example of this move:

'يدعوانكم لمشاركتكما الفرحة من منازلكم والدعاء للعروسين بالتوفيق بمناسبة زفافهما في ظل أزمة كورونا'

6. yadʿuwa:nakum limusha:rakatihima: lfarḥata min mana:zilikum waduʿa:ʔa lilʿaru:sayn bitawfi:qi bimuna:sabati zafa:fiḥima: fi THili ʔazmati ku:ru:na:.

6. They invite you to share the joy from your homes [distant participation] and pray for the groom and the bride for success [seeking invitation] on the occasion of their wedding [announcing marriage] in the light of corona

*pandemic* [justifying distant participation]. (my italics).

The first step within this move, 'invitation for distant participation' requests the invitees' participation from homes. It employs simple present tense in a verbalized phrasal verb in an active form, such as *yad<sup>u</sup>wa:nakum limusha:rakatihima* (invite you to participate), or *yatasharafa:n bida<sup>u</sup>watikum* (are honored to invite you). Considering that Covid-19 has caused the Jordanian government to issue some safety rules, this step may indicate that the inviters adhere to the governmental policies, which ban people's close contact, as they invite people to stay at home. The lexical choice in many other cards show stronger reflection of the inviters' adherence to these policies, using the noun *ʔalʔiltiza:m* (abidance), as seen below:

يدعونكم الالتزام بمنزلكم

7. *yad<sup>u</sup>wa:nakum ʔiltiza:ma bimana:zilikum*.

7. They invite you to abide in your homes.

Example 6 above reveals that the invitation for participation in the wedding includes asking the invitees to pray for the groom and bride. This realizes the second step within move 5, namely, 'seeking invitees' invocation'. This step can be a complement to step 1, as it shows how remote participation can be realized, considering that the invitees' prayer is part of their participation in the wedding. This step is realized by a coordinating conjunction *wa* (and) and a conjoined noun *waldu<sup>a</sup>:ʔ* (invocation).

The third step, 'announcing marriage' has the function of informing people of the marriage. This is an important condition for realizing the marriage in Islam. In example 6 above, this step is realized using the prepositional phrase *bimuna:sabati zafa:fihi* (on the occasion of their wedding). In some other cards, inviters use verbalized phrasal verb in an active form of an explicit statement to announce marriage, such as *yu<sup>l</sup>ina:n zafa:f* (announce wedding). A typical example of this is:

يتشرفان بإشهار زواج ولديهما

8. *yatasharafa:n biʔishha:ri zawa:ji waladayhima*:

8. They are honored to announce their children's marriage [announcing marriage]. (my italics)

The fourth step within move 5 is 'justifying distant participation'. Distant participation has been justified by the unusual circumstances caused by Covid-19, as seen at the end of example 6 above. This step is realized using the prepositional phrase *fi THli ʔzmati ku:runa* (corona pandemic). This kind of justification may show that the inviters are keen to take their invitees' health into consideration.

The last step, 'identifying the channel of participation' presents the means of participation in the wedding. The way invitees can participate in wedding has been limited to mobiles and social media. This step is realized by simple present tense in passive form, as seen below:

تقبل التهاني والمباركات على وسائل التواصل الاجتماعي والهواتف فقط

9. *tuqbalu taha:ni: walmuba:raka:tu ʔala: wasa:ʔili tawa:suli ʔijtima:ʕi: walhawa:tifi faqat*.

9. Congratulations and blessings are accepted on social media and phones only [channel of participation]. (my italics)

#### 6. Identifying the bride and the groom

This move introduces the names of the groom and bride in all of the invitation cards. As seen in figure 2 above, the groom's name is located on the right side while the bride's name is on the left. It was also noticed that some inviters add titles before the groom and/or the bride's names, which show their positions or academic degrees. However, in 27% of the data, only the groom's name is given, while the bride's name is substituted by honorific expressions like *karymatuh* (his honorable daughter) and *ʔami:ratuh* (his princess). Such practice would reflect a traditional tendency by some people in keeping the name of women hidden. The use of the attached pronoun *uh* (his) in *karymatuh* may also indicate that a bride belongs to her male guardian even after marriage (Al-Ali, 2006).

#### Move7: Stating wedding ceremony arrangements

This move occurs in all of the invitations. It has the function of identifying the time of the wedding ceremony and reporting some ceremony arrangements. Sawalmeh reported that this move has four components: 1. timing and duration; 2. day of wedding; 3. date of wedding; and 4. venue. None of these components, except for 'day and date of the wedding', has appeared in the present data. The day and date of a wedding are important for the purpose of announcing the marriage and people need to know when they can congratulate the groom and the bride. However, there is no need to inform the invitees of arrangements about the timing of wedding or its duration, as there is no place where people are invited to gather. This supports the absence of invitation from the data. The example below clarifies the steps of move 7:

‘وذلك بمشيئة الله يوم الخميس الموافق 16/7/2020 ويقتصر الحضور على أفراد العائلة المقربين وتقبل التهاني على مواقع التواصل الاجتماعي’.

10. *wadhalika bimashi:ʔati llah yawma lkhami:si lmuwa:fiqi 16/7/2020 wayuqtasaru lhudu:ru ʔala: ʔfra:di lʔa:ʔilati wa tuqbalu taha:ni: ʔala: mawa:qiʕi tawa:suli ʔijtima:ʕi:*

10. And that will be with God's willing on Thursday 16/7/2020 [day and date of wedding]. Attendance is limited to close family members [ceremony arrangements]. Congratulations are accepted on social media sites. (my italics).

This example, like many other instances from the data, realizes the step 'day and date of the wedding' using the formulaic phrase *bi-mashi:ʔati-allah* (if God permits) before the adverbs of time, without including any verb tense. The example replaces the usual mentioning of the 'venue' component by another step, namely, 'ceremony arrangements'. This new step mainly states that wedding ceremony is exclusive to family members and no party is taking place. It uses either simple present or future tenses (see example 11 below). The above example also shows that the 'venue'

component, where close contact occurs, is replaced by the step, 'identifying channel of participation'. The occurrence of this step here shows that it forms part of the wedding arrangements, as it informs the invitees that they cannot physically attend and encourages them to use means of social media to achieve distant participation. It may be said here that inviters want to display their adherence to governmental policies by forbidding gatherings and close contact in the wedding ceremony.

In a few cards, there is an explicit statement which justifies such wedding ceremony arrangements by admitting that the inviters care about their invitees' health, as in the example below. The accusative of purpose *maf'u:l li?ajlihi* (*hifaTHan*) is used to give the reason of such arrangements:

سيقتصر حفل الزواج على أسرة العروسين في المنزل حفاظا على سلامة الجميع

11. sayaqtasaru *haflu* zawa:ji 'ala: ?usrati l'aru:sayn *hifaTHan* 'ala: sala:mati ljami:'i.

11. The wedding ceremony will be limited to the groom and bride's family at home *for everyone's safety* [justifying arrangements]. (my italics)

#### Move 8: Deferential ending

The function of this move, according to Sawalmeh, is to close the invitation genre deferentially using either of the two components: 1. wishing happiness to invitees 2. requesting the honor of their attendance. This latter component does not exist in the present sample, as invitation of presence is no longer involved. This move is realized in 75% of the present data by the step, 'making wishes and invocations', as seen in the following examples:

دامت الأفراح حليفة دياركم العامرة

12. da:mat l?afra:hu *hali:fata* diya:rikum l'a:mirati.

12. May joys always last and surround your prosperous homes.

أبعد الله عنا وعنكم البلاء والوباء

13. ?ab'ada llahu 'anna: wa 'annakum lbala:?a wa lwaba:?a.

13. May God keep ordeal and epidemic away from all of us.

أبعد الله عنكم كورونا وأدام عافيتكم

14. ?ab'ada llahu 'annakum ku:ru:na: wa ?ada:ma 'afiyatakum.

14. May God keep Corona away from you and keep you well.

These Examples use simple past tense *da:mat* (lasted) and *?b'ada* (keep away), but they report actions that have not finished yet. The use of these verbs in this context has a rhetorical function of continuing and renewing, so that the actions have the status of simple present tense. Examples 13 and 14 represent the inviters' invocations for invitees, as a new type of closing, which does not appear in Sawalmeh's data. A similar closing to this appears in Al-Ali's (2006) study, wherein the inviters call upon God to bless the groom and bride. However, in this study, the invocation reflects the effect of Covid-19 on this move, as the inviters pray for the invitees to be safe and in good health.

#### Move 9: Notification

This move shows another evidence of changes affecting the invitation genre that would cause disappearance of the invitation mode. There are six components of this move, according to Sawalmeh, which do not occur in the current study sample except for the last one. These are: 1. notices about supplementary parties; 2. requesting not to bring children to the wedding ceremony; 3. timing of taking the bride from her house to the groom's; 4. requesting the invitees not to fire bullets; 5. requesting not to bring camera phones or cameras; and 6. name of the publishing company of the cards. Most of these components emerge as a response to the events that usually accompany the wedding ceremony, such as the men's evening party, the bride leaving her home with an escort and shooting bullets in the air. The declining of these events indicates that wedding celebrations are not taking place and therefore no invitation is included. The only shared step that appears in the wedding cards is the 'name of the publishing company/designer of the cards'. This step appears in only 10% of the wedding cards by mentioning the name of the publishing company or the designer at the bottom of the cards.

#### A. Moves Sequence

The moves realizing most of the invitation cards appear in the sequence presented in table (1). However, the varied location that move 5, 'announcing marriage and requesting distant participation' occupies causes irregularities in this sequence. It occurs in a few cards after move 7, 'stating wedding ceremony arrangements' or just before it in some other cards. This can be due to the similarity of function between 'requesting distant participation' and 'wedding ceremony arrangements'. It can be said that the inviters' request of remote participation is part of the wedding arrangements, as can be seen in example 10 under move 7. In this example, the inviters accept congratulations remotely on social media instead of gathering in a 'venue' which is a cancelled component of the 'wedding ceremony arrangements'. This shows why the channel of participation, which is part of move 5 as mentioned above, occurs also immediately after move 7.

The step 'seeking invitees' invocation' from move 5 also occupies another position which is before or after move 7. Moreover, it is found that this step is repeated after move 7, as seen in the examples below:

يدعوانكم الالتزام بمنزلكم والدعاء لولديهما بالتوفيق والسعادة والبركة

1. yad'uwa:nakum l?iltiza:ma bimana:zilikum wadu'a:?a liwaladayhima: bitawfi:qi wasa'a:dati walbarakati.

1. They invite you to abide in your homes and pray for their children for success, happiness and blessing.

وذلك بمشيئة الله يوم الخميس '...' يكفي دعائكم لنا بالتوفيق والسعادة



2. wadhalika bimashi:ʔati llah yawma lkhami:si '...' yakfi: duʔaʔakum lana: bitawfi:qi wasaʔa:dati.

2. And that will be with God's willing on Thursday '...' Your prayers of success and happiness satisfy us.

The first mention of invocation in example 1 is part of 'distant participation', which the inviters request. In example 2, the inviters seek again the invitees' invocation. However, it seems that the repetition here has a function, not a mere repetition of words. The inviters have not reported the place of the wedding in example 2. The text indicates that the inviters do not want the invitees to attend the ceremony due to the Covid-19 pandemic, but they probably still want to maintain warm relationship with the invitees by seeking their invocation in compensation for their attendance.

### B. Non-linguistic Features

Wedding invitation cards include some features that are not related to language and can easily distinguish them from other genres. The non-linguistic features that appear in Jordanian wedding cards are, as summarized by Sawalmeh (2015): colours, typography and images. Sawalmeh reported that his data include red, green, white and a combination of both white and black, as the most popular colours. About half of the cards he investigated, were a mix of white and black, as cards with these colours would be more affordable than other coloured cards. In the present study, it appears that the cards are highly decorated with many different colours. This can be due to the fact that the cards are electronic, so that the inviters, specifically with low budget, do not need to pay a lot for printing coloured cards.

As for typographical features, the cards in the present study are similar to those in Sawalmeh's study in that they employ typefaces that are visible and eye-catching for readers. In addition, the moves, 'opening', 'identifying the bride and the groom', 'identifying the inviters of the wedding', as reported by Sawalmeh, are printed in boldface with large size font. Although this is not the case in all wedding cards in the present study, the move, 'identifying the bride and the groom' in some cards is typed with a colour different from the one used for other moves.

The last non-linguistic feature is the insertion of attractive images that would represent and serve wedding ceremonies. Therefore, these images, among the non-verbal components, play a significant role in identifying the communicative purpose of the wedding genre. Examples of images that appear in the current study, are hearts, flowers, bunch of roses, wedding rings and a couple. What makes the present wedding cards different from those investigated in previous studies is the inclusion of an image that would represent coronavirus, or an image of a couple wearing masks, or both of them, as seen in the examples below. The first image represents coronavirus in green and the second shows a couple wearing mask.



## VI. CONCLUSION

This study examines the rhetorical structure of Jordanian Arabic wedding invitation cards issued during the Covid-19 pandemic. It compares these cards with the ones analyzed by Sawalmeh (2015) to find out the effect of this pandemic on the wedding invitation genre. The findings reveal that there are some similarities between the moves and steps of the present data and the components found in Sawalmeh's. The shared moves are 'opening', 'identifying the celebrating families', 'identifying the inviters of the wedding', 'identifying the bride and the groom', 'stating wedding ceremony arrangements', 'deferential ending' and 'notification'. The similarity in occurrence of these moves would indicate the inviters' common practice for realizing wedding invitations.

The analysis also reveals that the present data includes some new moves and steps that do not appear in previous literature, as shown in table 1 in section V. Some previous studies, such as Al-Ali (2006) and Sawalmeh (2015), revealed that the wedding genre includes an important move whose purpose is to kindly request the attendance of invitees to gather in a specific place. The importance of this move emerges from the fact that it matches with the whole communicative purpose of the wedding genre, viz. to invite some people to celebrate the wedding in a specific place. This move does not appear in the present sample. Instead, the move, 'announcing marriage and requesting distant participation' appears to be the core of the present wedding genre. The occurrence of this move, with its constituent

steps, in addition to the 'heading' move forms a strong evidence of the influence of the Covid-19 pandemic, showing that there is a noticeable change in the communicative purpose of the wedding genre tackled in this study. The change is also observed in the form of this genre in terms of the non-linguistic features. Including an image of a couple wearing masks may be considered a representation for the social practices in Jordan during the pandemic. The Covid-19 pandemic has forced the Jordanian government to impose certain rules which affect social practices, including wedding ceremonies. The changes in how these ceremonies run have been reflected in the wedding invitation cards.

The analysis of the linguistic features in this study shows how a step is realized and may help readers understand the purpose of the text and its segments. The analysis reveals that the dominant tense used in these wedding cards is the simple present. Simple past tense appears only in the closing move, but it still expresses actions in simple present tense. Such a feature of the present tense occurrence would indicate that the inviters want to inform people that marriage announcement is taking a place and a marriage is going to happen soon.

The status of the moves has also been examined by recording the occurrence frequency of each move. It was noticed that there are some moves which occur in all of the wedding invitations, namely: move 4 'identifying the inviters of the wedding', move 5 'announcing marriage and requesting distant participation', move 6 'identifying the bride and the groom' and move 7 'stating wedding ceremony arrangements'. There are also two other moves, 'opening' and 'deferential ending', which occur in 73% and 75% of the invitations respectively. The high occurrence frequency of these moves would indicate that they may be considered obligatory rhetorical features of the wedding invitations. On the other hand, the moves 'heading', 'identifying the celebrating families' and 'notification' may not be considered obligatory features needed to realize the invitation genre.

In the light of these study findings, the changes affecting the wedding genre would make it possible to name these cards as wedding announcement cards. The findings of this study would also inform those from other cultures about the changes in wedding ceremonies in Jordan and how people construct their wedding cards accordingly. Such findings may encourage researchers to conduct cross cultural studies to compare Jordanian wedding cards with other cards that have occurred in the same context.

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**Ahmad I. Tawalbeh** was born in Irbid, Jordan in 1979. He received his PhD degree in Linguistics from University of Huddersfield, UK in 2019. His research interests include Genre Analysis, Conversation Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and Pragmatics. He is currently an Assistant Professor in the Department of English Language and Literature, Irbid National University, Irbid, Jordan. He was a Lecturer at University of Hail and King Saud University, Saudi Arabia.

# Let's Move It Move It: Thais' Attitude Toward English as a Lingua Franca

Jeffrey Dawala Wilang

School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand

Piyathat Siripol

Independent Researcher, Thailand

**Abstract**—Recently, a Facebook group under the name "โยกย้าย มาสายสะโพกโยกย้าย" (Let's move it move it) brought together Thais around the globe who share a similar goal of moving abroad. One of the most popular discussions was their concern over their English language skills and the "move-in" country of preference. Since this virtual community is an interesting context to explore, a survey questionnaire was distributed online to know their attitudes toward English as a lingua franca (ELF). To know if Thais' attitude on EFL differs based on their "move-in" country of preference, the participants were categorized based on Kachruvian three concentric circles – Inner, Outer, and Expanding as well as Any circle – a combination of two or more circle. Findings show the strongly favorable attitudes of Thais toward the following aspects - the focus on intelligibility, the use of English to communicate with both native and non-native speakers of English, learning materials for a multicultural environment, and exposure to varieties of English. Despite the favorable attitude, the Expanding circle and Any circle groups strongly agreed that Standard British or American English should be taught. All circles disagreed that "any linguistic use that does not conform to Standard English is incorrect." Discussions of results were provided in the study.

**Index Terms**—Attitude, English as a lingua franca, Facebook, Moving abroad, English language

## I. INTRODUCTION

The Facebook group under the name “ย้ายประเทศกันเถอะ” (Let's move abroad) which later changed its name to “โยกย้าย มาสายสะโพกโยกย้าย” (Let's move it move it) created sensational discussions and ways to migrate out of Thailand as a result of what they broadly mentioned, “*a hopeless future in Thailand.*” Topics of discussion vary from social security benefits, medical service, educational and job opportunities, travel documents to everyday living experiences. One of the topics with significant importance was that of English language learning and use. Many discussions have been about methods and techniques to learn the English language, both from the experienced and the less experienced group members. Before their “move-out” from Thailand, some members appear to be very motivated to learn English for everyday communication and specific purposes. Many were concerned with their ability to use English in various communicative events abroad.

The dynamic discussion of ways to learn English reflects different beliefs and attitudes toward the status of English as global English, international language, or lingua franca. Specifically, this virtual group provides a newer context for researchers to explore topics with a more diverse group of participants from mainstream society. Accordingly, virtual communities are social aggregations that emerge online when groups of people engage in public discussions involving human emotions to form personal relationships in cyberspace (Rheingold, 1993). Facebook, therefore, is an excellent source of data for it is one of the most popular social network sites on the web (Al-Saggaf, 2017; Dhaha & Igale, 2014).

It is unknown how members of virtual communities view the status of the English language. For example, some who desire to go to countries that do not have English as an official language may view the status of the English language differently than those who want to go to English-speaking countries. Very few studies, if any, have attempted to explore such a virtual community on Facebook and their attitudes toward English as a lingua franca. Herein, ELF is referred to by Jenkins (2009) as a “specific communication context: English being used as a lingua franca, the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different lingua cultural backgrounds.” Seidlhofer (2011) defined it as “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice” (p. 7).

Differences in attitudes can be furthered based on their “move-in” country of preference. Using Kachruvian three concentric circles, some dream of going to the *Expanding circle* such as South Korea or Japan. Some prefer the *Outer circle*, such as Singapore or Malaysia. And many have set the goal of going to countries in *Inner circle* countries such as the USA, Australia, the UK, and Canada. The *Any circle* was added to categorized participants who do not have a specific country or circle to move in. The country of preference gives rise to insights into how English is used as a lingua franca (ELF) and how it is perceived among a group in a virtual community who may not have background

knowledge about the school of thoughts on Englishes or ELF. Depending on their chosen destination, their attitudes toward ELF may vary as a result.

Previous research studies on attitude towards ELF focus primarily on similar contexts of participants from schools and universities (Boonsuk, Ambele, & Buddharat, 2018; Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021; Ploywattanawong & Trakulkasemsuk, 2014; Phusit & Suksiripakonchai, 2018; Snodin & Young, 2015). Thus, the attitude toward ELF as a tool to communicate among different age groups and “move-in” country of preference with a similar goal of going abroad appears to be a gap in previous literature. In addition, a more diverse population from the mainstream society who desire to go to countries in the Inner circle, Outer circle, and Expanding circle have been little, if any, categorized and studied. Let alone, the exploration of attitudes towards ELF from virtual communities of Thais is very limited.

We argue that virtual communities on Facebook may provide an insightful reflection of attitudes as it enables freedom of expression without the need to expose the participants' identities (Krisvianti & Triastuti, 2020). We also assume that those who prefer the Inner circle are inclined toward “native speakerism” attitudes. In contrast, those who chose Outer or Expanding circles may have more malleable attitudes on ELF. Therefore, this study aims to understand the attitudes toward ELF among Thais who want to move abroad and whether there are any differences of attitudes according to their “move-in” country of preference. Two questions are sought in the study: (1) What are the attitudes toward English as a lingua franca among Thais who want to move abroad? (2) Are there any differences in attitudes according to their “move-in” country of preference?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The role and function of the English language have been shifting due to the increasing number of non-native speakers of English worldwide, causing the rise of English as a lingua franca (ELF hereafter). Jenkins (2006) defines ELF as a “world language whose speakers communicate mainly with other non-native speakers, often from different L1s than their own” (p.140). Various aspects of ELF have been explored to gain deeper insight together with affective factors such as attitudes. In the academe, one of the reasons is because affective factors can influence outcomes of learning. Ellis (1994), for instance, mentioned “that affective factors are obviously of crucial importance in accounting for individual differences in learning outcomes. Whereas learners' beliefs about language learning are likely to be fairly stable, their affective states tend to be volatile, affecting not only overall progress but responses to particular learning activities on a day-by-day and even moment-by-moment basis” (p. 483). Outside the academe, language attitudes may predict the individual's ability to become functional in their preferred “move-in” country.

One of the factors that affect attitudes toward ELF is native-speakerism. Defined by Holliday, it is “an established belief that ‘native-speaker’ teachers represent a ‘Western culture’ from which springs the ideals both of the English language and English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2006). Native-speakerism is an ideology or an ‘attitude of mind’ that affects native and non-native speaker-teachers (Waters, 2007). Attitudes on ELF and many linguistic aspects were explored during the past years to gain insight from the perspectives of both L2 English learners and teachers. Sung (2016), for instance, conducted a qualitative inquiry by interviewing a group of students from Hong Kong university on their ELF communication experiences, particularly on their accent preferences. It was found that L2 speakers prefer a native-like accent as they wish to express their identities as competent L2 speakers of English. Similar to Natiladdanon and Thanavisuth's (2014) study, native accents, mainly the US and UK, were preferred over other Asian accents. In addition to students who prefer a native-like accent when speaking English, perspectives from teachers were also explored. Generally, teachers are aware that ELF exists, but they expressed confusion over how its linguistic features, such as writing, would be evaluated (Shetabi & Rattanaphumma, 2017). This leads to disregarding the existing English varieties (i.e., Singaporean English, Chinese English).

Previous studies of attitude on ELF in Thailand have been based largely on learners from schools and universities. A survey of attitudes toward pronunciation models in English as a lingua franca by Phusit and Suksiripakonchai (2018) found that students have highly positive attitudes towards American/British pronunciation models. Students also believe that maintaining their Thai English pronunciation model was not important. Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk (2014) conducted a study where the attitudes of Thai graduates were explored in terms of the acceptability and understandability of ASEAN ELF. Around fifty Thai graduate students of engineering, science, and technology participated. Concerning the different grammatical features of ASEAN ELF, the result revealed a neutral judgment for grammatical features for acceptability. The study presented a possible conclusion that although grammatical features of ASEAN ELF may not yet be fully accepted, they do not block understanding of the message in communication. Such studies are in the same line with most previous studies where the attitudes are from students studying at the university were explored (Boonsuk, Ambele, & Buddharat, 2018; Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021; Ploywattanawong & Trakulkasemsuk, 2014; Phusit & Suksiripakonchai, 2018; Snodin & Young, 2015; Natiladdanon & Thanavisuth, 2014).

Recently, a shift in attitude toward ELF from university students was reported. Boonsuk and Ambele (2021) explored how Southern Thai university students view ELF. Around 250 students participated in the questionnaires, and 15 were interviewed. It was found that students are generally proud of their Thai accent. The results suggested that non-native English varieties should not be considered problematic for use. Moreover, such varieties are essential for intercultural communication. The insights suggest that Thai learners may have a more positive attitude towards the use of ELF.

Different from the academic context, Prakinaurat and Kangkun (2018) investigated language attitudes towards Thai working adults towards native and non-native English varieties at the workplace. A verbal guise test (VGT) and semi-structured interview were used as an instrument. Around 80 participants aged between 25-35 participated in the VGT, and 10 participants took part in an interview. These participants came from the field of business, service, and hospitality. The results revealed that most participants tend to view native-varieties (American and British) as more favorable than their non-native counterparts (Filipino, Singaporean, and Thai) regarding social status and competence, attractiveness, and linguistic quality.

As gaps in the literature exist, the present study aims to explore the attitudes on ELF from a broader range of participants in a virtual community and consider their attitude based on "move-in" country of preference.

### III. METHODOLOGY

An instrument used in this quantitative study was a questionnaire adapted from Bartolo (2018) and was distributed online in the Facebook group "โยกย้าย มาสายสะโพกโยกย้าย" (Let's move it move it). One hundred ninety respondents participated and consented to take part in the study. There were two sections in the survey. The first section is related to background information such as age, experience abroad, and the country they would like to move to (see Table 1).

TABLE 1  
BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Age	15 and below ( $n=22$ ) 16- 20 ( $n=47$ ) 21-25 ( $n=48$ ) 26-30 ( $n=44$ ) 31 and above ( $n=29$ )
Experience abroad	Yes ( $n=142$ ) No ( $n=48$ )
Country of preference	Inner circle ( $n=105$ ) Outer circle ( $n=3$ ) Expanding circle ( $n=53$ ) Any circle ( $n=29$ )

In the second section of the questionnaire, eight questions relating to attitudes using English for communicative purposes, learning, and English varieties. All of the items have a translated Thai version next to the English statements to ensure the comprehensibility of statements. The last item was consent for agreement to allow the responses for research purposes.

Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on a four-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). Samples of the questions are 1) *I need to learn English to communicate with both native and non-native speakers of English*, and 6) *Any linguistic use that does not conform to Standard English is incorrect*.

The survey data were analyzed descriptively. The mean scores were interpreted accordingly. The mean score of 1.00 - 1.74 mean *Strongly disagree*, 1.75 - 2.50 as *Disagree*, 2.51 - 3.24 mean *Agree*, and 3.25 - 4.00 as *Strongly agree*.

### IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 shows the strongly favorable attitudes of Thais toward the following aspects: the focus on intelligibility (Item 2;  $M=3.77$ ,  $SD=0.54$ ); the use of English to communicate with both native and non-native speakers of English (Item 1;  $M=3.76$ ,  $SD=0.54$ ); learning materials for a multicultural environment (Item 7;  $M=3.51$ ,  $SD=0.64$ ), exposure to varieties of English (Item 6;  $M=3.39$ ,  $SD=0.79$ ). However, despite their favorable attitude, the preferred variety of English to study is British or American standard variety ( $M=3.19$ ,  $SD=0.86$ ).

TABLE 2  
ATTITUDES OF THAIS TOWARD ELF

Item	M	SD	Interpretation
1. I need to learn English to communicate with both native and non-native speakers of English.	3.76	0.56	Strongly agree
2. In learning English, the focus on intelligibility (e.g., understanding each other) is crucial.	3.77	0.54	Strongly agree
3. Any linguistic use that does not conform to Standard English is incorrect.	2.38	1.02	Disagree
4. I should be taught by teachers of English who should have a standard native-speaker accent.	2.97	0.91	Agree
5. The variety of English to be used when I learn English should be Standard British/American English.	3.19	0.86	Strongly agree
6. I should be exposed, in learning situations, to varieties of English (Indian English, Chinese English, Singapore English, African English, etc.) other than Standard British/American English.	3.39	0.79	Strongly agree
7. Learning materials should include cultural aspects/topics other than Standard British or American.	3.51	0.64	Strongly agree
8. In learning English, developing students' proficiency in Standard British/American grammar forms is crucial.	2.98	0.86	Agree

Some respondents have talked about the importance of intelligibility instead of language accuracy (see Excerpts 1 and 2). One even suggested that doing a short-term course in India (Outer circle) or Cambodia (Expanding circle) can be beneficial (see Excerpt 3).

Excerpt 1

“ไม่มีเจ้าของภาษาที่ไหนภาษาไหนจะคิดมากเรื่องไวยากรณ์และวิธีการใช้ค่ะ

เพราะใช้ภาษาเป็นอุปกรณ์การสื่อสารและถ้าคุยกันรู้เรื่องก็พอแล้ว มีแค่พวกอาจารย์ พวกจู้จี้จุกจิก และคนขี้อวดเท่านั้นแหละค่ะที่จะชอบทักผิด...” *No native speakers would care so much about grammar and its usage since language is a tool for communication. It's enough if it's understood. Only teachers and a fastidious person like to correct others.*

Excerpt 2

“แกรมม่า ฟังไม่แคร์ เขาเข้าใจ เราครับ เขารู้ว่าเราจะพูดอะไร เขามีมารยาท” *Caucasians don't care about the grammar; they can understand what we want to convey. They have manners.*

Excerpt 3

“...แนะนำให้ลองไปเรียนภาษาระยะสั้นๆดูก่อนที่จะไปทศ มีหลายประเทศเลยนะค่ะ ลองอินเดียไม่ก็กัมพูชาดูก็ได้ค่ะ ค่าครองชีพเท่าบ้านเราตอนนี้หนูมาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษที่กัมพูชา คล่องขึ้นมากกว่าแต่ก่อนเยอะเลยละ...” *I'd like to suggest you to study the [English] language abroad in a short course first. Many countries are available. Try India or Cambodia. The cost of living is similar to our country. I study English in Cambodia, and my English is a lot better than before.*

However, other individual views on the importance of grammar were also shared due to work and workplace demands (see Excerpts 4, 5, and 6). For example, to be able to work abroad, one must possess linguistic competence.

Excerpt 4

“เห็นด้วยมากๆค่ะ จากประสบการณ์ตัวเองที่ไม่ได้เรียนสายอินเตอร์มา ตอนนี้ทำงานออฟฟิศอยู่ที่เนเธอร์แลนด์ว่าแกรมม่านั้นสำคัญ...” *I totally agree with you. From my experience, I did not study at an international program. Now, I work at an office in the Netherlands and grammar is so important.*

Excerpt 5

“แกรมม่าสำคัญมากๆ ค่ะ ยิ่งพอมาทํางานในองค์กรต่างชาติใหญ่ นี่ยิ่งต้องพูด ต้องเขียนให้ถูกแกรมม่า ถ้าแกรมม่าไม่ได้ อาจจะพูดผิด เขียนผิด สื่อความหมายผิด อาจจะผิดพลาดความก้าวหน้าในการทำงานองค์กรต่างประเทศในอนาคตค่ะ เรามั่นใจพูดได้ กับพูดแล้วฝรั่งเข้าใจโดยฝรั่งไม่ต้องเดา มันต่างกันค่ะ” *Grammar is so important. Once I come to work at a large foreign organization, I must speak more and write correctly. If the grammar is incorrect in speaking or writing, the message will also be wrong. This could affect the advancement towards my future career in working for a foreign organization abroad. I'm confident that I could speak and speak, and Caucasians could understand by not guessing two different things.*

Excerpt 6

“เราอยู่อเมริกาค่ะ ขึ้นอยู่กับตัวงานคุณด้วย อย่างงานเรา detail เรื่องการเขียนและภาษามาก การเขียนไวยากรณ์ grammar ผิดๆสื่อถึงการทำงานที่สับสนว่า ถ้างานคุณไม่ใช่เรียงสื่อนี้ก็ว่าไปอย่าง

แต่มันก็บ่งบอกหลายอย่างในตัวคุณได้ว่าคุณพยายามที่จะเรียนรู้ขนาดไหน หรือว่าคุณเพิกเฉยไปวันๆ" *I live in the US, and it depends on your job as well. For me, language detail and writing are so important. Using ungrammatical sentences reflects a lack of detail at work. If you're not serious, then it's fine, but it could reflect so many things about how much you try to learn, or you're just let it pass by.*

Table 3 displays the differences in attitudes based on their country of preference. The *Any Circle* group had the highest mean scores on four statements: learn English to communicate with any speakers of English (Item 1), prefer to learn standard English varieties (Item 5), exposure to varieties of English (Item 6), and importance of developing standard English grammar competency. On the other hand, they had the strongest objection to item 3 - *Any linguistic use that does not conform to Standard English is incorrect*. The *Inner Circle* group had the highest mean score on item 4 - teachers' preference with a native accent. Everyone in the *Outer Circle* group agreed that intelligibility is the most important (Item 2). The *Expanding Circle* group believed that learning materials should include other varieties of English (Item 7).

The findings in the present study seemed to offer different perspectives away from previous studies conducted with university students (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021; Boonsuk, Ambele, & Buddharat, 2018; Kanoksilapatham, 2013; Natiladdanon & Thanavisuth, 2014; Phusit & Suksiripakonchai, 2018; Ploywattanawong & Trakulkasemsuk, 2014; Snodin & Young, 2015). We believed that the findings are different because of the context of the study and the inclusion of a more diverse population from various age groups. We are wrong with our assumption that those who have chosen to "move-in" in an Inner circle country are more inclined to native speakerism as Thais in the current study have shown favorable attitudes toward ELF.

The respondents in the Facebook group appear to agree that intelligibility is of crucial importance strongly. English is seen as a tool to communicate among the group members, and perhaps their Thai English accent and grammatical accuracy may be less prioritized. Excerpts 1 and 2 support the aspect of intelligibility when using English. The way they talk about grammatical accuracy implies a negative feeling towards those who try to correct their grammar by comparing Thais to the welcoming of native speakers in terms of acceptability and judgment in using English. The finding in our study is in contrast to that of Phusit and Suksiripakonchai (2018), where most learners were found to likely imitate American and British accents and that linguistic accommodation was less emphasized (Phusit & Suksiripakonchai, 2018). One of the reasons may be related to participants and context. The participants involved in Phusit and Suksiripakonchai's (2018) study were all English majors students at the undergraduate levels. These English major students may hold English in a native norm more prestigious and favorable due to less exposure to other Englishes. Moreover, they may have to stick to the native norm and standard (American and British) since they need to use this knowledge to enter an English major program at a university. American and British English is still used as a gatekeeper for university entrance in Thailand. Similar to Sung (2016), who concluded that ELF users negatively perceive non-native accents. Similar findings were found by Jindapitak and Teo (2012), where students are not aware of other varieties of English and that learners are linguistically prejudiced towards other nonnative accents. Again, these previous studies are mainly conducted in the mainstream educational context at the tertiary levels. Moreover, English major students were often the participants in the previous studies on ELF (Phusit & Suksiripakonchai, 2018; Jindapitak & Teo, 2012).



TABLE 3  
DIFFERENCES OF ATTITUDES BASED ON THEIR COUNTRY OF PREFERENCE

Item	Inner Circle M, SD	Outer Circle M, SD	Expanding Circle M, SD	Any Circle M, SD
1. I need to learn English to communicate with both native and non-native speakers of English.	3.68, 0.63 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.67, 0.58 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.85, 0.50 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.93, 0.26 <i>Strongly agree</i>
2. In learning English, the focus on intelligibility (e.g., understanding each other) is crucial.	3.71, 0.62 <i>Strongly agree</i>	4.00, 0.00 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.85, 0.41 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.83, 0.47 <i>Strongly agree</i>
3. Any linguistic use that does not conform to Standard English is incorrect. *	2.43, 0.98 <i>Disagree</i>	2.33, 1.53 <i>Disagree</i>	2.36, 1.06 <i>Disagree</i>	2.24, 1.06 <i>Disagree</i>
4. I should be taught by teachers of English who should have a standard native-speaker accent.	3.03, 0.88 <i>Agree</i>	3.00, 1.00 <i>Agree</i>	2.91, 0.95 <i>Agree</i>	2.90, 0.98 <i>Agree</i>
5. The variety of English to be used when I learn English should be Standard British/American English.	3.11, 0.92 <i>Agree</i>	3.00, 1.00 <i>Agree</i>	3.25, 0.76 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.38, 0.78 <i>Strongly agree</i>
6. I should be exposed, in learning situations, to varieties of English (Indian English, Chinese English, Singapore English, African English, etc.) other than Standard British/American English.	3.30, 0.87 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.33, 0.58 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.49, 0.67 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.55, 0.69 <i>Strongly agree</i>
7. Learning materials should include cultural aspects/topics other than Standard British or American.	3.49, 0.65 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.33, 1.15 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.64, 0.48 <i>Strongly agree</i>	3.36, 0.78 <i>Strongly agree</i>
8. In learning English, developing students' proficiency in Standard British/American grammar forms is crucial.	2.98, 0.90 <i>Agree</i>	3.00, 1.00 <i>Agree</i>	2.92, 0.78 <i>Agree</i>	3.07, 0.84 <i>Agree</i>

\*Item 3 is stated negatively.

The English language is used for communication for both native and non-native speakers. These are supported by items 3, 6, and 7. Item 3 reflects respondents' attitude towards using English to communicate by disagreeing with the need to conform to the standard English norms in its linguistic use. This may imply that they do not expect to strictly use accurate linguistic features (American/British English) in oral communication between native and non-native speakers. Thus, learning other standards such as Singaporean English or Indian English may be one of the alternative pathways that they prefer. Perhaps these varieties of English are spoken in countries they would like to visit. This may be why item 6 receives such a strongly agreed statement that learners should be exposed to English varieties other than the American and British standards. Standards such as Chinese English and African English could be integrated into the classroom to explore. As language comes with culture, item 7 supports previous attitudes of items 3 and 6 by suggesting that other cultural aspects and topics other than the British and American should be included in the learning materials. The attitude from the members of the Expanding circle has the highest agreement on item 7. This suggests that not only do learners have positive attitudes towards ELF but also the cultures and local traditions that intertwine in the English language as well.

Respondents from the Outer circle group strongly agreed with item 2 that intelligibility is of crucial importance. This is perhaps because English is explicitly learned for the sake of communication purposes. Excerpt 3 demonstrates this by recommending other group members to go to countries in the outer and expanding circles to learn English. Cost of living was one of the factors to be considered in the excerpt. This implies that those who want to learn English may prefer to go to countries with less opportunity to speak Thai, and countries with English as an official language may not always be the first destination to consider anymore when learning English. This is interesting because it was found that English language learners in Thailand have a negative attitude towards varieties of English in the ASEAN countries compared to American and British English (Natiladdanon, 2014). In addition, the result may reflect that most learners are calling for more opportunities to use English in their surroundings. As long as English can be used for intelligible communication, Expanding circle could also be one choice.

Item 7 was strongly agreed upon by members from the Expanding circle group. Other cultural aspects and topics other than the standard American and British should be included when learning English. Content related to other cultures and traditions of different expanding circle countries may be learned through English. ELF is a choice made to foster language learning, and these two interactions of CLIL and ELF have received very little attention in the literature (Hüttner, 2017). Another reason is perhaps because British companies publish most educational materials available in the market. Members who seek to learn English may not have an apparent reference to comparing varieties of English standards when studying in an English class. Moreover, teachers in the Thai education system may not be fully aware of the ELF paradigm, making them feel uncomfortable selecting materials from the ELF perspectives. It was reported that teachers expressed confusion over ELF and that it is problematic when evaluating linguistic aspects such as writing from the ELF perspectives. As a result, most teachers took the traditional approach towards the so-

called standard American and British English (Shetabi & Rattanaphumma, 2017). Based on the findings, we call for more research on developing materials that could reflect other cultural topics and aspects other than standard American and British English and approaches that could be integrated into the English language classroom.

Members from *Any circle* group were found to have the most positive attitude (see items 1, 3, 6, and 8). In addition, they were the group that strongly disagreed with conforming to the linguistic use of standard British and American English. This implies that they are quite detached from the native-speaker norms in terms of the linguistic aspects as they appear to be more open and accepting when mistakes are made by people who do not conform to the standard rules. However, item 5 seems to be contradictory towards positive attitudes to ELF. When learning English, members from the *Any circle* group become reattached to the standard native British and American English. The findings are similar to that of Jindapitak and Teo (2013), where learners tend to prefer native-accent models. However, they were willing to learn and understand more about non-native English.

## V. CONCLUSION

The paper aims to investigate the attitude of ELF among different Thais and whether there are differences based on their country of preference from a sample of participants from a Facebook group called "โยกย้ายมาสายสะโพกโยกย้าย" (Let's move it move it). The present study provided insights into a specific group of Thais toward English as a lingua franca by categorizing them based on Kachruvian three concentric circles – Inner, Outer, and Expanding as well as Any circle – a combination of two or more circles. Generally, Thais' attitudes are broadly favorable toward intelligibility, language accuracy, and exposure to varieties of English, among others. Even those who prefer to “move-in” in Inner circle countries tend to have a positive attitude towards ELF. However, the strong attachment of the Expanding and Any circle groups toward learning standard American or British English strongly persists. Future studies may delve into the factors influencing the attitudes of a more diverse sample population from mainstream society.

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**Jeffrey Dawala Wilang** hails from Dilong, Tubo, Abra. He currently lectures at the School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand. Dr. Wilang earned his bachelor's degree in Political Science from the University of the Cordilleras (UC) in the Philippines, his master's degree in Teaching English as an International Language from the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University (PSU), Hat Yai Campus in Thailand, and his Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from the School of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT), Thailand. His research interests are psycholinguistics and English as a lingua franca.



**Piyathat Siripol** is currently a Master student in Applied Linguistics (ELT) at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi. He received a bachelor's degree in English (1st class honors) from Khon Kaen University, Thailand. His research interests include EFL teaching methodologies and second language writing.

# (Im)politeness and Emotion in Academic Correspondence

Juan Antonio Caldero

Faculty of Business and Law, Coventry University, UK

Lin Sun

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, China

**Abstract**—Wechat and email are the principal platforms of online interactivity in academia. Lack of English language pragmatism and the transfer of polite requests from L1 into L2 might have the outcome of perception of (im)politeness. Speakers might encounter issues distinguishing between orders vs. want i.e. requests. A certain adherence to the pragmatic clarity of the message is an essential part of inferring (im)politeness. (Im)politeness could be addressed as communication strategy with the main purpose of (breaking)maintaining relations between the interlocutors. In academic correspondence both the use of direct and non-conventional indirect strategies by Chinese students' positive politeness might be inferred as impolite by British academics' negative politeness. This research shows how Chinese L2 English's academic correspondence might lead to the emotion of mild irritation triggered by the reader's inferring of (im)politeness; therefore, an intended degree on (im)politeness requires an appropriate level of pragmatic competence in L1.

**Index Terms**—academic correspondence, requests, positive politeness, negative politeness, pragmatic failure

## I. INTRODUCTION

According to China-Britain Business Council (2019) the demand for joint courses in specialist areas continues to grow in China. Moreover, the number of Chinese graduates applying to British universities is also on the rise. Universities have increased the number of programmes and partnerships between these two countries. The UK has incorporated SINO-UK programmes through innovative collaboration with Chinese partners, joint-research programmes, and two-way staff and student exchanges, including those linked with industry.

The SINO-UK programmes main characteristic is the use of English as their vernacular language. The expansion of British Universities into China goes alongside the spread of the English language with exceeds that of any other language (Culpeper, 2012, p. 1128). These programmes have increased the need for information about the nature of students' (im)politeness in their academic correspondence. Very little empirical investigation has taken place regarding the academic communication sent by students during their university education (BiesenbachLucas 2004). Previous interlanguage research on email requests (Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011; Félix-Brasdefer, 2012; Pan, 2012) indicates that, despite the learners' high L2 proficiency, they may often lack adequate pragmatic awareness and competence in L2 email writing (Biesenbach-Lucas, 2004, 2007; Chen, 2006; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011) resulting in status-incongruent messages capable of pragmatic failure.

The majority of Chinese learners of L2 English might not receive sufficient input on pragmatic competences to learn the basics of academic writing correspondence i.e. students begin their academic journey based on rules and principles of general English. The outcome might be lack of politeness in academic communication between Chinese learners of L2 English and their British lecturers. The study shows that Chinese students of L2 English use positive politeness strategies in their academic correspondence. It demonstrates how learner's perception of politeness is linked with their positive politeness strategies, triggering the emotion of mild irritation in negative politeness' readers.

The data discussed here are from academic correspondence between Chinese learners of L2 English and Coventry University academic members of staff. The methodology will focus on action research based on the idea of a reflective process to solve an immediate problem by individuals working in their own practices (McKernan, 1991a). Action research is an effective way of enhancing both academic and learners' performance in a particular task to change and offer new alternatives. This work does not advocate a change but an adaptation in which learner might use strategies to understand way of politeness that might be completely alien to them. The findings would have implications for L2 learners to acknowledge the interlanguage pragmatics and to have the choice of choosing between positive or negative politeness in their academic writing.

## II. POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE POLITENESS

What makes interesting to analyze on-record strategies in academic correspondence is the way "interactions are associated [...] with elevated addressees" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 12), in other words, on-record requests are

linked to specific linguistic and grammatical forms, making it visible to be identifiable in learners' academic correspondence.

According to Brown & Levinson, on-record requests are "face-threatening acts". In academic communication, requests are mainly the main reason for learners to send an email to their lecturers. Through the speech act of request, speakers expect the hearer to do an action that would be only beneficial to the speaker and costly to the hearer. According to Brown & Levinson "some speech acts such as direct and non-conventional indirect speech are intrinsically face threatening" (Brown&Levinson,1987, p. 59). Meanwhile, individuals will try to assess the situation during their interactions and decide how to perform the Face Threatening Act (FTA). Brown & Levinson clearly explain the process to calculate the FTA:

$$W_x = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_x \text{ (Brown \& Levinson, 1987, p.76)}$$

Where  $W_x$  is the weightiness of the FTA,  $D(S, H)$  is the social distance between S and H,  $P(H, S)$  is the power that H has over S, and  $R_x$  is the degree to which the FTA is rated as an imposition in the given culture in which S and H are situated.

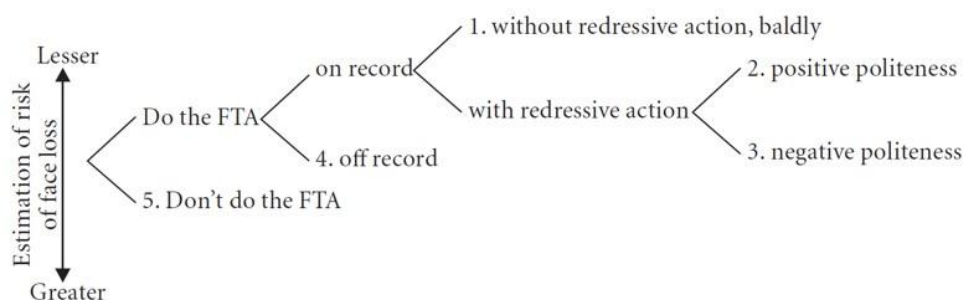


Fig. 1 Strategies for performing FTAs (Brown&Levinson, 1987, p. 60)

In the event that the speech act has no or very little weightiness, it can be produced baldly, on record, without any redressive action. This can be seen on some of the Wechat<sup>1</sup> Academic correspondence students sent to lectures. Example (1) shows that students' Wechat message could be inferred as demanding or even aggressive.

(1) Hi Juan, I sent you an email. Check it

Moreover, the Co-operative Principle and its maxims are based on the assumption that the primary purpose of a conversation is *the "maximally effective exchange of information"* (Grice, 1989, p. 28). Grice's Maxims, specifically the maxims of manner, could influence learners' use of positive politeness in their academic correspondence (Figure 2).

Fig. 2 Politeness and the Maxims of Grice

Example (1) illustrates Brown & Levinson's bald on record strategy (Brown & Levinson, 1978, p. 74).

This strategy shows a direct request without redressive action. When it is combined with the Maxim of Manner, it would offer a direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way of requesting.

<sup>1</sup> Wechat is a widely used Chinese social media platform.

This maxim emphasizes clarity under the guidance of which Chinese learners of L2 English could imply to minimize the distance between the speakers; however, for British academics the same samples might be inferred as rude or impolite as (2) shows:

(2) Dear xxx,

Could you explain things clearly and straightforward when you send out an email. It really confused me almost every time.

Please explain clearly as which cohort, which module and when the exam is taking place, don't let us to guess!

And you need to give me at least one week to print out the exam paper before the exam taking place.

Best wishes,

Brown & Levinson (1987) claim that the primary reason for bald on record usage would be whenever the speaker wants to do FTA with maximum efficiency. That is, in order to satisfy the hearer's face, the speaker will select a bald on record strategy.

#### A. Negative Politeness

Leech (1983) refers negative politeness as "*indirect illocutions tend to be more polite (a) because they increase the degree of optionality, and (b) because the more indirect the illocution is, the more diminished and tentative its force tends to be*" (Leech, 1983, p. 108). That is, Leech shows that the speaker could try to save face by increasing concern for the addressee. Moreover, Lakoff (1973) argues that most indirect strategies are used in formal context; whereas least indirect might be used between intimates and friends; Brown & Levinson (1987) discuss that the greater the threat to face, the more indirect strategy the speaker would choose (Fig. 1).

Brown & Levinson state that the more indirect the utterance is the more polite will be; in other words, the degree of politeness is proportional with the degree of indirectness. However, "*increased indirectness can also result in impoliteness*" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 82) as the example illustrates:

"I must really ask you to be a little quieter, said Holmes severely. You have already imperiled the whole success of our expedition. Might I beg that you would have the goodness to sit down upon one of those boxes, and not to interfere?" (Doyle, 2007, p. 80)

Brown & Levinson negative politeness is a redressive action addressed to the addressee's negative face. The authors describe negative politeness as the predominant behavior of Western

cultures, being "*the most elaborate and most conventionalized set of linguistic strategies for FAT redress*" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 130). That means that negative politeness - and its claim to freedom of action and freedom from imposition - would be the set of linguistic politeness that Westerns academics would use in their academic correspondence.

In case readers want to have freedom of action, their perception of politeness would be directed related to the avoidance of directness. Brown & Levinson states that "it [negative politeness] is the heart of respect behaviour, just as positive politeness is the kernel of 'familiar' and 'joking' behaviour" and "it [negative politeness] performs the function of minimizing the particular imposition that the FTA unavoidably effects" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 129). Likewise, it could be argued that some Chinese learners of L2 English might prefer the use of 'familiar' behavior in their academic communication. Some learners in relation to (1- 3), (5 - 9) and (Fig.1) pointed out comments such as: "why lecturers have to get offended by my email when I treat them like family" [...] "are you telling me that they are also polite with their children and friends?"

Negative politeness is generally used for social 'distancing'; i.e. this linguistic strategy can be associated with the need of social brake when necessary during the interaction. However, learners of L2 English might lack pragmatic linguistic competence with the outcome that learners' academic correspondence might be inferred as impolite or rude (2)-(3) by the reader.

(3) Hi Juan. I am Shen xxxx. I want to know whether our legal English exam will be on Dec 27<sup>th</sup>, because I want to buy tickets go home.

(2 - 3) show how Chinese learners of English L2 transfer their L1 positive politeness strategies into their L2 pragmatic competences.

#### B. Positive Politeness<sup>2</sup>

Brown & Levinson (1987) show that imperatives are often softened with conventional politeness markers (2). In addition, the bald imperative (1) might appeared alongside the Gricean maxims (Fig. 2). Positive politeness in negative

<sup>2</sup> In addition to use positive politeness in academic correspondence, there are other factors that according to Steve Foster (2013) might "irritate the marker". "Lecturers do appreciate good grammar, spelling and style and are very often irritated by poor writing skills" - "Many students submit work with countless spelling and typographical errors. This is unprofessional, creates a poor impression and irritates the marker" Due to time restriction this has not been analysed however, it might have an influence on triggering lecturers' mild emotion of anger.

politeness cultures might be acceptable within friends or in social situations when people they know each other fairly well. However, even within the familiar circle, positive politeness might not be the safest way of making a request. Michael Haugh, during the *International Symposium on Advance in (Im)politeness Studies in Fuzhou – Fujian*, perfectly described it when he commented (4):

- (4) “Even though I know about politeness I still find it difficult to tell my children ‘take the rubbish out’.

This sample shows that individual emotions in negative politeness environments are set on speakers rather than the listeners. The speaker is convinced that using positive politeness strategies will trigger the hearer’s mild irritation of anger. More importantly, the speaker expects to be addressed in the same way. However, this conviction of applying the speakers’ negative politeness universally might cause friction or even tension within positive politeness societies.

In positive politeness societies such as China, the same context on *bald request* “take the rubbish out” would have been perfectly acceptable by both the speaker and the listener. Likewise, in positive politeness’ contexts, the speaker’s inner emotions towards the listeners would have not implied mild irritation of anger but rather closeness and friendship.

However, when Chinese learners of L2 English acquired negative politeness’ pragmatic competence it could be referred as temporary rather than permanent. As (4) implies that in Western societies negative politeness is permanently fixed in individuals’ linguistic behavior alongside with the emotion of mild irritation.

Researchers have found that teaching children specific forms of politeness could be considered a major source of politeness’ input that children will receive. This input will permanently adapt into children’s linguistic cognitive behavior; (Snow et al., 1990, p. 235) illustrate this:

- (5) Father: Say ‘please could I have some ketchup’. Child: Please.  
 Father: Please may I have some ketchup.  
 Child: Please.  
 Father: Just say the whole sentence for a change: Please may I have some ketchup. Child: Please.  
 Father: No. We’re gonna wait till you say, ‘Please may I have some ketchup.’ Child: Please can I have the ketchup.

(4-5) demonstrates that it would be complex for negative politeness individuals to utter positive politeness on bald record request. This might be due to the speaker’s conviction of triggering the emotion of mild irritation in the hearers’ cognitive thought. However, Chinese learners of L2 English might not have the conviction of triggering the readers’ mild irritation. That is, learners might find acceptable to use positive politeness strategies in request speech acts.

Equally, Brown & Levinson do not argue that positive politeness individuals might need shorter specific periods of adaptation to minimize D (S, H) between the interlocutors than negative politeness individuals might. That is the acquisition of negative politeness in learners of L2 English might not be permanent but rather temporary complementing (4) their pragmatic competences.

- (6) Dear Juan,  
 I am xxxx. Have you ever checked the email from LSE? I have filled in your personal information as referee. Would you like to help me submit the letter of recommendation?  
 If you have any problem, please let me know.  
 Thanks a lot in advance!  
 Best of luck,

- (7) Dear Mr.Juan,  
 Excuse me,I am xxx xxx from class 10. Because i had lost my identification and bank card last week, i have to reapply them in my hometown during this holiday. And i am afraid that it could not be completed until Oct.9.So i could not attend the Academic English on monday.  
 I have already apply for admission from my tutor. Hope you can understand. Have a good day!

- (8) DearJuan,  
 This is xxx xxx from team three. I'm sorry to tell you a bad news. Because the classmate's physical condition has a problem, I will accompany her to go to the hospital to do the examination tomorrow morning. The hospital is far away from the school, so I probably won't be able to make it back before the third group starts classes tomorrow. So I want to ask you for a leave and ask for your permission. I will try my best to come back in the afternoon.I will have classes with other groups. Hopping to get your understanding. Wish you a happy new week!

- (9) Hello Mr.Juan,  
 Hope you have a good time recently!  
 Sorry to bother you again. I have written a new personal statement which briefly introduces my performance in xxxx. I really love you and your Legal English course. Therefore, please! I really want a reference letter from you, my excellent teacher. Could you please help me again? I would be really grateful for that! Best wishes, xxx

L2 researchers (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Fukushima & Iwata, 1985; Meier, 1997) found that a variety of situational factors (e.g., familiarity, or gender) played important roles in the use of politeness strategies in requests. (6-9) show how Chinese learners create a close requester-requestee relationship both socially and psychologically. Once the relationship develops learners might perfectly choose on bald record strategies (1) i.e. learners might prefer, as the



relationship builds, use the imperative mood as linguistic positive politeness strategy in their academic correspondence (10-11).

(10) Dear Juan:

I am not sure if I have copied the mail which I have sent to Tony few minutes ago to you yet. I am not familiar with this system. **Tell** me whether you have received my mail or not

Thanks a lot!

(11) Dear Juan

I'm sorry to bother you, but after I sent an email to Simran yesterday afternoon for my essay, she hadn't answered me yet. I don't know if there is any problem with my email. **Contact** her to check my email for me?

Chinese learners of L2 English might transfer their L1 politeness into L2. Figure 3 illustrates the use of positive politeness in academic correspondence between Chinese learners and their Chinese lecturers. The context of these correspondence examples is the submission of learners' assessments. Figure 3 demonstrates closeness and friendly relation between lecturers and learners.



Fig. 3 Academic correspondence between Chinese learners and Chinese lecturers

Brown & Levinson (1987) state positive politeness as *"the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others"* (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). In other words, positive politeness is redress directed to the hearer's positive face. They show that linguistic realization of positive politeness tends to be normal linguistic behavior between friends and peers (10 - 11). This is indicated by *"presupposition indicating shared wants and shared knowledge"*.

This indicates that the reader uses positive-politeness techniques in order to decrease social distance. In other words, students' academic requests could be linguistically connected with those requests address to family or friends in which is not necessary to be polite.

In academic correspondence, learners should avoid possible references to the readers' wants. Example (12) illustrates learners' praises emotions and feelings towards their lecturer: *"I really love you..."*; learners' keep reminding lecturers about their great job teaching them *"my excellent teacher"*. In other cases, learners' correspondence might be inferred as demanding and directive *"I really want a reference letter from you"*. The writer minimizes the distance between her and the reader *"I really love you"* consolidating the requester-requestee relationship and identifying it as friendly or familiar as observed in (10 - 11). Constant repetition of the same patterns, structures and contents might trigger lecturers' mild irritation of anger.

(12) Hello Mr.Juan,

Hope you have a good time recently!

Sorry to bother you again. I have written a new personal statement which briefly introduces my performance in SWUPL.

I really love you and your Legal English course. Therefore, I really want a reference letter from you, my excellent teacher. Could you please help me again? I would be really grateful for that!

### C. (Im)politeness and the Emotion of Mild Irritation



There is no solid agreement in what ‘impoliteness’ actually is. Locher & Bousfield (2008) state that “impoliteness is behavior that is face-aggravating in a particular context”

(Locher & Bousfield, 2008, p. 3). Lakoff (1973) argues that “[impoliteness] can only almost plausibly be interpreted as intentionally and negatively confrontational” (Lakoff, 1973, p. 103). Limberg defines impoliteness as “an intentional form of face-aggravation” (Limberg, 2009, p. 1376); Bousfield explain it as “[...] an intentionally gratuitous strategy designed to attach face” (Bousfield, 2008, p. 132).

Several different approaches and definitions of the concept of emotion exist. Keinpointner (2008) notes that: “emotions can be defined as psycho-physical processes which are experienced as strong feelings” (Keinpointner, 2008, p. 246). In other words, readers might inferred if the speaker is being polite, therefore triggering a positive or pleasant emotion or impolite and rude generating a negative or unpleasant feeling.

Chang and Hsu's (1998) demonstrate that more than 50% of the emails sent by Chinese learners of English to American native speakers were worded with the most direct strategies of want statement (“I want to hear your opinion”), imperatives and performatives.

Spencer-Oatey (2005, 2007) shows that “emotional reactions” of the speaker and addressee play a fundamental role in the negotiation of face concerns. Also, the emotional relationship between the interlocutors has a decisive role that might influence the cooperative or competitive climate of the ongoing interaction.

Culpeper establishes that “displaying emotions such as contempt or anger has nothing in itself to do with impoliteness” (Culpeper, 2011, p. 60). Power & Dalglish, 1997, p. 305) note that anger occurs “as the result of an appraisal of some deliberate, negligent, or at least avoidable slight or wrongdoing, [...] most usually directed at another person”. Wierzbicka show that emotions can be triggered due to the “complex interaction between the components and subcomponents in culture-specific identities” (Wierzbicka 1994). That is, anger could be considered as a socio-moral emotion, arising in response to another’s interlocutor violation of a social norm.

Anger ranges in intensity from mild irritation or annoyance to furious, animalistic, primordial rage. Therefore, it would be important to prevent the change of the status quo and maintain it within certain boundaries.

Different approaches to emotion have been analysed, researched and interpreted however, still ‘there is little consensus on what emotion is or is not’ (Barrett 1998, p. v, quoted in Schwarz-Friesel, 2007, p. 43).

(13) Dear xxx,

Many thanks for your quick reply

I am afraid you probably shall check out your emails, I've sent you email about the resit results before.

In the future, please remind the module leaders about the resits and hand it to me when you get the resit results.

I cannot check on my side as to when the resit results come out and cannot request for results from you every time.

I think maybe you are not familiar with these above resit handing process, however I myself is not very familiar as well about Coventry's re-sit process. In the past, xxx xxx just pass on me all the intensive modules' scores and then I put them into our SWUPL's score system. I've told xxx about our problems and maybe he can help with it or could you ask xxx xxx for some information about how the whole process is supposed to work?

Best wishes,

Academic correspondence is directly related to written language; the sender lacks visual signals and context in order to monitor the recipient’s reaction to their intended meaning. Example (10-12) show how the senders ‘email might established a requester-requestee relationship. This also appears on (13):

“[...] you probably shall check out your emails, I've sent you email about the resit results before”

Moreover, (13) illustrates the possibility that Chinese learners of L2 English might inadvertently violate politeness norms by simply being clear in their statements

“[...] remind the module leaders about the resits and hand it to me when you get the resit results”

Likewise, clarity and minimum or no social distance and power between the interlocutors are used to minimize ambiguity:

“I think maybe you are not familiar with these above resit handing process [...]”

Example (13) shows that if the sender’s correspondence were translated into Chinese, it would sound absolutely fine; the reader would have no reason to be offended. However, in English it sounds like a series of orders given by someone of very high rank. Thus, the emotion of mild irritation of the reader is visible in the readers’ answers (14). In this case, the reader is less alert to cultural differences and misjudged the relevant behavior as impolite to a higher extent. That is, in (14) the reader might have inferred the sender’s correspondence as FTAs.

Cross-cultural transferability of linguistics politeness might trigger the emotion of mild irritation in members of different speech communities who have already settled their specific types of conversational behavior

(14) Dear xxx

I will address your emails one at a time.

Firstly, I did not ask you to take the scores from the modules leaders.

The last thing you requested from me was the SWUPL Analysis Reports

Regards, xxx

(15) Hi xxx It's not proper for me to ask module leaders to give me the score, I think it's your job to collect all the

re-sit results, convert into SWUPL scores and send back to me, that is the working process Coventry and SWUPL have set out in the beginning of our programme. You shall give me resit results of ELS, Land law, contract and US Legal system long time ago, but I haven't got them.

Best wishes,

xxxx

Example (14) shows that readers' individual inner mild sensation of anger has been precipitated by (13). However, the sender in (15) keeps maintaining a close and familiar relationship with the reader as identify in the salutation "Hi". (15) shows that positive politeness readers might not acknowledge the mild irritation triggered in negative politeness. In other words, Chinese L2 English learners do not find (14) offensive, rude or impolite.

It would be advisable for educators to include specific pragmatic contents for Chinese L2 English in order to minimize triggering mild irritations within negative politeness individuals.

Workshops on academic correspondence might help to prevent destabilizing personal relationships of interacting individuals. Moreover, it will decrease any mutual disrespect and/or aversion between the writer and the reader.

### III. ACADEMIC CORRESPONDENCE - ACTION RESEARCH

Burns (2010) states: "[...] action research of the group is achieved through the critically examined action of individual group members" (Burns, 2010, p. 13); That is, action research focuses on bringing about change in social situation as the result of group problem-solving and collaboration. Moreover, Burns (2010) demonstrates in their survey, action research has made significant positive impacts in the discipline of English as Foreign Language. It helped teachers to reflect on their teaching strategies and to avoid issues they might face in their lectures.

That is, action research is an effective way of improving both the teaching and the students' performance. We do not advocate a change but an adaptation, in which learners might use strategies to understand a way of politeness that might be completely unfamiliar to them.

The common elements of action research are the four-step process ('Dialectic Action Research Spiral') in order to: a) identify an area of focus; b) collect data; c) analyze and interpret the data and d) develop an action plan. Figure 4 shows the action research plan we applied during the workshops.

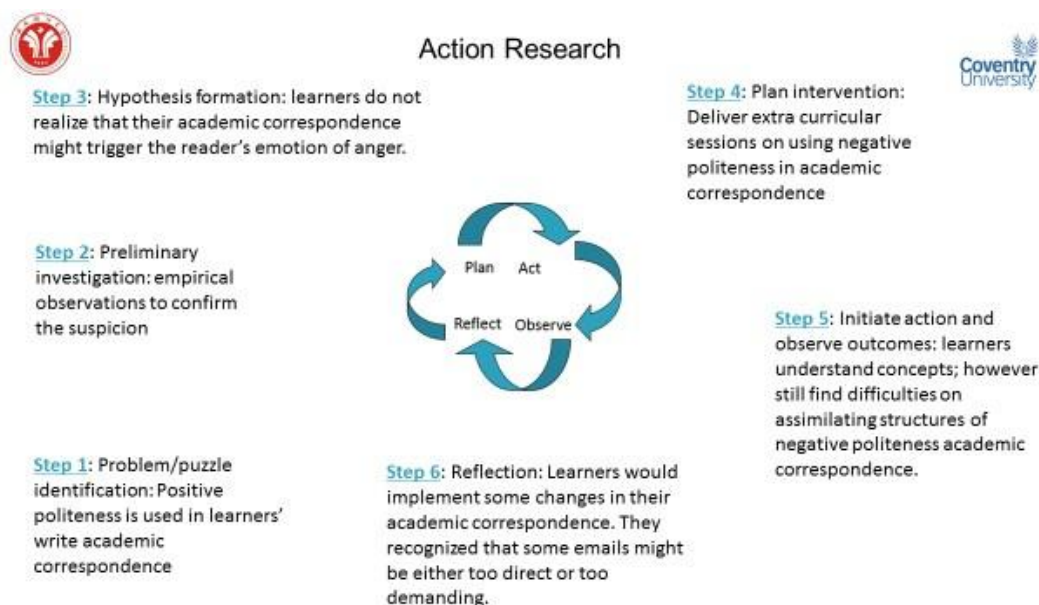


Fig. 4 The action research cycle

This follows the general objective of action research studies, which is designed to improve practice (Burns 2010) or as Kemmis & McTaggart (1988) state "action research will lead to improvement evaluating the results of strategies in practice"; that is, action research is carried out by classroom practitioners; is collaborative in nature; and is aimed at bringing about change.

This study is based on a series of workshops, which are part of the programme's extracurricular activities; therefore, it was not compulsory to students to attend. However, attendance during the sessions was uniform between 17-20 students.

During the research, the cultural context was valued hence the author's sensitivity to the students' attitudes, views and needs were enhanced. Learners became deeply involved in their learning process however, the main challenge was to get students to write academic correspondence using negative politeness. The researcher's L1 is Spanish that is characterized by the use of positive politeness strategies in its linguistic structure (Escandell 1996, Alba De Diego,

Vidal 1994; Alcón Soler & Martínez-Flor 2008 and Haverkate 1984, among others) as it is also the case in Chinese; therefore the researcher could understand the transition from positive to negative politeness in academic correspondence.

Learners' academic correspondence via email or WeChat was clearly distinguished by the use of positive politeness; therefore, their content might have been inferred as demanding and/or imposing by negative politeness academics (Fig. 2).

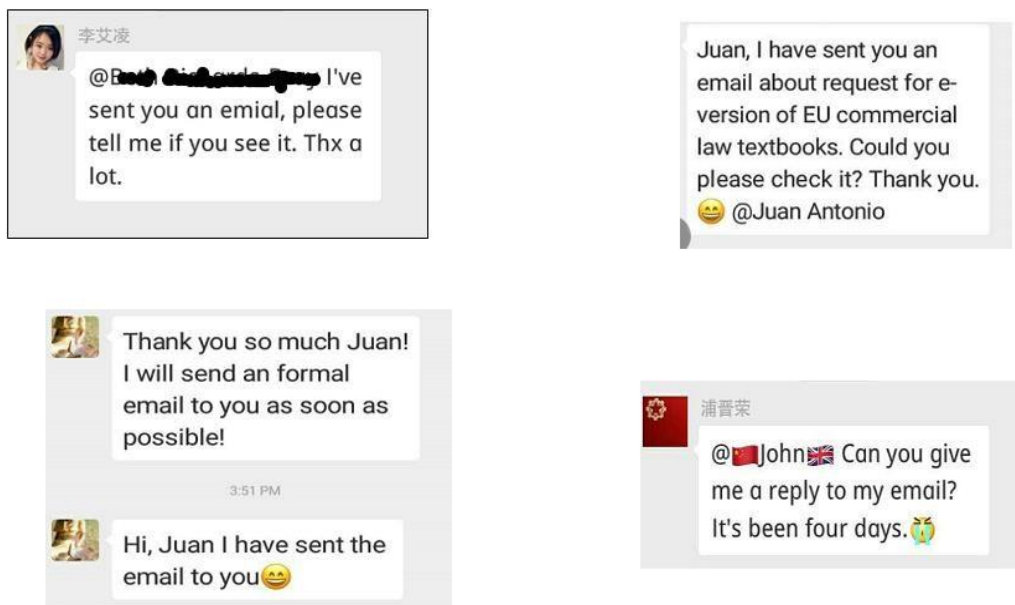


Fig. 5 Students' pressure on lecturers

Figure 5 shows how persistent students are in the communication with their lecturers. It also shows that the reader might have inferred "a remainder" as demanding and imposing; whereas learners might have implied the desire of having their wants considered, as Brown & Levinson articulate on their definition of negative and positive face:

Negative face:

"The basic claim to territories, personal preserves, right to non-distraction / to freedom of action and freedom from imposition or the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others."

Positive face:

"The want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others." (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61)

The workshops focused on delivering specific pragmatic knowledge to help students to enhance using of negative politeness in their academic correspondence. Moreover, it was also suggested students to Cc me on their academic correspondence to other lecturers. The researcher started a "dialogue" with his students and decided to give both, general feedback during the sessions and individual feedback during office hours. The researcher tried to avoid the well-known "sandwich feedback" and instead attempted to elude negative politeness on the feedback given. During the feedback sessions, the researcher was acting as language enhancer through: a) ensuring learners have a true sense of their language needs and strengths; b) providing useful written and verbal feedback based on reducing the perception of FTAs by the readers; and c) creating opportunities for language practice. Both, workshops and feedback sessions, involved students to practice and enhancing their e-mails. Moreover, students were advice to take their time when writing an academic e-mail and most importantly, to read and re-read their writing before sending it out.

Students' responses were extremely surprising. They realised that academic correspondence is an important soft skill for employability purposes. Learners linked their degree with the extracurricular activity bridging them with their future career development. The workshops were not compulsory therefore, students did not have final written assignment.

In order to apply pedagogic approach to the exercises given, individual samples were used during the workshops. Through this initiative, students were able to do some peer revision and evaluation of their exercises. More importantly, all students were included in the opportunities of practicing writing throughout the teaching-learning process and the recognition of their efforts.

We used *Open Moodle* as academic tool. Students had, therefore, a solid platform to review, post, comment, practice and communicate with me and between themselves. Moreover, *Open Moodle* offered students the flexibility they needed in those cases where they were unable to attend the sessions.

The data collected generated from the evolution of the teaching and learning process. Most data were collected from original and authentic e-mails and WeChat academic correspondence. Students' comments on their feedback were also collected. Two mini teaching and learning surveys were conducted at the beginning and at the end of the sessions to

monitor students understanding of their progress. By the end of the term, the data collection methods were triangulated. Data were collected from a number of different sources: conversations, learners' questions, emails, feedback, lecturers' feedback and opinions; therefore, increasing the reliability and validity of the research.

A case record was kept of the data collected for easy reference according to the following categories:

1. Class mini-surveys
2. Pre-workshop exercises
3. Students – lecturer informal conversations
4. Lecturers' emails to class
5. Students' emails to lecturers
6. Students' comments on workshop learning

The data provided a solid basis for me to acknowledge the students' learning progress and to evaluate the effectiveness of the research.

The findings strongly suggested that students were involved in their learning process. The data show that learners understood the principle of indirectness and ambiguity in academic writing correspondence. Students realized that their academic correspondence should show a trusting and mutual respect relationship between them and their lectures. This was important because it provided validity and justification for the extra-curricular workshops. It was noticed that students were continually practicing their academic correspondence writing. This continuous practice will also help them enhancing their language proficiency. According to the results of the initial survey, over 80% of the students expected to improve their academic writing skills; 86% of the students thought that their academic correspondence was polite; 92% that it was friendly; and 94% that it was clear. The survey showed that students' academic correspondence was dominated by positive politeness. At the end of the workshops the survey showed that over 95% of the students improved their correspondence language's skills; 91% spent more time in the process of writing academic correspondence; 93% re-read their writing before sending it out; and 95% used some negative politeness strategies in their academic correspondence. However, students still find difficult and complicated to send professional academic correspondence without including positive politeness; lecturers could inferred it as demanding of imposing and therefore triggering a mild irritation of anger. (16) shows a clear example on how students' e-mails are still dominated by positive politeness and close, friendly relationship with the lecturer.

(16) Email about reference letter – See screenshot below.






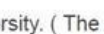
#### Email about the reference letter



 <swupl201602@163.com>

Tue 07/05/2019 17:21

To: Juan Caldero Cornejo <aa9959@coventry.ac.uk>

Dear Juan,

This is Yu  from 2016 cohort. My student number is 201602. We have discussed about my reference letter a few weeks ago. I am so sorry that I need the reference letter by May 24th. Since I may get a postgraduate recommendation from , I plan to participate in the summer camp of   University and  University. ( The summer camp will have several examinations. If I pass these exams, it is easier for me to enter these two universities.) Applicants for this summer camp need to provide two reference letters. So, I wonder if I could make an appointment with you as soon as possible.

I promise that I will not give this reference letter to the agency. The agency is not responsible for my application to other universities in China. Once I get the reference letter, I will print it out and post it to  University and  University by May 30th. So don't worry about that.

I am looking forward to your reply. Thank you!

Best wishes,

Yu 

(16) illustrates students' difficulty in the process of adaptation from using of positive politeness to the alternative use of negative politeness. Students were encouraged to ask questions, to stimulate motivation and promote active learning. Individual queries were answered, clarified common misconceptions and kept the learning group informed of additional reading for better understanding of the sessions.

It is important to use the cycle of reflective research to bring about changes in own practice contributing to growing autonomy in the curricula. Although this action research was not as rigorous as other educational studies; A great sense of achievement was gained in guiding students in their academic correspondence writing.

Students' e-mails turned out to be of multiple varieties. Students focused on creative writing rather than academic

writing (16). Students who were enrolled in the SINO-UK international programme should have had extra direct and succinct feedback from academics. Constructive criticism feedback would be important for both lectures and extra-curricular sessions. This would have been another source of encouragement and motivation for students. At the end of the extra-curricular activity, the research surprised to find that learners' efforts were actively put in practice their learning. However, due to the nature of the extra-curricular sessions, students might not have been as motivated as the compulsory lectures and seminars of the programme.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study has found lack of awareness on politeness on learners' academic correspondence with the possible outcome of triggering of the emotion of mild irritation of the reader. The paper shows improvements on the understanding of students' use of negative politeness in their e-mails. However, (16) demonstrates that students still find difficult adapting themselves to the use of negative politeness strategies in their academic correspondence. Learners find certain degree of confusion and unawareness on the use of negative politeness in their academic correspondence.

Chinese learners of L2 English found that positive politeness is a respectful way to address their readers in the sense that learners are not considered lecturers but rather friends.

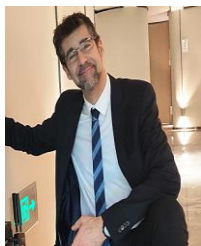
Most individuals are unfamiliar with the legal domain legal domain of speaking and writing. They would need language professional/linguistics to help them. That is, Chinese learners of L2 English are also unfamiliar using negative politeness in academic correspondence; these students could improve their communication skills attending session on pragmatics.

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**Juan Caldero** was born in Madrid, Spain in 1971. He graduated with First-Class Degree in Political Science and Law at University Complutense in Madrid (Spain) in 1993. He has several Post-Graduate courses: MA in Diplomacy, Law and Global Change and MA in European Studies at Coventry University in Coventry (UK) in 1999/2000. MA in Teaching Second Language as Foreign Language at Alcala University in Madrid (Spain) in 2010. He successfully achieved his PhD in Education at University Complutense in Madrid (Spain) in 2016.

He is currently Lecturer in Legal English – English for Specific Purposes – in the School of Business and Law, Coventry University, Coventry, UK based at South West University of Political Science and Law in Chongqing, China since 2016

Previously, he taught different disciplines such as Language in the World, International Law, Pre-sessional English and Add-Vantage courses at Coventry University (UK). He has lectured at both undergraduate and postgraduate level at Coventry University, University of Warwick and University of Leicester.

Dr. Caldero research focuses on Politeness and Intercultural Communication; in particular face-threatening acts in requests. His research applies to modules such: linguistics and translation; first and second language acquisition; discourse analysis and language and the mind. Dr. Caldero has keen interest in Cooperative Online Learning (COIL) among academia.

Dr. Caldero is a member of the Erasmus Project *Hook up! Language Learning Gateway* (142782-LLP-1-2008-1-luerasmus-evc)

Dr. Caldero was awarded Higher Education Professional Practice at Coventry University (UK) in 2013 and Senior Fellow of the Higher Education Academy at Coventry University (UK) in 2020.

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**Lin Sun** was born in Sichuan, China in 1983. She graduated with First-Class Degree in Xi'an Shiyong University majored in English in 2006, and obtained master degree in Southwest University of Political Science and Law in Forensic Linguistics in 2012, currently she is teaching while conducting doctoral research in Economic Law in Southwest University of Political Science and Law. The domain for her research is legal translation, language teaching and antitrust law.

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# Bilingual Education: Features & Advantages

Najat A. Muttalib M. Jawad

College of Tourism Sciences, Mustansiriyah University, Baghdad, Iraq

**Abstract**—Bilingual Education is teaching an academic subject in two languages, i.e. a mother language (first language L1) and a second language (L2), with various amounts in an instructed program models. The early viewpoint about the brain tends to assert that learning an L2 negatively affects the L1 by dismissing it outside the brain, and it emphasizes that the idea of bilingualism creates a problem in the teaching process. The late researches on bilingualism disapprove the conclusions of the early researches come with and make it clear that persons who speak two languages (bilinguals) have cognitive merits much more than those who speak just one language (monolinguals). As for bilingual education in recent times, there are still contradictory opinions. Some believe that learning the first language (L1) will not hurt the second one (English) and that new knowledge learned in L1 will gradually transfer to the second language, English. On the other side, some maintain that developing the L1 will essentially affect the learners' progress in English learning if they don't get full English immersion. Moreover, bilingualism cannot obtain easily and that is all. To keep high-level bilingualism, learner of two languages (the bilingual person) needs to use both languages constantly and with great effort. Learning a foreign language leads to learning a different culture that widens understanding and develops humanity. And the ability to use the second language and the second culture is considered a means to achieve creative capabilities.

**Index Terms**—bilingual, education, second language, learning, foreign language, bilingualism, cognitive merits

## I. INTRODUCTION

“One brain, two languages, many advantages,” (antonella@ling.ed.ac.uk). Bilingual Education is to use a second or foreign language in school for teaching content subjects, (Richards & Schmidt, 2002 cited in Wanwei, 2010 re-quoted from Sheng Deren, 2003, p.113).

Bilingual Education includes “teaching academic content in two languages, in a native and secondary language with varying amounts of each language used with the program model.” (Wikipedia, 2011) A foreign or second language is being used in a school, as an example, for the teaching of content subjects (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p.54).

The dual culture, as defined by the free encyclopedia, contains academic subjects taught in two languages, the native (mother) tongue, and another language, with various quantities from each language used simultaneously with a specified program.

We will mention the different types of patterns of bilingual teaching after presenting the past and the present viewpoints concerning learning another language and how the negative attitude toward learning a foreign language changed and tended to be replaced by a positive one (ibid.).

According to Prof. Wu Youfu's opinion (Wanwei, 2010 re-quoted from Sheng Deren, 2003, p.85), the main purpose of bilingual teaching is to enable learners to use foreign thinking and to speak English without interpretation.

Gao Yihong (2001 cited in Wanwei, 2010) says that “language learning is a lifelong and lasting process with both intelligence advancement and personality growth,” and urges learners to be in continuous interaction with them and with the world.

To show the features and advantages of bilingual education, the research will deal with the following points:

- The idea which was, and is much less these days, common, is that bilingual teaching is of no use for teaching.
- The early researches in bilingualism emphasized this negative viewpoint referring that the performance of the monolingual learners (speaking one language) is better than that of the bilingual learners (speaking two languages) on the level of the cognitive and educational tasks.
- Later on, it becomes clear that this is not the way the brains work; on the contrary, languages are related to each other through a central processing unit which measures help to learn two or more languages.
- The late researches on bilingualism disapprove the conclusions of the early researches come with and make it clear that persons who speak two languages have **cognitive merits** much more than those who speak just one language.

As for bilingual education in recent times, there are still contradictory opinions. Some believe that learning the L1 (first language) will not hurt the second language (English learning) and that knowledge newly learned in L1 will transfer over time to their new language, English (Wanwei, 2010).

On the other hand, others believe that developing the L1 will ultimately affect the progress in English learning if students don't get full English immersion (English Week, 1999 re-quoted from Sherine, cited in ibid.).

After concerning with the advantages and the “positive” disadvantages of being bilingual, the researcher will explain briefly the program models of Bilingual Educations and Instruction.

## II. THE EARLY RESEARCHES IN BILINGUALISM

There is sometimes, especially among those who speak one language, the concept that bilingualism is of no benefit for learning. This idea is almost based on two concepts, namely "extreme comprehension" and "language confusion", and the belief which is still common that language learning fits only academic learners ([www. Language Enhancing the Achievement of Pasifika](http://www.LanguageEnhancingtheAchievementofPasifika.com)).

The early researches concerning bilingualism, which appeared between 1920 and 1960 and which seem to support this idea, maintain that generally bilingualism leads to a cognitive disability and a decline in intelligence quotient (IQ), and even a mental handicap (ibid.).

These studies relate to children who know two languages to idioms like "mental confusion" or "language handicap". They generally show that the children till three years of age with a single language do better than their bilingual peers in different tasks of practical or non-practical intelligence (ibid.).

Since 1960 the preceding studies are largely refuted because such studies are based on a wrong conception of what is happening inside the brain. They are given the title of the **separate underlying proficiency** (SUP) model. Baker and Prys Jones (1998 cited in [www. Language Enhancing the Achievement of Pasifika](http://www.LanguageEnhancingtheAchievementofPasifika.com)) say that this separate underlying proficiency views the mind as if containing two languages each of which is in a separate house, like two balloons, or two sets of scales. In this model (Balance Theory of ballons), the two language rooms have a limited capacity for storing, and by the effect, we describe the efficiency of a monolingual mind. The previously limited attitude towards the mind leads some people to believe that learning more than one language creates imbalance by displacing the other language from the mind “pushing out the other language” (ibid.)<sup>1</sup>

The brain works in a very different way. Jim Cummins (2004), an eminent bilingual and second language researcher, developed a model that portrays accurately the processes of the mind which are related to the acquisition of a second language. It is called the **common underlying proficiency** (CUP).

CUP or Iceberg Analogy shows this proficiency as two icebergs floating on the water surface, while they are one iceberg under the surface of the water - which means that these two languages are different visibly and in dialogues, even though they are united inside mind which is the place where the person stores the two (or more) languages he learned. The two languages work through a **single central processing system**, in which they both contribute to access, and use. (For more information consult Baker, 2006, Pp167-170, and Baker and Burns, 1998 cited in [www. Language Enhancing the Achievement of Pasifika](http://www.LanguageEnhancingtheAchievementofPasifika.com))

Baker (2006, ibid.) stresses that the language learners use in the class needs to develop in an efficient way to meet the challenges of advanced perception and comprehension. Moreover, he adds, speaking, listening, reading, and writing in the L1 and L2 (second language) help to develop the total cognitive system.

Nonetheless, if the learner works on developing the L2 without studying the L1 (as the case is always with the common teaching methodologies), this system will not function at its best (ibid.). Moreover, researches have shown that writers would transfer their writing abilities and strategies, whether good or bad from their first language to the second (Friedlander, 1997)

When one or two languages are not functioning perfectly: for example, the undesirable view of learning a foreign language through the original language or the pressure to replace the native language with a foreign one. That will negatively affect cognitive performance and academic achievement (ibid.).

In short, the viewpoint still adopted by so many people about bilingualism in the mind as treating languages being in different boxes in the brain, with a limited relationship with the practical capacity, has been defeated completely by the common underlying proficiency. The CUP model spread and attracted the attention of researchers since the sixties of the twentieth century due to the wide knowledge and studies that deal with the mental system together with the academic studies in bilingualism.

CUP is also supported by facts from life among the contexts of bilingual speakers. That is the majority of people speak two languages, and like all groups of people in the world, they are tested to various levels of academic and intelligence capacities without any effect on their capacity of the second language. This means that the insisting negative attitude towards bilingualism cannot be attributed but to monolingual speakers' lack of knowledge and unfamiliarity with bilingualism.

## III. THE POSITIVE DISADVANTAGES OF LEARNING TWO LANGUAGES

<sup>1</sup>However, the limitations of early studies related to two reasons ([www.LEAP.com](http://www.LEAP.com))

a. The context is not taken in consideration and in a precise way, for the samples of the bilingual learners are out of the real atmospheres of the languages, so it is not bilingualism that presents them in an inconvenient situation.

b. There is no precise comparison between the cognitive capacity of the bilingual learners and the learners of a single language, for this requires that all should be equal in social, economic states, gender, age, type of school, and the rural and urban atmospheres, (and all these are not found in the early studies).



As many of us share the idea of the superiority of bilingual learning or the belief we are told by the mass media and the scientific studies, the real evidence is unsettled. Dr. Ellen Bialystock, a professor of psychology at York University, has been studying the beginnings and the origin of bilingualism for about forty years. She and her team have found evidence on both sides of the argument of bilingualism. They find that the children speaking more than one language continuously (bilinguals), have relatively little lingual loss or disability but also they possess merits and cognitive gains in comparison with those speaking one language (monolinguals) (Guirgis & Olson<sup>2</sup>).

These studies also find out that bilingual speakers have disadvantages in comparison to monolingual speakers concerning the total number of the lexical vocabulary of the language. That is monolinguals have a vocabulary of their mother language more than that of the bilinguals have in each language they know. Besides, the time (in milliseconds) which the bilingual speaker takes to think of remembering certain words is slightly longer than that of the monolingual speaker takes. It is the same feeling you have when you think of a word and you hardly find it to express what you want. It is the experience almost the bilingual speaker faces. These disadvantages of bilingualism may be attributed to the speakers' attempt to solve the cognitive conflict of choosing a word from the suitable language rather than simply choosing the suitable word as the monolingual speaker does (ibid.).

Despite this, the effort the brain exerts in reconciling this "joint activation" in both languages leads to cognitive advantages the bilinguals gain more than the monolinguals. The bilingual speakers have relatively stronger executive control. This means that they enhance the cognitive capacities in areas (in the mind) which do not harm linguistics, but on the contrary, they have a total domain on cognitive functions. This supporting executive control encourages the bilingual's capability in various fields, such as memory-work, suppressing the negative feelings, the flexibility of comprehending, and doing many tasks. The bilingual speakers, in particular, do better in tasks that are related to specifying problems (tracing conflicts), a proficiency that a person practiced much when he tries to use vocabulary from a dictionary and avoids at the same time using the vocabulary of another language (ibid.).

To understand what happens inside the brain of the bilingual, it is useful to know the **neuroplasticity** which describes the state of our brains during our life. The relationship among the brain cells becomes stronger or weaker through reorganizing information, learning, or getting older. The neuroplasticity tells us why those who received brain strokes are liable to recover at least partially, and why those who are handicap with one of the senses (weakness of sight for instance) can sometimes develop a stronger capacity of another sense (stronger hearing for example). The center of the **executive control** of the brain is the main part that is responsible for handling the two languages and solving conflicts. When the children learn two languages and use them, (they adjust and select the use of the vocabulary from the suitable language in a suitable time). They practice and strengthen executive function through the neuroplasticity in their brains (ibid.).

#### IV. ADVANTAGES OF BILINGUALISM AND ACCULTURATION

One of the professors of the Chinese University of Wuhan for sciences and Technology, Wanwei (2010) starts his article with Mahatma Gandhi's famous saying that portrays his country as his own house and the different cultures as the winds blowing through his house:

*I do not want my house to be walled in on all sides and my windows to be stuffed. I want the cultures of all lands to be blown about my house as freely as possible. But I refuse to be blown off my feet by any.*

MahatmaGandhi

(qt from Deena R. Levine et al *Beyond Culture* 1982)

What is obvious here is that the educated person learns different languages and knows various cultures, but at the same time he doesn't allow these languages and cultures to eradicate his original language or hide his culture by adopting a different language or embracing foreign culture.

The writer (Wanwei, 2010) presents two contrasting theories or two different trends in his country: The first is that learning English is achieved by speaking English in all fields of daily life. This even extends to thinking in English. As for the other trend, it stands against learning English and shows its negative effect on persons which will divert the political orientation and the advancement in the social system towards those who speak this language.

Wanwei (ibid.) criticizes both ideas and refuses them and he presents his ideas about the viewpoints of the writers concerning bilingualism.

Vivian Cook (1999) says that learning a second language makes people think with more flexibility and widens their cognitive capacity and leads to a better attitude towards different cultures. This can almost be noticed among the benefits of learning a different language. Cook adds that learning another language changes people in different ways. The language that remains side by side with the person will have its impact on him/her and it will be affected by him/her.

One of the German philosophers (Goethe) says that the person who knows one language does not know it well unless he knows another language for bilingualism is an important linguistic and intellectual achievement (Cummins, Jim cited in Wanwei, 2010). Another writer says that learning another language makes the person think with two minds instead of

<sup>2</sup> Kristina R. Olson, Ph.D., is an Assistant Professor of Psychology and Cognitive Science at Yale University.

one. "Being bilingual has become a vital aspect for becoming a successful professional", by making bilingualism the main element in education (Madrinan, 2014, p.51)

Wanwie (2010) adds that it is not a horrible thing to learn another language for people in most of the nations of the world who speak two languages or more (multilingual). Bilingualism contains the theory of acculturation for besides learning another language there is learning another culture. The use of two languages together is not something easy to attain just all of a sudden, but it is a learning process that requires great effort.

One of the linguistics, Kornakov (2000) says that " bilingualism is a vital process with four stages:

1. Establishing bilingualism either naturally or through learning.
2. Stable bilingualism (forming the construction from the knowledge of these two languages).
3. The process of losing bilingualism (losing one of the two languages through forgetting or little use).
4. Lost Bilingualism (total loss of one or two of the language proficiency).

Moreover, bilingualism is classified in terms of proficiency as **balanced** bilingualism (equal proficiency), **dominant** bilingualism (one higher than the other), **semi-bilingualism** (both low efficiency), prestigious bilingualism (both high-status languages), **multilingualism** (three or more languages). (<http://www.blss.portsmouth.sch.uk/typesofbil.shtml>)

As for the classification of bilinguals: 1) elite bilinguals; 2) children from linguistic majorities; 3) children from bilingual families; 4) children from linguistic minorities. (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1984, pp.75-80) quoted from Peter K. Kornakov, 2000)

Here are different classifications of bilinguals depended on various interests of researchers in this field. For example, **early** and **late bilinguals** depend on the age of acquisition of bilingualism. Further, subdivide of early bilinguals are divided into **simultaneous** (two languages acquired simultaneously as L1) and **sequential bilinguals** (L2 acquired after L1). From a different side, there are **elite bilinguals** (who choose to study L2) and **natural bilinguals** (grow up in multilingual communities), that are concerned about the environment of acquisition of bilingualism. (Valdes, Guadalupe cited in Wanwei, 2010).

Additionally, in terms of the time of language acquisition, Ernie Smith (cited in Wanwei, 2010) suggests another classification in terms of proficiency, i.e. **active bilingualism** or **passive bilingualism**. When men comprehend two languages but speak only one of them they are considered to be **passive** bilinguals, but when they both comprehend and speak two languages they are considered to be **active** bilinguals (Ernie Smith).

Bilingualism cannot obtain easily and that is all. To keep a high level of bilingualism, the Learner of two languages (bilingual) needs to use both languages constantly and with great effort. (Wanwei, 2010).

With the development of bilingualism, biculturalism is certainly to appear. Baetens Beardsmore (1986, p.23 cited in Wanwei, 2010) says: "The further one progresses in bilingual ability, the more important the bicultural element becomes since higher proficiency increases the expectancy rate of sensitivity towards the cultural implications of language use." Developing the ability in practicing two languages (being bilingual) leads to evaluate the bicultural elements in both languages, i.e. increase of the rate of sensitivity towards the cultural implications of language use.

According to the program of acculturation of Shawman (1978 cited in Wanwei, 2010) there are three ways of exchanging cultures: 1) assimilation, 2) preservation, 3) adaptation.

The degree of each of the above-mentioned ways is decided by the social and the psychological distances between the learner and the 1L culture. The immersion is achieved when the learner adopts the 2L and its culture completely. That will result in learning English well but will end in a single language or a single culture, for he will indulge himself with the second culture and will be unable to keep any form of his native culture, language, and identity.

As for the preservation which is the opposite of assimilation for the learner preserves his first language, identity, and his native culture and refuses the second language and every group that is related to it. This will result in a weak level and a poor culture of English. This is also called "fossilization". As for the adaptation, it is moderation in adopting two languages and their various cultures.

Landry (1987, cited in Wanwei, 2010), a linguist, says that complete bilingualism is a phenomenon that is characterized by:

1. A high level of professionalism in the aspects of reasonable academic understanding in both languages.
2. Preserving the knowledge identity of his native language and the positive beliefs towards its culture while believing in a positive view of the other language.
3. An opportunity to learn two languages open-mindedly.

To be specific, Wanwei (2010) says that fruitful bilingualism leads to 1) improving language proficiency, 2) better understanding, analysis, and evaluation, 3) intensive sensitivity of other's needs and emotions, 4) making a deep view upon second culture identity, 5) stronger creative ability, and 6) personality growth.

All in all, Gao (cited in *ibid.*) refers that the control over the second language and the native one in a positive way strengthen each other and results in a deep understanding and an estimation of the national culture.

## V. TYPES OF BILINGUAL LEARNING PROGRAMS

Programs of bilingual teaching are so many and various but we are going to mention the most prominent types and a brief account of how each of them works [www.ncela.gwu.edu](http://www.ncela.gwu.edu).

*A. First: The Programs That Focus on the Development of the Narrative Composition of the Learner in Both Languages*

1. Two-way Immersion Program or Two-way Bilingual Program
  - a. The aim is to improve proficiency and efficiency in the mother language L1 and English L2 (dual-language program).
  - b. It includes learners who have backgrounds in L1 and L2.
  - c. The bilingual teaching starts with little percentage and gradually reaches the middle of both languages.
  - d. The learners stay in this program during their primary studies.
2. Developmental Bilingual Program, or Late –Exist Transitional or Maintenance Bilingual Education Program:
  - a. The aim is to improve certain skills or efficiencies in the first language and the more advanced and well-perceived skills in the second language. The subject is taught in both languages, and the teacher masters the two languages.
  - b. Teaching to a lesser degree in the first language and gradually shifts to English. The learners share classes that speak English with classmates who use English fluently.
  - c. The variation in the program concentrates on different levels of composing in the first language and the learners gradually and continuously receive supporting levels in the first language after shifting to the second language.
3. Early-exist Bilingual Program, or Early-exist transitional Program:
  - a. The aim is to improve efficiency in English and its skills quickly by teaching learners an academic subject.
  - b. Teaching starts with the first language but shifts quickly to English.
  - c. The learners shift quickly and in a noticeable way to English with their classmates who speak English.
4. Heritage language Program: Indigenous Language Program:
  - a. The aim is the narrative composition in both languages.
  - b. Teaching the two languages by a teacher who masters both of them.
  - c. The main subject is to concentrate on those who do not speak English and who are weak in the literary native language.
  - d. It was called the indigenous language because it started in the societies of the American Indians and the program is supported by the languages threatened by extinction and is offered to learners who are weak in comprehension and creative skills of L1.
5. Program of Foreign Languages, or Foreign Language Immersion (Full or Partial):
  - a. It concentrates on learners who are weak in, or lack, lingual education.
  - b. In the program of foreign languages, the language is the only area of learning.
  - c. In the immersion program of language it is possible to teach other subjects in the target language L2.
  - d. The aim is to develop proficiency in the second language.

*B. Second: The Programs that Focus on the Development of the Narrative Composition in English Only*

1. Sheltered English Instruction (SI) or Content-based English as a second language (ESL) Program:
  - a. The aim is to improve skillfulness in English and the material taught contains all English grammar.
  - b. learners from different languages and cultures in the same class.
  - c. Teaching is adapted following the aim of the learner's proficiency in English and it is supported by the first language.
  - d. There are fully developed various kinds of this program among which are: Sheltered Instruction Observational Protocol (SIOP), and Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE)
2. Structured English Immersion (SEI):
  - a. The aim is fluency in English, it is usually offered to learners of English only.
  - b. All teaching in English is to raise the level of the learners' efficiency incomprehension.
  - c. Teachers have to master language skills and use them in preservative instructional methods.
3. English Language development (ELD):
  - a. English Language learners leave English classes as ESL which focus on grammar and vocabulary and communicative skills, and not as an academic subject.
  - b. Generally no support for learners from their native language.
4. Push-in ESL program:
  - a. The aim is Fluency in English.
  - b. The learners join the classes of spoken English in which teaching and directions are in English with little help of the native language if necessary.
  - c. The teacher of English as a second language gives explanations and translation if necessary and uses English strategies.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

- Bilingualism and multilingualism are possible since people have the capacity of storing more than one language so easily inside the mind and using them so smoothly.

- The proficiencies of using information and educational targets may develop in two languages or one language. Both channels feed the same working central unit.
- If the learner works on developing the L2 without studying the L1 (as the case is always with the common teaching methodologies), this system never works in the desired way.
- Acculturation appears gradually with bilingualism for the more the learner advances in his ability to use two languages the more he acquires their cultures.
- Learning a foreign language leads to learning a different culture that widens the understanding and develops humanity.
- An open viewpoint and a genuine tendency to understand the new culture will improve the native one, elevation and communicative efficiency, critical evaluation of the first and the second cultures.
- The ability to use the second language and the second culture is considered a means to achieve creative capabilities.
- A variety of forms are introduced for each function of 2L, i.e. to learn about cohesion and coherence which makes learners more proficient in 2L.

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**Najat A. Muttalib M. Jawad** was born in Baghdad, Iraq on 27/3/1977. She graduated from the University of Baghdad, College of Arts, Department of English in 1999. She has got M.A. in Linguistics and Translation from the same college in 2004, Baghdad, Iraq.

She has taught the English language for special purposes ESP in the department of Tourism in the College of Administration & Economics, Mustansiriyah University (2005-2012), since she has been assigned there as an Assistant Lecturer. She had a promotion to be a Lecturer in 2011. In 2016 she has got a promotion to be an Assistant Professor in the College of Tourism Sciences, Mustansiriyah University. She has been teaching English as a foreign language.

Assist. Prof. Jawad has ten published research papers, the last one, "Methods of Teaching and Training Translators", has been published in www.ijcc.net Vol.12, Issue 4, July 2020. Finally, the theoretical subject of her M.A. thesis, "English Punctuation Marks" has been published in www.ijsr.net Vol.9, Issue 3, March 2020.

# Linguistic Variation and Change in Nawfija Speech Community

Nwagalaku Chineze

Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Obiora Harriet Chinyere

Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

Christopher Chinedu Nwike<sup>1</sup>

Department of Linguistics, Igbo and Other Nigerian Languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

**Abstract**—The focus of this study is on linguistic change and variation in the Nawfija speech community. It distinguished dialect from other similar words and contrasted the traditional Igbo dialect with the Nawfija dialect of the Igbo language on an equal footing. The types of dialectal variations found in the Igbo Nawfija dialect were investigated in this study, as well as the question of dialect supremacy. For the creation of standard Igbo, some suggestions have been made.

**Index Terms**—language, linguistic variation, standard variety of Igbo and Nawfija variety of Igbo language

## I. INTRODUCTION

The empirical study of language is referred to as linguistics. In other words, it is concerned with the systematic study of languages, as languages vary in terms of their origins, varieties, and status. From this vantage point, it's easy to see how language is constantly changing. Language dynamism refers to both language transition and language loss, not just variation that leads to dialect. According to (<http://en.citizendium.org/wiki/linguisticvariation>), linguistic variation is the degree of discrepancies between various languages around the world, and this field of study can be considered a branch of linguistics research. The linguistic difference between speakers of a language is what one might claim occurs mainly in pronunciation/accent in relation to the study of language and culture. It can also be related to word/lexicon selection and, ultimately, a preference for a certain grammatical pattern.

### The Concept of Speech Community

Speech is a key discourse of sociolinguistic phenomena. A speech culture, according to Olaoye (2007), is a group of people who share the same values, norms, attitudes, and other aspects of language use and structure. They both have similar perspectives on speech laws and perception. Speech is a major sociolinguistic discourse. Olaoye (2007) defines a speech culture as a community of people who have similar beliefs, norms, attitudes, and other aspects of language use and structure. They have a common outlook on speech laws and interpretation. Given the foregoing context, the focus of this research is on linguistic variation and shift in the Nawfija speech culture, which can be viewed as a dialect variation of the Igbo language. The Nawfija dialect, a variant of the Igbo language, is the subject of this research. Nawfija is a town in Anambra State's Orumba South Local Government Area. The aim of this study is to achieve the following objectives.

1. Identification of the linguistic variations in the Nawfija speech community
2. To show that this variation is not substandard Igbo Language but rather a variant of Igbo Language due to regional factors.
3. To identify and analyze the types of variation in Nawfija dialect of Igbo Language.

The scope of this study is as follows:

1. Comparison of Nawfija dialect and the Standard Igbo
2. The differences in meaning in these two dialects of Igbo Language
3. The different types of dialect variation

The significance of this study shall be of much relevance in the following ways:

1. Serve as enlightenment not only to the native speakers of Nawfija dialect but also to the users of Igbo Language in general.
2. It will serve as a reference material to other researchers in related fields
3. It will also bring to light features that are peculiar to the dialect which may contribute to the development of Igbo language and perhaps to general linguistics theory.

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<sup>1</sup> Corresponding email: [nwikechristopher1@gmail.com](mailto:nwikechristopher1@gmail.com)

The data for this research work was gathered through an oral interview and informal conversation. Information on the town's history was gathered using these methods, and some differences in the narration of words in the Nawfija dialect were noticed. A hundred-word compilation was also used to see whether there were any differences in the names of these words in the Nawfija dialect.

## II. DEFINITION OF SOME IMPORTANT TERMS AND TERMINOLOGIES

### A. *Language*

Human language is a means of human communication that allows people to share their opinions, emotions, and ideas. Language is a means of communication used by humans that includes speech and writing, according to Anagbogu, Eme, and Mbah (2001). They went on to say that language is a type of communication in which people use writing systems, signs, or symbols to communicate their thoughts, feelings, emotions, and desires.

### B. *Dialect*

Dialect refers to a group of people's unique way of speaking a language that differs from the standard. The literal sense of the word "dialect" and its linguistic meaning, according to Akmajian, Demers, and Harnish (2004), are in stark contrast. According to him, a dialect is a substandard use of a language, or, in other words, an incomplete, corrupt, or pure form of a standard language. It refers to a distinct type of a language in linguistics and does not carry any such judgment.

### C. *Variation*

Variation is a change especially in the amount or level of something. It can also be said to be a thing that is different from other things in the same group. So, variation in dialects can be said to be different in the dialects of the same language.

### D. *Idiolect*

An idiolect is the variety of language that is spoken by each individual speaker of a language. Idiolect means the form of a language spoken by a single individual. Synonymously, it can be said that the way there is one form of language use in a particular language, so there is with language variation as it involves levels of possible divergences, shifts or differences between how words are used by a particular set group in a speech community. From the foregoing, it can be said that there cannot be two same speaker of a particular language who speaks alike. This is to say that in a speech community, individuals speak or use language in their different ways, still, they communicate and pass across information from one person to another with meaning loses. Dialects themselves are collections of idiolects and thus so are languages.

## III. EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK AND OVER VIEW

The study of linguistics variation is always evident in language study because, variance in there is human the human languages sin an individual may decide to use a language in his or her own way in different instances and occasions while another individual from same speech community will still express that same message in another way. On the part of the language use of different speakers in a particular speech community according to ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/variation\\_linguistic](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/variation_linguistic)), it can be said that the act of the language use is systemic in nature, in terms of one's pattern of pronunciations; word formation/morphology, grammar and word choices depending on the possible non-linguistic factors. However, these factors maybe as a result of the speaker's intension or purpose in which he or she is communicating. It can also be as a result of the relationship that exist between the speaker and hearer, as well as the possible structure of the population that the speaker have and finally, the production circumstances at the point the speaking is using utterances. Based on the foregoing, all these discussed factors are in turn, raise the consciousness of scholars in area of language study on the relationship and effect of language and the society, thus given rise to sociolinguistics.

In consonance with the above information, it can be said that dialect is a form of language variance that occurs in grammar and vocabulary. It can also involve variation in sound pattern. An instance a situation by which one says 'coming', and one ended up say I am coming (k<sup>^</sup>mi]), and another says 'I am coming (k mi]), one can actually understand that the difference lies on the accent. Another instance can be in a case of father (fæder) and father (fahada). In other words, when one says 'I got to go and another says that I gat to go', it can be said that it I a change that occurred due to the presence of dialect reflection of the language. In Igbo language, an instance can be drawn, where one says 'Ihe nke a Qbu osikapa, and another says, ife nke a, Qwu osikapa (is this thing rice?), it can be discovered that it is the dialectal influence that manipulates the statement where the former is in standard Igbo while the later is in the dialect of Igbo language.

### A. *Dialect Variation*

Yule (2004) defines dialectal variation as differences in dialects of a language in pronunciation, vocabulary and a different grammatical form. In line with the foregoing, Akmajian et al (2004) came up with some dialectal examples in both the American and British English. According to Akmajian et al (2004), they are:

<b>British (Terms/phrases)</b>	<b>American (Terms/phrases)</b>
Car park	Parking lot
Coach	bus
Garage	service station
Lay by	rest area
Lift	elevator
Lorry	truck
Petrol	gasoline
Undergraduate (or tube)	subway
Call box	telephone booth
Telephonist	switch board operator
Gin and French	dry martini
Minerals	soft drinks

According to Nwoga (1975), because there is no central place for a town to meet for their various interests, it then makes them lack communication with one another. This is to say that a community is therefore isolated from the others in a town for meetings of various kinds, because there is no rallying point. When this happens each community holds its meeting separately. This encourages dialect variation. Variations therefore occur in both vowels, consonants and in many cases in actual word use. As they keep meeting individually, it is only natural that new sounds will be introduced within the community bringing out variations. In his words he said that "Dialect variations are mainly pronunciation". That means that most variations in dialect are mainly because of the way they are pronounced and a slight difference in their spellings. Essien (1990) is of the view that dialect variation results from the complete diffusion of linguistic changes. Each point of difference stems ultimately from the failure of innovation to be adopted by all speakers of the language when two or more languages become sufficiently divergent, they are said to be genetically related language". Human dialect is derived from classes and is dependent on a number of factors, the most important of which seem to be social status, faith, and ethnicity," writes Wardhaugh (1993).

The discovery that variance is far from being a "defect" in language simply shows its true existence as a result of the preceding. Human language is a rule-governed structure that allows for a great deal of versatility and innovation. There is no evidence that 'non standard' dialects are less effective as a means of communication than the so-called standard language. To put it another way, linguistic diversity does not imply linguistic inferiority. Instead, the issue is the language community's attitude toward speakers of these dialects. Differentiation within a language would ultimately lead to the formation of different languages due to the force of variation and shift in a language.

### **1. Kinds of Dialectal Variation**

On aspects of language variations, focus is on grammar and society. This simply means that identifying a dialect necessitates knowledge of the dialect's phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, as well as knowledge of who speaks it.

### **2. Phonetic Variation**

A phonetic variation is described as a change in pronunciation that does not affect the phonemic level of the grammar, according to the book Language Files. There are two examples given. The following is an example of New York alveolar consonants. The alveolar consonants in some New York City dialects are routinely developed with contact between the tongue tip and the upper teeth (i.e. they are dento-alveolar), while the alveolar consonants in so-called regular dialects are not dental. The (t) in the word "two" in New York English (NYE) is formed by making contact between the tongue tip and the teeth. This is not the case in so-called Standard English. Dentals are not always recognized as alveolar consonants. Since there is no distinction between New York English and Standard English at the phonemic stage, this is a phonetic variation. Both have the same phonemics for alveolar consonants. Thus, between the two dialects, the position of articulation of (t) differs slightly. Standard English speakers only produce alveolar consonants with contact between the tongue tip and upper front teeth on rare occasions, such as in words like (tenth). In fact, the distinction is found at the allophone level rather than at the phoneme level.

### **3. Phonological Variation**

Variation in pronunciation can be found at the phoneme level or at the level of phonotactic restrictions on syllable form, for example. The sequences Cr and Cl (c stands for consonant) are forbidden in unstressed syllables in some African American English (AAE) or dialects. As a result, "professor" is "professor." This is a case of phonological variation since the word professor has a /r/ as the second phoneme in standard American English (SAE), but in AAE, /r/ is simply not permitted to appear in this position. Since we can distinguish a specific difference in phonotactics between AAE and SAE, this is a case of phonological variation.

Cl and Cr clusters are not permitted in AAE, but they are permitted in SAE. This simply means that the phonological rules of the two dialects vary significantly; specifically the inventory of possible forms varies from one to the other.

### **4. Morphology Variation**

According to 'language archives,' examples of morphological variation can be found in the speech of Northern England and Southern Wales, where the *-s/suffix* is used as a general present tense maker. In many other English dialects, */-s/* is only used to form the present tense in third person singular forms.

**Example:**

1. I likes him
2. We walks all the time

Another example comes from Appalachian English, which has a variety of non-standard past tense forms, such as 'Et' for "ate" and "her" for "heated."

**5. Syntactic Variation**

Syntactic variation, as the name implies, refers to variations in syntactic structure between dialects. The word "gone" is often used as an auxiliary in many southern dialects, as in "she done already told you" or "I done finished a while ago." This is also not the case in SAE. The use of the double modal 'I may be able to do it'. Another example is the use of so-called double negatives, such as in the phrase "I didn't see anyone."

**6. Semantic Variation**

When we speak about semantic variation, we also talk about how different dialects have different meanings for the same words, or how different words are used for the same thing in different dialects. This is more precisely known as the analysis of lexical semantic variation. That's a fancy way of saying that we're looking at word sense variation. The compound word "knocked up" is an example of a single word with several meanings. It means 'to rouse from sleep' in England and 'to make pregnant' in the United States. What one takes to the store is an example of various terms being used for the same thing. In some dialects, it is referred to as a bag, while in others, it is referred to as a sack.

**B. Dialects and the Interplay of Regional and Social Factors**

A New York City // Regional variation is only one of several forms of linguistic variation that can exist between speakers of the same language. (See <http://grammar.about.com/od/il/g/linguisticvariationterm.htm> for more information.). As previously mentioned, the regional dialect is a classic example of a dialect, with the idea that speakers of the dialect form a cohesive speech group that lives in relative isolation from speakers outside the community. Such geographical isolation is becoming increasingly uncommon, and the population of the United States as a whole is so geographically and socially mobile that speaking of regional dialects in any pure sense is becoming increasingly difficult. A particular linguistic feature of a regional dialect can be influenced by social factors, particularly in large urban areas. The pronunciation of // in New York city speech is a fascinating example of the influence of "social status" on a regional dialect. The so-called r-less dialect of New York City is so well-known that it is often mocked, particularly by New Yorkers who speak it themselves. It is a common misconception that speakers of the dialect lack // in words like car, card, four, fourth, and so on, but this is not the case, as revealed by an intriguing study by sociolinguist William Labov (1972). Labov's theory was that the pronunciation of // in New York City varies depending on one's social class. Finally, he observed a change between casual and emphatic pronunciation, but it is minor, and the distinction between casual and cautious language styles is important in syntactic variation as well.

**Mutual Intelligibility**

Knowing that idiolectal and dialectal variation exist, how do we know if two language varieties or two dialects are dialects of different language altogether? Akamajian et al (2004) answers this question based on the notion of *mutual intelligibility*. Even if native speakers of a language, such as English, use the language differently, their languages are similar enough in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar to enable mutual understanding. A New Yorker, a Texan, and a Californian may notice variations in each other's languages, but they can understand and recognize each other as speaking the same language (despite all the jokes to the contrary). As a result, speaking the "same language" does not require two speakers to speak identical languages, but rather languages that are very similar. It's worth noting instances of one-way intelligibility between speakers of distinct but traditionally related languages. Even if one group of speakers understands another, they cannot be assumed to speak the same language unless the second group understands the first; hence, reciprocal intelligibility is critical in determining if two languages are the "same." In fact, language variation is so widespread that each language is essentially a continuum of languages that varies from speaker to speaker and from group to group, with no clear distinction between them

**IV. WORD/DATA PRESENTATION**

In this section we make a presentation of the 100 word list collected during the field work. This list will form the data used for analysis.



TABLE ONE

S/N	English Language	Standard Igbo Language	Phonetic Transcription	Nwafija Dialect	Phoetic Transcription
1.	No	Mbà	/mbà/	È è èd è	èè/èd è
2.	Night	Àbàlì	/àbàlì/	ány àsù	/á àsù/
3.	Leg	Úkwú	/úkwú/	ǎkpà	/ǎkpà/
4.	What	Ginì	/ginì/	òónnù	/òòhnnù/
5.	One	Ótù	/ótù/	Mvú/nnà	/múvùnnà/
6.	Cloth	Àkwà	/àkwà/	àkwá	/àkwá/
7.	Come	B íá	/bíá/	b íá	/B íá/
8.	Now	Úgbúrà	/úgbúrà/	ùdùú	/ùdùù/
9.	Thank you	D áà ù	/d áà ù/	ìn égwó	/Imegwó/
10.	Cup	ǎkó	/k ó/	k ó	/k ó/
11.	Water	Mmiri	/mmiri/	mmiri	/m f í/
12.	Key	Nwá ígódó	/Dwá ígódó/	òtúgwó	/òtúgwó/
13.	Door	úzó	/úzó/	úzó	/úzó/
14.	Hair	Nùù	/nùù/	hùù	/Dùù/
15.	Wrapper	Úkwùàkwá	/úkwùàkwá/	ògòdò	/ògòdò/
16.	Plate	Éf é é	/é é é/	é é é	/Éf é é/
17.	Bye bye	N áà gb áóó	/n áà gb áóó/	N áà gb áóó	/n áà gb áóó/
18.	Head tie	Èh áfù	/èh áfù/	èh áfù	/èh áfù/
19.	Garden egg	An à à	/An à à/	An à á	/An à á/
20.	Stone	òkwútè	/òkwútè/	mkpúm é	/mkpúm é/
21.	Box	ǎb é	/ǎb é/	ǎkp à ì	/ǎkp à ì/
22.	Matches	Mkpá okù	/mkp áokù/	Mkpá okù	/mkp áokù/
23.	Mirro	Ènyò	/ènyò/	ènyò	/ènyò/
24.	Surrounding	Mb á á	/mb á á/	mb á á	/mb á á/
25.	Malice	Èsèmókú	/èsèmókú/	èsèmókú	/Èsèmókú/
26.	Now	Úgbúrà	/úgbúrà/	ùdùú	/ùdùù/
27.	Here	Èb éà	/èb éà/	k à	/k à/
28.	Welcome	Nnòò	/nnòò/	ndèèwó	/ndèèwó/
29.	Old person	òk ènyè	/òk ènyè/	òkènyè	/òkènyè/
30.	Plantain	Óg à ù	/òg à ù/	ùn èàk ànk ú à	/ùn èàk ànk ú à/
31.	Bitter kola	Àkítinù	/àkítinù/	ùgórò	/ùgórò/
32.	Comb	Mbó	/mbó/	mvó	/mvó/
33.	Bottle	K á á á	/k á á á/	róm	/róm/
34.	Bed	Àkwà	/àkwà/	àkwà	/Àkwà/
35.	Tree	Òsísí	/òsísí/	óshishí	/óshí/
36.	Spoon	Ng àzì	/ng àzì/	nkòbò ngàdzì	/ngkòbò ngàdzì/
37.	Hand fan	Àkùpè	/àkùpè/	àkùpè	/àkùpè/
38.	Toe	Mkpísí úkwù	/mkpísí úkwù/	múpúrú úkwù	/mkpúrú úkwù/
39.	Friend	Ènyì	/ènyì/	ényì	/ènyì/
40.	Old	Óchí é	/óchí é/	áká	/áká/
41.	Shoe	Ákpúkpú úkwù	/ákpúkpú úkwù/	ákpúkpú úkwù	/ákpúkpú úkwù/
42.	Outside	Èz í	/èz í/	èz í f ó	/Èz í f ó/
43.	Village square	Ám á	/ám á/	ám á	/ám á/
44.	Ring	Ólāáká	/ólāáká/	Ólāáká	/ólāáká/
45.	Mother	Nné	/nné/	Nné	/nné/
46.	Father	Nnà	/nnà/	Nnà	/nnà/
47.	Rope	Ùdò	/ùdò/	ùdò/ é f í	/ùdò/ é f í/
48.	That place	Èb é àhù	/èb é àhù/	b é àhù	/b é àhù/
49.	That time	Óg é àhù	/óg é àhù/	mgb é àhù	/mgb é àhù/
50.	Small	Óbéré	/óbéré/	Óbéré	/Óbéré/
51.	Fence	Óg è	/óg è/	Óg è	/Óg è/
52.	Lie	Às í	/às í/	àf í	/àf í/
53.	Farm	Úgbò	/úgbò/	Úb ì	/Úb ì/
54.	Thread	Ér í í	/ér í í/	Ér í í	/ér í í/
55.	Knife	Mm à	/mm à/	mm à	/mm à/
56.	Back	Àzú	/ázú/	Àzú	/Azú/
57.	Again	Òzó	/òzó/	Òdó	/òdó/
58.	Swallow	Òl ù ó	/òl ù ó/	Òl ù ó	/Òl ù ó/
59.	Carry it	Bùrú yā	/bùrú yā/	vùrú yā	/Vùrú yā/
60.	Head	ǎí	/s íf/	ǎí	/ǎí/
61.	Bee	Anù	/ánù/	Ánù	/Ánù/
62.	Nail	Ntú	/ntú/	ntú	/ntú/
63.	Day	Úbòch í	/úbòch í/	úbòch í	/úbòch í/
64.	Show	G òs í	/g òs í/	G òs í	/g òs í/
65.	Sickness	Or à	/or à/	Ór à	/or à/
66.	Load	ǎú	/ǎú/	ǎú	/ǎú/
67.	Stealing	Óhí	/óhí/	Óshí	/óhí/
68.	Read	G ù ó	/gù ó/	G ù ó	/gù ó/
69.	Odour	ǎí	/ǎí/	ǎí	/ǎí/

70.	Stick	Ós é í	/ós é í/	Ósh éh ímkp á á	/óʃ éʃ ímkp á á/
71.	Leadership	Óch éh í	/óʃ éʃ í/	óch éh í òdúdú	/óʃ éʃ í òdúdú/
72.	Laugh	Óch ì	/óʃ í/	Óch ì	/óʃ í/
73.	Get out	Pùó	/pùó/	Fùó	/fùó/
74.	Hand	Ák á	/ák á/	Ák á	/ák á/
75.	High	Èù	/èù/	Èù	/èù/
76.	Greeting	Èk é é	/ék é é/	Èk é é	/ék é é/
77.	Cook	s íé	/s íé/	Sh íé	/ʃ íé/
78.	Sit down	Nòd í àn ì	/nòd í àn ì/	n òr ó àn à	/nòr ó àn à/
79.	There	Èb é àhù	/éb é àhù/	Èb é àhù	/éb é àhù/
80.	Said	S ì ì	/s ì ì/	Sh ì ì	/ʃ ì ì/
81.	Year	Áfò	/áfò/	Áwhò	/áwhò/
82.	Tall	Óg é óg ó	/óg é óg ó/	Óg é óg ó	/óg é óg ó/
83.	Blood	Òb à à	/ób à à/	Òb à à mm èè	/ób à à mm èè/
84.	Market	Áh íá	/áh íá/	Áh íá	/áh íá/
85.	Sleep	Úr á	/úr á/	Úr á	/úr á/
86.	Madness	Ár á	/ár á/	Ár á	/ár á/
87.	Drink	N ù ó	/nù ó/	n ù ó	/nù ó/
88.	Oil	Mmánū	/mmanū/	Mánū	/mánū/
89.	Face	Ìh ú	/ìh ú/	Ìh ú	/ìh ú/
90.	Yes	Éé	/éé/	Ééyí	/ééyí/
91.	Enter	B à á	/b à á/	B à á	/b à á/
92.	Suffering	Áh íh ú	/áh íh ú/	Áwh íwh ú	/áwh íwh ú/
93.	Blindness	Í ì	/í ì/	Íh ì	/íh ì/
94.	Houses	Úl ò	/úl ò/	Úl ò	/úl ò/
95.	Two	Àb ù ó	/áb ù ó/	Èb ù ó	/èb ù ó/
96.	Name	Áh à	/áh à/	Áh ó	/áh ó/
97.	Stomach	Áf ó	/áf ó/	Áwh ó	/áwh ó/
98.	Tongue	Í é	/í é/	Í é	/í é/
99.	Come down	Gb àh á	/gb àh á/	Gb àh á	/gb àh á/
100.	Children	Úmúákā	/úmúákā/	Úmùájì	/úmùájì/

### A. Data Analysis

A cursory look at the list shows a number of variations between standard and Nawfija. These variations will constitute the basis of our analysis.

#### 1. The Variation Observed in Nawfija Dialect of Igbo Language

##### 2. Lexical Variation

From the above data the researcher observes that there are some lexical variations between the Standard Igbo and the Nawfija dialect. This has to do with the vocabulary of the language. Lexical variation in this context brings to light things that are called by different names in Nawfija dialect other than what they are called in the standard form of Igbo language. This means, things or items that are not called by their standard form names in Nawfija dialect. Below is a tabular representation of some of these instances.

TABLE TWO

S/N	English	Standard Igbo	Nwafija dialect
1.	No	Mbà	Èè é è
2.	Night	Áb à í	ányùù
3.	Leg	Úkwú	Ókpà
4.	What	Ginì	òónnū
5.	One	Ót ù	mv ú nn àà
6.	Now	Úgbúà	Úd ùú
7.	Thank you	D àà ù	ín égwó
8.	Key	Nw áig ódó	átúgwó
9.	Stone	Òkwút è	mkpám è
10.	Here	ò éà	K án
11.	Box	èb é	ák p à ì
12.	Welcome	Nn óò	nd èèw ó
13.	Plantain	òg èd è	ùn èák ánk út à
14.	Bitter kola	Ákíínū	Úg é ò
15.	Comb	Mb ó	Mv ó
16.	Bottle	K á án á	Úr óm
17.	Spoon	Ng àz ì	nk ób òng àdz ì
18.	Farm	Úgbò	Úb ì
19.	Sit down	Nòd í àn ì	n òr ó àn à
20.	Yes	Éé	Ééyí
21.	Children	Úmúákā	Úmùájì

These are some of the lexical variation in the Nawfija dialect of Igbo language.

#### 3. Phonological variation

This is a form of pronunciation variation that has an impact on the phonemic level of grammar, which includes things like syllable shape. Before we go any further, let's take a look at some of the phonological differences found in this Igbo dialect.

TABLE THREE

S/N	English	Standard Igbo	Nwafija dialect
1.	Comb	Mb ó	Mv ó
2.	Tree	Òs í	Òsh sh í
3.	That place	Èb é àh ù	h é àh ù
4.	That time	Òg è àh ù	mgb è àh ù
5.	Lie	Às í	Àsh í
6.	Again	Òz ó	Òd ó
7.	Carry it	Bùrú yā	vùrú yē
8.	Head	é ì	h ì
9.	Show	G òs í	G òsh í
10.	Load	Ìbú	h ú
11.	Stealing	Òrì	Òshì
12.	Odour	é ì	h ì
13.	Get out	Pùó	Fùó
14.	Greeting	Ék ð è	Ék ð è
15.	Cook	S íé	Sh íé
16.	There	Èb é àh ù	h é àh ú
17.	Said	S ò ò	Sh ò ò
18.	Year	Àf ò	Àwh ò
19.	Two	Àb ùó	h ùó
20.	Stomach	Àf ó	Àwh ó
21.	Suffering	Àh ùh ú	Àwh ùwh ú

In the diagram above, the phonological differences between the Nawfija dialect of Igbo language and the standard form of Igbo language are shown. The sound /v/ is used in most places in the Nawfija dialect where the sound /b/ is used in standard Igbo. This means that the Nawfija dialect uses voiced labio dental fricative /v/ in most instances where regular Igbo uses voiced bilabial plosives /b/.

TABLE FOUR

S/N	English	Standard Igbo	Nwafija dialect
1.	Comb	Mb ó	Mv ó
2.	Carry it	Bùrú yā	vùrú yē
3.	Load	Ìbú	h ú

Another instances is the use of the sound /ʃ/ which is orthographically written as “Sh” that is palate alveolar fricative in Nawfija dialect as against the sound /s/ which is orthographically written as ‘S’ that is voiceless alveolar fricative which is in use in standard Igbo.

Some examples are below:

TABLE FIVE

S/N	English	Standard Igbo	Nwafija dialect
1.	Tree	Òs é í	Òsh sh í
2.	Lie	Às í	Àsh í
3.	Head	é í	h í
4.	Show	G òs í	G òsh í
5.	Odour	Ìsì	h ì
6.	Cook	S íé	Sh íé
7.	Said	S ò ò	Sh ò ò

Lastly on the dominant phonological variation observed in this dialect is the introduction of a new sound to the sound system of Igbo language. We can observe the use of the sound /ʃ/ voiceless bilabial fricative orthographically written as “wh” which has not been included in the sound system of the standard Igbo and also the sound /ʒ/ voices palate alveolar fricative, orthographically written as “Zj” which has not also been included in the sound system of the standard Igbo. Examples are below:

TABLE SIX

S/N	English	Standard Igbo	Nwafija dialect
1.	Year	Àf ò	Àf ò
2.	Stomach	Àf ó	Àwh ó
3.	Suffering	Àh ùh ú	Àwh ùwh ú
4.	Children	Úmùákā	Úmùájì

This shows that Nwafija dialect makes use of an additional sound /ʃ/ that is not represented in the sound system of the standard Igbo language.

#### 4. The syllable structure of Igbo Language

A syllable is often a sequence of vowels and consonants and sometimes a syllabic consonant in a language uttered in a single vocal impulse. The Igbo syllable structure is such that the last speech sounds of most words are vowels. But in Nwafija dialect the consonant /n/ which can equally be called a syllabic nasal in Igbo language is used to end some words. The difference is the use of this sound in the two dialects. In Nwafija dialect some common words use this sound to end its word while the standard form does not use it in them.

TABLE SEVEN

S/N	English	Standard Igbo	Nwafija dialect
1.	Now	Ūgb ūà	Ūd ūn
2.	Here	Ēb èà	K á n

#### 5. Determination of relationship between Nawfija dialect and the standard variety of Igbo language

This has to do with comparison between these two speech forms that are regarded as dialects of the same language to determine whether they are actually dialects of the same language or whether they are related languages. This can be determined by checking the cognate sets that is the relatedness and no relatedness between the two variants through the use of wordlist. One can calculate the percentage of corresponding items, percentage of lexical differences and percentage of phonological differences. The corresponding items are items that are exactly the same, phonologically different items are words that differ with one sound segment, while the divergent items are items that are lexically different.

#### 6. How to calculate cognate set

The argument is that if you have 80% of Phonological Differences (PD) and corresponding item (CI) then you are dealing with a related languages and possibly dialects of the same language. This is to say that for these two speech forms to be referred to as dialects of the same language, they should have 80% level of cognacy.

#### 7. Formula

From our data out of the 100 word list 80 are cognate, that it both corresponding items and phonologically different items. Thus the calculation is as follows:

This is to say that these two speech forms are dialects of the same language. Another factor is that of mutual intelligibility. This means the ability of speakers of different speech forms or different dialects to understand themselves. When there is mutual intelligibility; it indicates that the speech forms involved are dialects of the same language.

#### B. Is Nawfija Dialect Inferior of the Standard Variety of Igbo Language?

The above question is indeed an important one to be answered. The fact that there is a variety of a language referred to as the standard variety does not mean that every other dialect of that language is inferior. Rather the two variants are both means of communication in that language. Being that the choice of the standard form is not based on the best dialect but on political reasons, popularity of the dialect or that a particular man brought major development to his people in the olden days, like is the case with Yoruba standard variety, then we have to understand that even before such developments, that such communities were communicating well with their various dialects.

Furthermore, since there is mutual intelligibility among the speaker of Nawfija dialect and those of the standard variety, then none of the varieties is superior to the other. Moreover in some towns the elderly ones do not understand the Standard Igbo and for effective communication to be achieved, their dialect is used when communicating with them. Thus this explains that no dialect is inferior to the other, as far as the dialect has speakers, is mutually intelligible and there is achievement of effective communication.

### V. SUMMARY

In summarizing the linguistic variation and change in Nawfija speech commonly the researcher observed that there are lexical and phonological variation between standard variety of Igbo language and the Nawfija dialect of Igbo. This was shown in the variations in section above. The researcher equally observed that these two speech forms are dialects of the same language. This was confirmed by the use of lexicostatistics. From a close observation of the data, the researcher observed that there are some sounds in Nawfija dialect which are absent in the sound system of Standard Igbo. These sounds are / ʒ / (voiced palate alveolar fricative) and the sound / ɸ / (voiceless bilabial fricative).

#### A. Recommendation

In the light of the findings of this research work, the study hereby presents some suggestions and recommendations for the development of the Igbo language, they are:

1. The two additional sounds used in Nawfija dialect / ʒ / and / ɸ / that is the voiced palate alveolar fricative and the voiceless bilabial fricative should be accommodate in the orthography of standard Igbo.
2. A general understanding should be established among users of Igbo language that no variety of Igbo language is superior to the other.
3. To retain the existence of these dialects in future, users of the various dialects of Igbo language should be allowed to use them in writing for the preservation of cultural terms or concepts peculiar to these dialects.

### B. Conclusion

This research work is a contribution to the study of linguistic variation and dialectal variation in Igbo language. Through this work, it is observed that there is great percentage of cognates between standard Igbo and Nawfija dialect of Igbo. Hence the two dialects are mutually intelligible.

Due to the high level of mutual intelligibility between the two speech forms, we conclude that both are dialects of the same language and none is superior to the other.

Finally, it is also understood from this work that the sound system of standard Igbo can be enhanced by the addition of the two extra sounds used in Nawfija dialect of Igbo. The sounds are /ʒ/ and /ɟ/. Since Igbo language is one of the major Nigeria languages which still need development, we suggest that other dialects of the language be investigated. The findings of these investigations will help to enhance both the lexicon and orthography of the standard variety.

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**Chineze Nwagalaku** was born in Nawfija, Anambra state. She got BA and MA degrees in Linguistics, igbo and other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Chineze is a member of Pragmatic Association of Nigeria.

**Harriet Chinyere Obiora** bagged BA in Linguistics from Ebonyi State University and MA in Linguistics from the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Harriet specialises in Discourse Analysis and Pragmatic. She has published in *Journal of language Teaching and Research*, Vol 12, No.3, pp.494-500, May 2021. Mrs. obiora is a member of the Linguistics Association of Nigeria. She is also a PhD student in the Department of linguistics, igbo and other Nigerian languages, University of Nigeria Nsukka.



**Christopher C. Nwike** is a native of Onitsha, Onitsha North Local Government Area of Anambra State. He was born in Ogidi, Anambra State on the 3<sup>rd</sup> of May. Christopher C. Nwike is a trained translator. Mr. Nwike belongs to the Association of Translation Studies in Nigeria. He also obtained an academic Merit Award in Honour of Aknu-ibiam As the Best Graduating Student Who Produced the Best Long Essay in Igbo Language in Linguistics Department, University of Nigeria, Nsukka. His areas of specialisation are Translation, Interpreting, Semantics and Studies in Igbo language.

# Stillness in Locomotion and Self-dissolution of Metropolitans in Bowen's *To the North*\*

Yena Wang

School of Foreign Languages, Shanghai Institute of Technology, Shanghai, China

**Abstract**—This article is to justify that modern metropolitans suffer from the dissolution of identities and a loss of loving ability to be a modern man of complete personality. Motion and stillness, life and death coexist within the same urban space of metropolitans. And the stillness in urban life space is both the cause and effect to accelerate the process of self-dissolution of metropolitans. The identities and autonomy of Bowen's city dwellers are formed and destroyed in the process of moving. Bowen represents the metropolitans' predicaments of self-dissolution during interwar London by setting them in a depressing space of constant travels and emotional stillness in locomotion. The crazy mobility brings the destructive outcome to make its subjects into the absolute stillness and self-dissolution of the subjects, which is also a common living state of modern city dwellers. This article tries to bring an awareness as well as to show a sympathetic feeling towards those predicated modern man.

**Index Terms**—Elizabeth Bowen, *To the North*, stillness, locomotion, self-dissolution

## I. INTRODUCTION

Elizabeth Bowen's explorations of going and leaving, arriving and departing "dislocate the identity of the self, the very conception of society, love and all friends and relations" (Bennett, Andrew and Royle, 1995, p.31). Here the writer involves the term "locomotion" to indicate the ability to move and predict a loss of power in mobility. It is more often used as a biological term to describe the move of animals, muscles, robots etc. Gilles Deleuze implements an association between bodily and linguistic locomotion in interpreting Samuel Beckett's works in *L'Abécédaire*, a filmed interviews with Gilles Deleuze, directed by Pierre-André Boutang in 1996. And the term is more and more employed in literary fields for its psychological indication. Jacqueline Woodson, a young writer of the United States who was awarded National Book Award entitles her novel *Locomotion* (2003). Hilary Strauch employs this word to describe mobility driven by carriages in his 2012 essay "Carriages and Mobility in Jane Austen's Novels". This juxtaposition of stillness with locomotion is to make a correlation between the two. Nevertheless, if movement must be sought, stillness must inevitably lie in wait. Implicit in the mobility is the immobility, and vice versa. As Deleuze state in his *Francis Bacon: The Logic of Sensation*: "Following the law of Beckett or Kafka, there is immobility beyond movement: beyond standing, there is sitting, and beyond sitting, lying down, eventually to melt away" (Bryden, p.153). There is a dialectical relationship between the two with stillness in essence.

## II. STILLNESS AND LOCOMOTION: LIFE AND DEATH

The city space of London is stilled by strike of wars and modern materialism. Time and space interweaved London becomes the site for most of Bowen's fictional scenes, where the mobility and stillness are displayed. The metropolis is not only a setting for action and stories, "it expresses and conveys beliefs about life society" (Crang, p.49). The end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century is filled with new experiences of urban modernity with technical inventions and social upheavals. Experiencing wars, the 1920's London is more a traumatic city with a rising feeling of despair, loss of hope and anxiety. The city becomes a locus of the isolated subject, and it "equally has to do with one's 'self', one's identity or being and one's location" and "location or context determines who one thinks one is, and how the subject is oriented or disoriented not only in the present but in relation to the past, to personal, and to cultural memory" (Wolfrey, p.170). It is no different from the other cities unlighted and waiting among their ruins under the moon, filled with noise and transport. Here it becomes a space of death and stillness during wartime, where the dead continues to haunt the living ones. It "reproached those left living" (Bowen, 2002, p.165) and is felt as an effect in interwar and war time scenes.

Motion and stillness, life and death coexist within the same urban space of metropolitans. Metropolitans try to maintain their home-belonging and identity in the fluidity of city life, but to find the dissolution of self finally. As Simmel's points in his "The Metropolis and Mental Life", the metropolitans' "deepest problems of modern life" lie in their "claim to preserve the autonomy and individuality of his existence in the face of overwhelming social forces, of historical heritage, of external culture, and of the technique of life" (Simmel, p.47). This philosophy of living generates

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a stillness of metropolitan psyche which signifies an atmosphere of death emotionally of modern life. When an atmosphere of death invades the houses, there is always a space of stasis: Windsor Terrace of Anna and Thomas in London in *The Death of the Heart* and the house of Stella in *The Heat of the Day* etc. With underlying impetus of wars, death becomes the center of stillness in metropolitan cities like London.

In whatever forms of locomotion, the characters remain stillness in two ways: the circular locomotion and emotional stillness. In this sense, characters are in mobility but essentially in stasis. The two polar binary of passion co-exists in modern life of the 1920s London, where fire meets ice and Eros reveals itself as Thanatos. Although with different ending story, both Cecilia and Emmeline are always on the move, especially Cecilia's yearning for traveling and strangeness enacts a jittery desire to escape this center of stillness. Lady Waters is anxious about "Cecilia's perpetual rushing abroad and then home": "it is a pity she cannot settle" (Bowen, 2006, p.14). She considers her mobility "neurosis". She can never settle her down and once she settles in the house, she is out of order into a state of hysteria. After "Cecilia resumed home life at high pressure", "once or twice, a shadow passed over" her face and "tears in her eyes, dropping sodden envelopes onto the bath-room floor" (p.30). Language becomes interrupted and not coherent. Her self is split into pieces. This is something more than the restlessness which Lady Waters identify as a social affliction. They try to ensure their identity in the course of moving, but find no way to escape their original point. Whatever state they are in, it cannot stop the dissolution course of their identity. Emmeline's final self-destruction is its extreme expression. Identity comes into zero when travel comes to the halt in the car crash and Emmeline becomes nothing, leaving some traits of wound to the living ones.

The traveling course of going back and force is often in a circular pattern, which indicates a relative state of stillness in locomotion. This circular pattern of moving is a metaphoric display of the city dwellers' emotional stillness. The utopian nature of their heterotopias destroys the dream bubbles of the metropolitans. They move everywhere in corners of the city but to find them trapped in the starting point and remain emotionally still. Modern transport enables the characters in the novel to be motionless in motion, driven by machines that should be made use of instead. Most of the motion in *To the North* is circular except for the final drive to the North with Markie as the only one-way journey. The railway travel of Cecilia is coming back to London from Italy; the flight to Paris of Emmeline brings her back to her Woburn Place office after a circular flight; the short travel to Faraways and Connie's cottage is a going and coming tour in both directions. Relatively speaking, wherever they move, they come back to the starting point so that it seems they have never moved. Cecilia frequently announces to go to America, yet she never sets out. This travel is just a dream like trip taken on lips and in mind. The driving course between home and the travel bureau also draws a circular line, indicating that the everyday life of Emmeline remains at the same place wherever she goes. Bowen's Metropolitans like Cecilia and Emmeline intend to establish identity as a compensation for their state of orphanage, but finally in every circular of travel, they sink into a more serious state of losing it.

### III. THE DEPRESSING SPACE AND INCAPABILITY OF CITYDWELLERS

The depressing space in metropolis functions in defining and dissolving the metropolitans' identity. The Cultural Geography tries to define identity by where we live, as well as the common definitions by who we are and what we are not. "Linking with ideas of territory and attachment to place", Crang explores "how relationships over space become involved in defining group identities" (Bowen, 2006, p.61). Surviving through the impetus of recent great wars and transport revolution, Bowen's city dwellers bear the typical metropolitan characteristics. Dwelling in modern cities during wartime years, they are prone to modern transport, liable to feelings of alienation and rootlessness, suffering a strong sense of loss and anxiety for an uncertain future. Bowen's problematic metropolitans are defining and losing their identity in a process of mobility and stillness in metropolitan cities. Bowen expresses the anxiety upon the metropolitan life represented by high developed transport system in London by quoting the vicar of Faraways in *To the North* to speak: "modern life becomes increasingly complex" and "it seems a short time since motoring was in itself a pleasure". In his opinions, "the whole incentive motoring seems an anxiety to elsewhere" (p.78). Not a modern figure in the era, the vicar feels secured without movements everywhere. Little amusement at Faraways: not wireless, no swimming pool, nothing", he "feels sure" (p.78). With a questioning of selfhood, Bowen's problematic metropolitans are searching for a certainty of identity during their course of travel between places in metropolitan cities. They take efforts to set themselves in knot of the transport network to make certain who they are, where they are from and where they would go. In her narrative of every failure of certainty and identity, Bowen conveys modern sensibility as despair, irresolution, and dislocation of the traveling community in *To the North*.

The dwelling space of Markie is closed, queer, dark and sinister, where sun does not shed light, imposing the inhabitants alienated and alienating. Its sinister, dismal and depressing quality is more like a disease and it gets a power to infect Markie, who is to destroy Emmeline little by little. It has the power to rob the vitality of humans and depersonalize them. The dwellers and the dwelling space become one entity as time grows and the inhabitants are made sinister and wicked like the container itself, disabled in social and love relations. This space is also a modern metropolitan production during wartime years. Separated from his sister's in a "very high, dark-red" house in Sloane Street, Markie's sinister flat is "completely cut off" from his sister's world below (p.80). Its hall is "darkish" and "the only light filters down through the banisters from a much higher floor" (p.81). He and his sister "make a point of not meeting, cut each other's friend at the door, had separate telephone numbers and ask no questions". His meals are

“separately cooked” and “went up to the top in a service lift” (p.80). The way of communication with the cook is whistles through a pipe and the dumb waiter. Such an abnormal way of life has shown his neurotic problem, which betokened the final tragedy in the last chapter. The Gothic atmosphere depersonalizes Emmeline when she comes to visit the dwelling space the first time: “in her long yellow dress, like a ghost astray” (p.81). Its shadowy corners and its invisible cook whose “reedy, ghostly whistle” makes Emmeline jump (p.84). In the dim light of Markie’s flat, she feels self-reproachful, nervous, and feared. Markie is the master and authority of this sinister dark space in his coldest and most aggressive manner, Emmeline is bewildered and dares not meet Markie’s eyes. Emmeline is reduced so silent and low-down that she has to agree with him at anything.

Cecilia’s afternoon in the death space is a terrible thing, bringing her into hysteria of depression, gloominess, and despair. Bennet and Royle see the shivering peculiarity in a broader sense of space and time in Bowen: “what is fragmented or ‘shivered’ is not only Emmeline’s experience or state of mind: it is shattering or shivering that can be seen to characterize any and every Bowenesque afternoon, or more precisely, that haunts and thus conditions all ‘place and time’ in Bowen” (Bennett, Andrew and Royle, p.31). With “the sun, forgetting decline”, this afternoon is “no afternoon”, and time halts into a state of stillness (Bowen, 2006, p.146). In such a time which is also no time at all, Bowen’s female protagonists fall easily into a state of self-exposes of emotions and personalities. In a gloomy and silent atmosphere, they fall into a state of depression and hysteria, with fragments thoughts and speech. Locomotion cannot stop their emotional stillness. Cecilia has lost the ability to love completely, and Julian, the man whom Cecilia accepts for marriage without love, is also unable to form any relationship based on true feelings. Perhaps neurosis is the last courage for her to live in the world.

For the restless Cecilia, once she loses such ability and the travel comes to its original point, she often falls into a “neurosis” breaking-down (p.14). Like Simmel’s metropolitans, she refuses to respond to the outer stimulates with heart. But when she resumed home, her head stops to react rationally. In the death center of Henry Summers, “melancholy invaded her”, “tears in her eyes” and “she is half dead” (p.30-31). Forgetful, doubtful and incoherence of speech, Cecilia is often in a state of mental problem. What’s more, nervousness is not unique for human beings. The luckless little white dog of Lady Waters’ is “nervy”. “He belonged to the house and desolated by too many departures dared form no more attachments, looking at newcomers with a disenchanted eye (p.193). No matter Cecilia or Emmeline, who are feverishly moving and escaping the death center, they find at last they never moved any step from the house at all. They just behave like transport system to go and come back to the station. The final car crash reaches to its climax in this neurotic disturbance of the metropolitans which causes the dissolution of identity into nothing. The crazy mobility brings the destructive outcome to make its subjects into the absolute stillness. The death brings Emmeline into a conjunction with Henry into oneness completely. The only one-way travel leads to death and Cecilia is constrained forever in the house of Oudenarde Road waiting for an impossible return of Emmeline.

#### IV. THE DISOLUTION OF IDENTITY

According to Simmel, “rationality”, “calculability” and “exactness” are required by the complications and extensiveness of metropolitan life, which leads to a consequence “blasé attitude” (Simmel, p.51). It is a consequence of having hardened oneself to the shocks of everyday existence, and the price paid for surviving the nonetheless constant onslaught of sensual stimuli in the metropolis, resulting in an “incapacity thus emerges to react to the new sensations with the appropriate energy” (p.51). Baudelaire’s employs “Ennui” to describe inability to feel of the “ugly and abortive” beast of the modern mind, which is very appropriate to interpret Simmel’s blasé attitude of city dwellers. Aesthetic deadening of the senses goes hand in hand with the moral indifference and mental dullness. They appear to the blasé person in a homogeneous, “flat and gray tone” with no one of them worthy of being preferred to another (p.52). They are experiencing meaningless in a way which is beyond repair. They are all floating “in the constantly moving stream of money” (p.52). Cecilia parallels with Simmel’s blasé person with Baudelaire’s “Ennui” way. With a sense of “spoiled summer”, Cecilia feels “life was escaping her” with so much prettiness wasted, darkly spread like spilt ink” (Bowen, 2006, p.219). The streets of London “were to be navigated and parks desolate, pleasure-boats under tarpaulin and bands silent”. This is a scene of wasteland of London, and the Metropolitans like Cecilia, who survives the war and disease (not like her two dead soldier brothers and her husband died of pneumonia), is not living a pleasant life, but a life-in-death. London “became a mesh of unwilling hurry where nobody smiled or lingered” (p.220). Like “the moon diminished, wasting itself upon vapors the sun smiled on”, Cecilia is leaving her petals withdraw little by little in the restlessness of life.

Governed by a traumatic past and suffering from an anxiety for future, the city dwellers are hard to get some emotional development. The loss of love and living ability makes them live like ghosts without souls. Simmel assumes such a stillness is “to preserve subjective life against the overwhelming power of metropolitan life”, but at the same time it generates an inability to love the self and others (Simmel, p.48). Governed by the death center in house of Oudenarde Road, both Cecilia and Emmeline are robbed vitality and personality to leave their own life. Back from her trips, she is a woman who cannot stay alone in the depressing space in the house. She often falls into a state of hysteria during sunset; there is a sense of oneness between Emmeline and her dead brother in many ways. Her identity is reduced little by little by the two beloved men in the world, the dead brother Henry and the sinister lover Markie. Solitude and stillness is an immortal emotional state which cannot be broken, and both of them can nothing to rescue



themselves.

Henry's death is a metaphor of the decadence of metropolitan London, which provides enough excuses for the emotional astray of the city dwellers. Time and space becomes halted in Henry, whose death brings a stilled and suspended time in *To the North*. His wife Cecilia and sister Emmeline are put in stagnation by the death center formed by Henry's death photo, which signifies not only as an emotional wounding of Cecilia and Emmeline, but also a likeness of their emotional stillness. This is a space of death and "the place was a morgue", where "the red roses lost color" (Bowen, 2006, p.20). The space of the house was occupied by Henry, whose photograph is on the mantelpiece, watching every move of his wife and sister. His sudden decease of pneumonia leaves Cecilia a "widowed shepherdess with only the clock to smile at" (p.20). The world of Cecilia after Henry's death is a depressed one and she has lost the ability to love any man in the world. Cecilia lies with a "ghost" of Henry who "was with her casually, as though he came strolling into the room" (p.45). She tries to flee the dead center and urges to found relations of occasions during her travel. She confessed to Lady Waters that "I can't help talking to people in trains" (p.274). But any travel ends finally by it staring position in the house. For Cecilia, mobility is the refusal of the literal dead center of the house full of the staring of the photograph and the coffer of ashes, which memorized the stagnation of life and emotions.

Emmeline is fatally put into stagnation by her brother's death. But unlike Cecilia who tries to flee, Emmeline is pulled and magnetized into the dead center. In addition to her orphaned state and sense of not-belonging, the intrusion of Markie accelerates her course of dissolution of her identity into the one of her lost brother. There are many ways of Emmeline's identity disintegration till the final absolute loss of life in the end. The first course of the dissolution course is her quality of nothingness. Emmeline is often described as transparent with "a transparent skin" and "erratic" (p.53-54), like "a vapoury shadowless thin cloud over a tree" (p.67). She gets little sense of existence and communal relations. Although meeting each other every day in the office, she "knew nothing and wished to know nothing of Peter's life" (p.37). Such a policy of life is not only the presentation of her personality of goodness or innocence, but as a modernist "inability to engage oneself closely with life on any terms" (p.34), a kind of nothingness of the self. She stands like "a stranger in her own home" and it is "already as though she did not exist" (p.184). Often dressing herself in silver, she is associated with objects with reflective surfaces: mirrors, glasses, windows, ice, all of which show a quality of nothing. Her happiness is "like an immortal bubble, touching a moment objects it seemed to enclose" (p.225). On the night of the final drive, she is dressed in silver, which dazzles Markie and "glittered past him" like a northern star, "very tall, silver and shining" and "her hair tonight at its brightest, face as its most translucent". That makes Markie wondering "were she dead" and "she could not have come from farther away" (p.284-285). This nothingness quality foresees her final nothingness of life and identity in the crash.

Her nothingness is enforced by her silence and lack of personality in relations with Markie. Emmeline loses her voice and vitality upon the imposing and irritable Markie. With Markie, "she was very silent" and she feels "speechless so often", as though she "were climbing a mountain" (p.226, p.240). Their relationship is doomed also by the contradiction between female professional expansion and male's sexual containment. Between the wars, Emmeline embraces the social advantages opening up to women, while Markie ridicules career women and expects feminine submission. Emmeline is reduced to a loser as a career woman and to death as a female driver. In contrast with her shininess, Markie embodies the darkness invading the innocence of Emmeline. Markie bears all the marks of modern city man with the "blasé attitude" Georg Simmel ascribes. He is the egoists of metropolis, sinister, selfish and irresponsible. He resembles much with the caddish Eddie in *The Death of the Heart*; however, who are the typical male of the period who worships female purity but still wants women to be sexually available for his needs. But to their own capabilities, like Eddie and Brutt, Markie is one of the useless young men who can fit themselves in none of the spaces and family is the last destination in the world for them to dwell in. The only function of existing is to wither by himself and to destroy others. The absurd closed space of the flat forms "a dead center" for Emmeline like the one of Oudenarde Road for Cecilia.

The disintegration of her identity lies secondly in her uncertainty of sexual identity. The seduction in the hotel room in Paris and in the garden of the house on Oudenarde Road is the beginning of Markie's invasion of her private space. Markie lacks the qualities she needs in a lover and she surrenders to Markie in their relations in many ways. Markie "hates moving" (p.180) and "mobility was not present in Markie's expression and attitude" (p.176). Markie finds Emmeline's unselfconscious passion overwhelming and her intensity disrupts his ability to live a detached existence. Markie views Emmeline's passion as threatening to his emotional stagnancy. His irrational fear of Emmeline underscores his own limitations in emotional and sexual matters. In Markie, "under the fairly imposing surface of his masculinity there whirled currents of instability" (p.180). This "paradox of intimacy and isolation" rushes into Emmeline. The sexual aggression is followed with a withdrawal from her. He reassures to Emmeline that "I couldn't live with you", "it is impossible" and "we could not marry" again and again (p.171, p.186, p.187). With typically limited and fragmentary understanding, the literally near-sighted Emmeline focuses on Markie's shreds of decency and conscience, willfully gives herself up to his hypocrisy and selfishness. She believes that "nobody wants to marry me" (p.243) and begs for his love by announcing "I love you" and "I give in, I give up" (p.262). Her surrender to Markie makes her identity dissolve little by little and in return Markie repays her with his affair with Daisy, the former mistress of Markie.

Emmeline's oneness with the deceased Henry, who shares the same qualities of stillness and ghostliness with her, provides the essential drive for the dissolution of her identity. Bowen finds the habitat for the ghost of Henry in

Emmeline, to allow them coexist in the house of Oudenarde Road. Her qualities of quietness, nothingness and tranquility make her a suitable host for the dead soul. Emmeline is the ghostlike apparition of Henry. The boundary between the living and the dead is easy to penetrate. Henry is the living dead and Emmeline bears “death-in-livingness” (Gildersleeve, p.16). Such an oneness seems to indicate that the inhabitants are neither living nor dead; and it suggests that Emmeline may be caught in the repetition of, or haunted by the fate of her brother. Her physical state mirrors her psychological disintegration. In the afternoon of Henry’s death center, Emmeline “moves by proxy while remaining at a standstill”, “static as the eye of a tornado” (Ellmann, p.103). So in the final act of the novel, Emmeline meets her own ghost, which is also her brother’s in the car crash. Her death reduces her to nothingness and allows her reunion with Henry. Emmeline unifies the destruction of her body with her psychological wound, with the oneness between Emmeline and Henry accomplished. Emmeline’s stillness could also be read as a means of self-defense, to provide protection from further wounding. It is similar to the way Anna Quayne’s death sleep condition in face of marriage crisis. Here is a typical psychological condition of those who reconcile with the First World War. And her rush for death in the last chapter is also an escape from the dead space and to make herself against further hurt by Markie.

The final stage of her disintegration of identity is her final death, which brings the course of dissolution to the extreme form of nothingness. The stilled depressing space has invaded her with a sense of death and the oneness between Emmeline and Henry indicates the proceeding death scene. It is Henry or death, which is “something unknown” accompanying her “formlessly” (Bowen, 2006, p.224). She feels that “the room kept for her the ghost of its early strangeness” and it is “becoming familiar”; and “something unknown came through” (p.223). The sense of “strangeness” is becoming more and more familiar. This is a psychic dissolution which precedes her physical death, predestined when Cecilia looks into Emmeline’s room in one of the Bowenesque fatal afternoon after a lunch party. There is “emptiness” and silence in the room, which is “like a death chamber”, and “the sleeper seems many times to have died” (p.164). Emmeline here is symbolically dead. Her unreality and non-existence emphasizes her likeness with Henry’s ghost with whom Cecilia lies with. At last, she lives “with nobody”, the dead Henry and falsely living Emmeline (p.165). This hallucinatory psychosis in this passage foreshadows the closing moments of death in the end of the novel, in which Emmeline speeds to death: her desire for dissolution, for freedom from pains and for survival. Among the three Summers, Cecilia is the only survivor, who is condemned to live in the orphanage under the shadow of death.

The death in the hysterical driving is the ultimate state of Emmeline’s stillness and nothingness, which ends the process of her self-dissolution. It indicates a physical and emotional extinction, suggesting a complete erasure of life and impossibility to return. Here in the last drive of death, the personality and identity of the city dwellers are reduced into zero. The last car-driving to Baldock in the end of the novel brings an association with Browning’s “The Last Ride Together” in *Men and Women* (1855): “Who knows but the world may end to-night?” It is like going beyond “one’s last day on earth when fear and all sense of farewell had alike departed and only a very brief transit remained ahead” (Bennet, Andrew and Royle, p.40). At this crazy driving, the human beings are utterly controlled by motion till the ability of locomotion is reduced to nothing. Emmeline cannot control the motor car, as well as herself, and she surrenders to her car to let it go out of control. The speed possesses her and “the car hardly holding the road seemed to him past her control” (Bowen, 2006, p.298). With “a drop in her voice, less resolution than deadness”, everything is over and it seems that her silver fabric of her blouse melts into nothing. Night silence and stillness of death embrace the dying people: “a sense of standstill, a hush pervaded this half-seen country” (p.301-02). At the death edge, she can feel nothing and sees “TO THE NORTH” written black, with a long black immovably flying arrow on the white board. Bowen symbolizes her death by the road sign and she employs the word “levitation” to indicate the total loss of identity: “for this levitation a total loss of her faculties, of every sense of his presence...she was lost to her own identity, a confining husk” (p.304). Bowen ever laments for her death: “Poor Emmeline! It was inevitable” (Glendinning, p.95). Emmeline’s death in the car crash is no accident but the inevitable result of the loss of identity of metropolitans during interwar London. The identity of Emmeline as a London urbanite is dissolved totally into nothing.

## V. CONCLUSION

To sum up, Bowen represents the metropolitans’ predicaments of self-dissolution during interwar London by setting them in a depressing space of constant travels and emotional stillness in locomotion. In a busy, noisy and mobile urban space, the metropolitans are prone to modern transport, liable to feelings of alienation and rootlessness, suffering a strong sense of loss. Bowen’s city dwellers are such a community of London metropolitans, defining and losing their identity in a process of mobility and stillness in an era of wars. With a traumatic history of the unnamed First World War, they try to settle down in cities and travel to define their identities. However, wherever they live, the dwelling space is occupied by death and darkness. Driven by modern transport and communication, they set themselves in constant trips by trains, cars, airplanes etc. and they are always longing to live in other places to escape from the dead center occupied by the traumatic past. They strive to search for a spiritual home and set her identity by establishing some relationship with the surroundings. The constant and never-ending travel is their everyday living state in exile and rootlessness is still the everlasting predicaments for the London dwellers. Any travel courses are proved to be in a circular pattern and they can hardly stop the atrophy of self and dissolution of identity of the metropolitans. The final car crash reaches to its climax in this neurotic disturbance which causes the dissolution of identity into nothing. The crazy mobility brings the

destructive outcome to make its subjects into the absolute stillness. At this point, the human beings are utterly controlled by motion till the ability of locomotion is reduced to nothing. Bowen's modern people suffer from the predicaments of dislocation in such an urban space both in mobility and stillness. Her characters can only find peace when their identities become nothing in death. Even in the most intimate domestic spaces, alienation is still their everyday living state for modern people during interwar time London.

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**Yena Wang** was born in Linyi, China. She received her PH.D. degree in Shanghai International Studies University, China in 2018. She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Shanghai Institute of Technology, China. Her research interests include British and American literature, comparative literature etc.

# Before and After: English Language Acquisition in Saudi Arabia and the New Possibilities in Teaching and Learning That the COVID-19 Pandemic May Have Brought

Badriah M. Alkhannani  
English Department, University of Hail, Hail, Saudi Arabia

**Abstract**—This article examines how the teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia has evolved over time and the new possibilities the COVID-19 pandemic has brought to teaching and learning of English in Saudi Arabia. Various factors have influenced the pace and degree to which the English language has propagated in Saudi Arabia ever since it was first introduced. Learners of English also continue to be affected by several inherent and external factors when learning the English language. On top of having to grapple with first language and culture interferences, learners of English in Saudi Arabia have also to navigate unfavorable learning environments, lack of experiential exposure to English, and foreign language anxiety. Although the COVID-19 pandemic may have seemingly created issues (e.g., a reduction in time for interaction with peers and teachers) for learners of English due to emergency remote teaching, it has opened up new possibilities that can be the subject of additional research and development. The benefits of online learning, translingual practices, and collaborative teaching should be further explored to benefit from the new normal of mandatory online learning that has arisen due to the pandemic.

**Index Terms**—English language, Saudi Arabia, teaching, learning, COVID-19 pandemic, English education

## I. INTRODUCTION

Educational expenditure has been a priority for the Saudi Arabian government and in particular, investment into developing and propagating English as a foreign language. Most recently, the Tatweer project was implemented to look into the enhancement of the English language skills of Saudi Arabian students (Assulaimani, 2019). The use of technology and online learning appears to be the common theme underpinning the nine phases of the Tatweer project. Despite the substantial investment and effort into developing English as a foreign language, the reasons as to the lackluster performance of an average educated Saudi Arabian user of English has been the subject of much research. The COVID-19 pandemic adds another unknown dimension to the acquisition of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. As such, to fully appreciate the nuances that influence the considerations with regard to online learning in a post-COVID-19 world, it is vital to trace the history and issues which have plagued the acquisition of English in Saudi Arabia.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia*

English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia has been shaped by various factors and events since it was introduced into Saudi Arabia. Culture, community, religion, and learners' primary language – Arabic, can be seen to be the more prominent factors that have influenced and would continue to influence the development of the learning and teaching of English as a foreign language (Alrabai, 2018). These factors have in general led to a resistance to the English language (Elyas & Picard, 2010). Despite the initial resistance to English when it was first introduced to accelerate Saudi Arabia's integration into the world (Faruk, 2013), several key events have, over the years, hastened the development and investment in English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia (Alshahrani, 2016).

Although it is not exactly clear when English as a foreign language was initially introduced in Saudi Arabia, it was first introduced into the Saudi Arabia educational system via the elementary school system four times a week (45 minutes a session) in 1937. In 1942, as part of the restructuring of the Ministry of Education, the introduction of English was removed from elementary schools and reintroduced at intermediate and secondary school levels at the previous frequency. Subsequently, in 1974, this was increased to six 45 minutes sessions a week but reverted to four 45 minutes sessions a week in 1980 (Al-Hajailan, 2006). The reasons for reducing the contact hours of English as a foreign language in the public education system in 1974 were not explicitly clear but it could be a response to the natural resistance to learning other languages like English (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017).

Running parallel to the formal introduction of English as a foreign language, the discovery of oil in the 1930s, globalization of English (Sharifian, 2009), acceleration of Saudi Arabia's integration with the world, post-September 11 political and social pressures, the 'Arab Spring', the 2008 Global Financial Crisis, the birth of the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria, tumbling oil prices have impacted English education policy reforms in Saudi Arabia (Phan & Osman, 2015).

The next significant phase of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia commenced in 2005 when the then-government realized the need to reduce its dependence on revenue from the oil industry and to create a modern all-rounded economy comparable to developed countries (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017). A visible outcome of the shift in economic policy is the increase in the number of universities from 8 in 2001 to 36 in 2015 (Alshahrani, 2016). With all universities having an English Department and English as a foreign language being taught at least one semester during an undergraduate's education, the proportion of people learning English at a tertiary level could have increased at a conservative rate corresponding to the rate of increase in the number of universities from 2001 to 2015.

Subsequent to the shift in economic policy, and, notwithstanding the longstanding issues in English language acquisition, English has been elevated to the medium of instruction in technical education, medicine, and many other majors (Alhaisoni & Arabia, 2013). From a practical perspective, the status of being the only foreign language taught in Saudi Arabian public and private educational institutions has also led learners of English to recognize the importance and significance of English in business, trade, and higher education (Al-Seghayer, 2014). Building on its progress, the Saudi Arabian government continues to invest heavily in the acquisition of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017). This can be seen via investment in the recruitment of English teachers, the establishment of language labs, continual development, and improvement of the English curriculum, and formalized teacher training (Alhaisoni & Arabia, 2013).

### *B. Key Challenges In English Language Teaching and Acquisition*

Despite the steady progression and propagation of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia as a whole, learners and teachers of English face multiple challenges in the acquisition and teaching of English (Al-Nasser, 2015). In particular, Saudi Arabian learners of English face challenges in speaking and writing. This is reflected in the observation that despite English being introduced into the educational system relatively early, most Saudi students graduate from high school with limited English skills (Alrabai, 2014). In this regard, understanding these challenges and the way English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia has progressed could help lay the foundation for the conceptualization of potential solutions or policies in relation to the continual propagation of English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia going forward.

#### *1. First language interference*

The first language of learners of the English language in Saudi Arabia – Arabic (Indo-European language family), is from a very different language group from English (Afroasiatic language family) (Dajani et al, 2013). As such, the resulting differences in sounds of Arabic alphabets from English alphabets, verb system, syntax, sentence structure, vowel and consonant sounds, word stress, sound elision, grammar, and vowel quality and length (Rababah, 2005), are likely to cause Saudi Arabian students' difficulties at an early stage of learning the English language (Alasmari et al, 2016).

#### *2. Cultural influences*

With Saudi Arabia's official religion being Islam and its constitution based on the Holy Quran (which is written in Arabic), it would not come as surprise to many that English (and the acquisition of the English language) is not often seen as a "neutral language" (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014). Saudi culture is a key language domain that shapes foreign language acquisition in Saudi Arabia (Alrabai, 2018). Saudi culture is closely intertwined with the Saudi community and can be defined as a collective and religious tribal community that places a lot of emphasis on traditions, alliances, and family (Alrahaili, 2014). In this regard, the Saudi community has often misconstrued that learning English may affect the learning of Arabic or the dilution of Saudi culture (Al-Nasser, 2015). This has led to parents' holding an unfavorable view toward the acquisition of English, which may lead to demotivation among students learning English (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017).

#### *3. Unfavorable teaching and learning practices*

Adding to inherent complexities and difficulties in the acquisition of English, Saudi Arabian students learning the English language are often taught English using their first language - Arabic (Alhawsawi, 2013) (Rababah, 2005). In this context, Arabic is used to teach English grammar, explain difficult vocabulary or to clarify complex concepts. Coupled with the dominant role of the teacher in the Saudi English classroom (where the focus is mainly on getting students to pass exams), students resort to ineffective learning techniques such as rote learning and memorization without understanding (Al Rashidi & Phan, 2015). Active steps such as praise of students, providing relatable real-life examples when teaching, being slow to correct the mistakes of students and constant encouragement are also noted to be a contributing factor in the poor learning environment for Saudi English learners (Al Rashidi & Phan, 2015). As a result, when viewed in totality, these teaching practices would naturally reduce the students' exposure to English, affect their view on the importance of the language they are learning, deprive them of opportunities to communicate and practice English in an authentic situation and create a dependence on Arabic in the learning of English (Alrabai, 2018).

#### *4. Lack of experiential exposure to English*

Learners of English in Saudi Arabia are likely to find that they have limited opportunities to practice and immerse themselves in the language other than when in a classroom setting (Khan, 2011). This lack of opportunity to finetune and practice the English language can be attributed to Arabic being Saudi Arabia's official language and frequently the main language for communication in the country (Alrabai, 2018). Furthermore, as Arabic is highly regarded by parents due to its status as the official and national language, they are more likely to communicate with their children only in Arabic (Alsairi, 2018), leaving English language learners mainly with opportunities to use the language in classrooms. This limited use is further curtailed when English teachers dominate the classroom with a lot of speaking and leaving students with little opportunity to speak or to ask questions (Alkubaidi, 2014). To the extent that students can be exposed to even a fraction of what they are exposed to in Arabic, there should be improvements in their standard of English (Jamali, 1991).

#### 5. Foreign language anxiety

Foreign language anxiety is situation-specific anxiety that is experienced during the acquisition of a foreign language in classroom learning (Horwitz et al, 1986) (Horwitz et al, 1991). In general, it negatively affects foreign language performance and can be viewed as one of the more significant factors that affect foreign language acquisition (Jamilah, 2017). A study conducted to examine the correlation between foreign language anxiety and language performance found that the most common causes of anxiety include giving oral presentations, performing in front of classmates, and interacting with native speakers (Woodrow, 2006). Language distance between the learner's first language (i.e., Arabic in Saudi Arabia) and the language acquired (English) has also been identified as having a positive correlation to foreign language anxiety (Zhang, 2019). To the extent that foreign language anxiety is reduced during lessons, students can be better engaged and should correspondingly lead to a more positive learning outcome (Elkhafaifi, 2005).

### C. Covid-19 Pandemic and the Acquisition of English in Saudi Arabia

#### 1. COVID-19 and emergency remote teaching

The pace and extent to which the COVID-19 pandemic took the world by storm, altering many aspects of all our lives, would remain a shared history for the population of the world that has lived through the days. Ways of teaching and learning that were traditionally known at various academic levels have been fundamentally altered. School closures and emergency remote teaching, where possible, were also implemented at an unprecedented scale (Yi & Jang, 2020) (Hodges et al, 2020). Materials that were traditionally used in the classroom had to be altered, repurposed, and redesigned for online use, Learning Management Systems replaced classroom learning, and, instructors and students alike had to reconfigure their homes to suit online teaching and learning (Sayer & Braun, 2020). Not to be viewed in the same light as online teaching, blended learning, or flipped classrooms, "emergency remote teaching" is a temporary, sudden, and unplanned shift of instructional delivery to a remote delivery mode (Hodges et al, 2020). Like their counterparts globally, the Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education announced a switch to online classes within days to ensure a safe and secure process for learning (Khalil et al, 2020). Notwithstanding that Saudi Arabia has taken a progressive view regarding online learning (e.g. the National Plan for Information Technology) (Asmari, 2012) (Al-Hamidi, 2013), it may be an opportune time to consider the issues of online learning of English in Saudi Arabia as the path to the end of the pandemic is not particularly clear at this point in time.

#### 2. The use of translingual practices and pedagogy for online learning

Translingual practice is broadly defined as a hybrid, impromptu, evolving, and spontaneous language practice that seeks to bridge the gap between languages and the creative use and reorganization of pre-existing knowledge for communication and self-representation (Canagarajah, 2013) (Horner et al, 2011). The translingual theory contests monolingualism where there should be a separation of languages and that languages should maintain their existing structures and form even in contact (Canagarajah, 2013) (Kato & Kumagai, 2020). While monolingualism grants authority to native speakers of the language, whilst viewing non-native speakers as incompetent users of the language, translingualism effectively empowers learners of the language as creative users and not a borrower of the language (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). In recent research, researchers observed emergency remote learning classes and noted that where both teachers and students adopt translingual practices online, students did not appear to view language differences as a problem (Yi & Jang, 2020). Instead, as they embraced the differences, attempted to overcome, resolve and navigate these differences.

In the Saudi Arabian context, the translingual pedagogy should be considered and explored as a potential solution to first language interference, foreign language anxiety, and unfavorable learning and teaching practices faced by learners of English. It would also be worthwhile to note that whilst the translingual pedagogy in the Saudi Arabian context involves free interaction and use of Arabic and English in the English language classroom, it should be viewed as different from the unfavorable teaching practice of an authoritative English language teacher teaching English grammar in Arabic noted earlier in this paper. As much of current research around translingual practice is not specific to Saudi Arabia, further research should be carried out to assess how translingual practice can be effectively implemented in Saudi Arabian educational institutions to aid in the learning of English.

#### 3. Online learning as a student-centered practice in Saudi Arabia

The pedagogical benefits of online learning have been the subject of much research and analysis in recent years. However, in the unique context of Saudi Arabia, the practical benefits of online learning for Saudi Arabian learners of English – students being able to study at their own pace (Farooq & Javid, 2012), and the convenience of online learning

due to the reduction of travel time (Alasmari et al, 2016). Also, the way learning results in a more enriching experience for intrinsically motivated and initiated students (Al-Qahtani & Higgins, 2013), all of which must factor in the consideration for online learning in the post-COVID-19 world. Detailed research could be considered to understand the extent of non-pedagogical benefits of online learning of English for Saudi Arabian students.

#### 4. Potential reduction of time for students to interact with peers in English

As noted earlier in the paper, a potential difficulty faced by English language learners in Saudi Arabia is the lack of exposure and usage of English. Switching to online learning would mean that the rich English language interaction between teacher and students and between classmates would be significantly reduced as students would not be able to engage in an informal small group discussion with peers (Sayer & Braun, 2020) or have impromptu personal discussions with the teacher. That being said, it may be worthwhile to consider if the opportunity to learn English through the natural interaction between peers truly exists to a large extent in a Saudi Arabian English classroom. This is because, where the English teacher usually dominates the classroom, and students are seldom provided with the opportunity to speak up in English, there may be a lack of motivation to use or apply the English language in an informal situation (Khan, 2011). Should further research or observation be able to demonstrate that Saudi Arabian learners of English do not extensively engage in English language interaction in the physical classroom, a reduction of time for students to interact with peers in English in an online classroom should not be expected to be observed?

#### 5. Lack of digital competence among English language teachers

Digital competence can be broadly defined as having the knowledge and ability in relation to current information and communication technology and the capability to manage the latest technology and digital information (Ferrari & DIGCOMP, 2013). It is also associated with three integrated competencies: technology proficiency, pedagogical compatibility, and social awareness (Zhao et al, 2002). It is clear from various literature that the digital competence of teachers has been of increasing importance before the COVID-19 pandemic due to how teachers' interaction with digital resources may potentially shape pedagogy, interaction, and communication with students (Burden et al, 2016). As such, information and communication technology should be considered an important skill for foreign language teachers in addition to linguistic abilities (Abdulteef & Al Khateeb, 2017). Emergency remote teaching because of the pandemic further highlights the rapid digital transformation that is taking place and the importance of digital competence among English language teachers. However, from a Saudi Arabian perspective, it is noted in an exploratory study of English language teachers in Saudi Arabia that the majority of teachers are not adequately digitally competent according to the level and standards required to enable them to be good digital teachers of the twenty-first century (Abdulteef & Al Khateeb, 2017). These results are likely attributable to inexperience, lack of proper training and prior knowledge in information communication technology, or poor performing unmotivated individuals (Maderick et al, 2016). As such, given the urgency of this issue as online learning of English in Saudi Arabia is likely to be more widely accepted and taken up, the research could be conducted to understand how teachers can be motivated to bridge the digital gap. Where the digital divide among English language teachers is narrowed (i.e., digital competence achieved), it is envisaged that the positive effects can be benefited by their students (Ala-Mutka, 2011). In the meantime, support should be given to teachers who have accessed themselves to be less competent digitally and encouraged to take up courses to improve their digital capabilities.

#### 6. Collaborative teaching for online learning

Collaborative teaching has been, to a certain degree, the subject of research over time. It has been defined as "any academic experience in which two professors work together in designing and teaching a course that itself uses group learning techniques" (Robinson & Schaible, 1995) or "two or more people sharing responsibility for educating some or all of the students in a classroom" (Villa et al, 2008). In light of the COVID-10 pandemic, where cross-border travel is largely curtailed, the possibility of collaborative teaching online with native English-speaking and non-native English-speaking teachers can be explored. In the context of the Saudi Arabian English classroom, a collaborative teaching arrangement for online learning could be envisaged as a pedagogy that may potentially mitigate the difficulties (e.g., cultural interferences, unfavorable teaching practices, and a lack of experiential English learning environment) encountered by an English language learner in Saudi Arabia. Recent small-scale research has shown that teachers with differing cultures and backgrounds when working together in an online English classroom have been able to provide a much more engaging and enriching teaching environment for students (Yi & Jang, 2020). All that being said, there are issues like conflict and non-genuine collaboration with regard to collaborative teaching (Carless & Walker, 2006) (Nevin et al, 2009) that should be mitigated to ensure that these do not diminish the benefits of collaborative teaching. Furthermore, before large-scale collaborative teaching is implemented in Saudi Arabia, research should be conducted to understand the true benefits of collaborative teaching online in the Saudi Arabian context and feasibility studies should also be conducted to identify any practical or technical difficulties during implementation.

#### 7. Academic performance

A recent study on how academic performance has been affected by emergency remote teaching due to the pandemic showed that overall, students have achieved better academic results under emergency remote teaching (Iglesias-Pradas et al, 2021). The results from the study also suggest that: "distal factors –higher education instructors' knowledge, skills, and attitudes toward technology; their qualification; and institutional, organizational, and administrative factors, together with instructors' and students' equipment and digital skills– do have an effect on student outcomes". As much

as the results of the study may provide justification for further implementation of online learning of English in Saudi Arabia, further research in relation to Saudi Arabia should be carried out to understand how academic performance has been affected due to online learning. In particular, to understand if online learning does result in a better outcome for the learning of English in Saudi Arabia, a holistic assessment method that could accurately measure language competencies before and after online learning was implemented would be required.

### III. CONCLUSION

The issues explored for teaching the English language as a foreign language in a post-COVID-19 world are largely around online teaching. As more research that is specific to Saudi Arabia is conducted in this regard, these issues should be refreshed, recalibrated, and examined in line with the goals and implementation details of the Tatweer project. This would ensure that best practices and correspondingly the best outcomes for English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia could be achieved going forward.

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**Badriah M. Alkhannani** from Ha'il in Saudi Arabia, Assistant Professor at Teaching English language Hail university, hail Vice President of Female Campus at Hail University, her research interests are teaching English language Gifted English language learners English language in Saudi context.

# The Use of Islamic Literature to Teach Ethical English

Dedi Irwansyah

English Language Education Department, State Islamic Institute of (IAIN) Metro, Lampung, Indonesia

Andianto

English Language Education Department, State Islamic Institute of (IAIN) Metro, Lampung, Indonesia

Ahmad Madkur

English Language Education Department, State Islamic Institute of (IAIN) Metro, Lampung, Indonesia

**Abstract**—Ethical English instruction has paved the way for every religion to make its interpretation. From the Islam religion perspective, such interpretation is still under research. This study describes how ethical English instruction takes place in an Indonesian Islamic higher education institution; how literature, particularly Islamic literature, becomes a factor of ethical English instruction; and the students' transformation through ethical English instruction. Applying a content analysis method, this case study involved 60 freshmen students of the English language education program of State Islamic Institute of Metro, Lampung, Indonesia. The research data was drawn from five main data sources, namely interviews, classroom observations, teaching materials, samples of students' works, and questionnaires. This study shows that (1) the use of Islamic literature to teach ethical English in the Indonesian Islamic higher education is potential; (2) text exploitability becomes a dominant factor in ethical English instruction; and (3) a contextualized approach, derived from the existing global approach and local teaching method, transforms the students positively. It is concluded that ethical English teaching within Indonesian Islamic higher education ought to utilize Islamic literature and be conducted through a contextualized approach.

**Index Terms**—Islamic literature, ethical English, text exploitability, teaching approach, Indonesian Islamic higher education

## I. INTRODUCTION

Ethical English instruction can be approached not only through spiritual education but also through a cultural and artistic approach. The current discussion of ethical English has seen art as a medium to teach spirituality within an English language classroom (Pike, 2015). Islamic literature, as a form of art, has a great potential in teaching ethical English but has not yet been discussed thoroughly. Within the international context, the teaching of English literature has been dominated by Christian values in its connection to ethical English (Showalter, 2012). Within the Indonesian national context, the Hindu religion is reported to have a great influence on the Indonesian literature tradition (Nurgiyantoro & Efendi, 2017). The use of Islamic literature to teach ethical English in Indonesian Islamic higher education deserves practitioners' and researchers' attention as Indonesia is the most populous Muslim country in the world.

So far, the discussion of the influence of particular religion on ethical English tends to view the ethical foundation in language teaching without defining a specific influence of a particular religion on the construction of ethical English (Bahodirovna & Kayumovna, 2019; de Waal, 2002; Yandell, 2015; Bowie, 2016; Smith, 2016; Hutchison, 2019; Lewis, 2020). Ethical English tends to discuss normative moral content in language teaching. Pike (2015) urges that the effort to teach children and teenagers cannot be conducted when a common belief is absent in that education standardization cannot be implemented either. The above tendencies make it obvious that ethical English instruction through Islamic literature has not been accommodated by the existing studies.

This article seeks to enrich the discussion of ethical English. It specifically analyses the use of Islamic literature to teach ethical English at Indonesian Islamic higher education (henceforth PTKI or *Perguruan Tinggi Keagamaan Islam*). More particularly, the aims of this study are formulated into the following research questions: (1) How does ethical English instruction take place in State Islamic Institute (henceforth IAIN or *Institut Agama Islam Negeri*) Metro Indonesia? (2) How is Islamic literature used as a factor for the success of ethical English instruction? And (3) How does the use of Islamic literature to teach ethical English transform the students of IAIN Metro so that English becomes more than just a tool of communication?

This study is underpinned by three assumptions. First, ethical English instruction through Islamic literature at PTKI is much more successful than through the previously used approaches. Secondly, the success of ethical English instruction through Islamic literature is strongly influenced by the factor of text exploitability. Thirdly, there is a need to

contextualize the established literature teaching approaches proposed by western scholars to generate a more acceptable teaching approach at PTKI.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *Islamic Literature*

To learn literature is to learn the language and culture (Novianti, 2016). Literary work is not merely a text but also a means to convey a certain ideology (Darma, 2019). Literary works are often rooted in religion, while religion has never existed without literature (Boscaljon & Levinovitz, 2018). Religious values can be excavated from literary works (Madya, 2013). The terms of religious literature and non-religious literature have been risen by scholars. Religious literature centers around the revelation of the purpose of human existence based on religious teaching (Stolberg & Teece, 2011), while non-religious literature aims to uncover the world based on humanistic values as a substitution for religious values (Boscaljon & Levinovitz, 2018). In this sense, Islamic literature is religious literature that is aimed at educating Islamic values. It is used to teach English language and Islamic values.

Literature and religion converging into an ideological context are one of the main factors, along with the historical context, which must be considered in the teaching approach (Walder, 2010). Thus, the use of Islamic literary works to teach English in Islam-affiliated educational settings is self-evident. Scholars have spawned a variety of terms for Islamic literary works such as prophetic literature and Islamic literature. Prophetic literature refers to literary works that invite the readers to have an awareness of Allah and humanity (Kuntowijoyo, 2019), while Islamic literature pertains to any kind of literary works, written in any language, and by any religious writer, which have aesthetic characteristics and messages in tune with Islamic religion (Irwansyah, 2019). There is no fundamental difference between prophetic literature and Islamic literature. Throughout this paper, the term Islamic literature is used because it is considered to include prophetic literature.

### B. *Ethical English*

Professional ethics is very necessary to be developed by English teachers. Pike (2011a) points out two main reasons for the development of professional ethics. First, abundant valuable works have been done recently related to the reflection of professional learning of English teachers, especially in the so-termed Initial Teacher Education (ITE) (Stevens, Hodges, Gibbons, Hunt, & Turvey, 2006; Stevens & Lowing, 2008). Not only is ethical English concerned with who the teacher is, but it also deals with what the teacher does (Pike, 2011a). Secondly, significant contributions have been made on the importance of teaching poetry in the professional learning of English teachers. Scholars argue that it is important for teachers to write and to respond to poetry (Dymoke, 2003; Dymoke & Harrison, 2008), and that teachers need to keep on reading because teaching readers are good reading teachers (Cremin, 2011). English teachers should gear themselves toward becoming ethical professionals who teach social justice and ethics to their students (Pike, 2011a). English teachers not only need a model of personal growth of their own as an excuse for their calls, but they are also personally involved with the materials and students (Goodwyn, 1992). In other words, ethical English is directed toward the development of teachers, learners, and the social environment.

Pike (2015) classifies three aspects of ethical English: ethical English as spiritual education, ethical English as moral and character education, and ethical English as religious education. Accordingly, an English teacher plays a role in connecting art and life, and of texts and readers. Teachers should lead the students toward primary experience and secondary imagination world. In his research, Pike (2011b) stated that ethical English instruction in the Taoist community has fostered values of democracy and helped prevent the elimination of humanity. Ethical English instruction has a positive impact on the social life system. For this study, the term ethical English refers to spiritual, religious, and moral and character education.

### C. *Text Exploitability*

Ethical English instruction relies heavily on texts and their exploitability. The term 'text exploitability' refers to the availability of resources that support the reading comprehension of a text (Lazar, 2009). The resources include supporting movies in the laboratory, related texts in the library, and experts in certain fields of study. Along with authenticity and readability, text exploitability becomes an important factor behind the improvement of interpretive reading skills (Ling, Tong, & Jin, 2012). The use of Islamic literature to teach ethical English should be supported by relevant books, audio-visual equipment, and experts in the field.

In the concrete level, text exploitability is spelled out through tasks and activities. Collie & Slater (1994) propose three types of activities to exploit literary text in a language classroom. First, *writing activities* in that the students are assigned to produce writing related to the literary text they have read. Second, *listening and reading activities* where students are tasked to read and listen to literary text by focusing on such aspects as characters, background, and language. Third, *oral activities* where students are asked to create oral summaries or to perform role plays. These three types of activities need to be adjusted by following learning objectives and classroom conditions.

### D. *Contextualized Approach to FL Literature*

The term 'approach' refers to theoretical views underpinning the advantages of using literary texts in language classrooms (Fauziah, 2016; Hwang & Embi, 2007; Padurean, 2015). While a variety of approaches have been suggested by scholars, this paper discusses the so-termed Comprehensive Approach to FL Literature (Bloemert, Jansen, & van de Grift, 2016; Bloemert, Paran, Jansen, & van de Grift, 2017). This approach connects four main approaches in teaching literature, namely: Text Approach, Context Approach, Reader Approach, and Language Approach. The Comprehensive Approach, thus, focuses on texts, contexts, reader responses, and language skill development. While an approach is theoretical in nature, its implementation in the classrooms should be conducted through certain methods, strategies, or techniques.

The implementation of the Comprehensive Approach to FL Literature in Indonesian Islamic higher institutions should accommodate local wisdom embedded in local tradition. Islamic educational institutions in Indonesia have a long tradition of using teaching methods called *sorogan* and *bandongan* (Ma'Arif, 2018). The former pertains to an individual, and face-to-face instruction marked by a student's reading aloud or memorization of a given material before the teacher. The latter refers to a collective instruction where a teacher explains the learning materials to all students in the class. This article proposes a term of contextualized approach to FL literature to refer to the implementation of the principles of the Comprehensive Approach through the methods of *sorogan* and *bandongan*. Such a contextualized approach is aimed at inculcating Islamic teaching methods, which emphasize Islamic manners (*adab*), into the instructional process.

### III. METHOD

This study follows a case study design with an in-depth analysis. A case study is used to describe an instruction process in a particular educational context in great detail (Crocker, 2009), which in this research focuses on how Islamic literature is utilized to teach ethical English. IAIN Metro was chosen as it is under the supervision of the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MoRA) of Indonesia and, as any Islamic higher institution in Indonesia, is supposed to integrate Islamic teaching into all branches of knowledge, including English pedagogy.

**Participants.** This study involved 60 freshmen students of the English language teaching department of IAIN Metro, Lampung, Indonesia. The setting of the study was two pilot project classes aimed at teaching Islam religion and English through Islamic literature in the academic year of 2019/2020.

**Instruments.** The primary data of this research was drawn from teaching materials and samples of students' works. The data collection techniques used in this research were a questionnaire, classroom observation, and interview. The research data were analyzed through a content analysis technique.

### IV. FINDINGS

Prior to the study was a questionnaire distribution that is aimed at revealing relevant demographic information of the participants. Table 1. represents the recapitulation of the demographic data.

TABLE 1  
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Variable	Category	(N=60) Frequency	Percent-age %
<b>Gender</b>	Male	49	81.67
	Female	11	18.33
<b>Age</b>	17	1	1.67
	18	22	36.67
	19	33	55.00
	20	4	6.67
<b>School Background*</b>	ISHS	22	36.67
	SHS	29	48.33
	VHS	10	16.67
<b>Students' familiarity with the Islamic teaching that underpinned language skills and critical awareness</b>	Listening	39	65.00
	Speaking	25	41.67
	Reading	58	96.67
	Writing	8	13.33
	Discussion	16	26.67
	Critical Awareness	11	18.33

**Remarks:**

ISHS (Islamic Senior High School (Madrasah Aliyah))

SHS (Senior High School)

VHS (Vocational High School)

The above information reveals that most students of the English language department at Islamic higher institutions do not graduate from Islamic senior high school. Consequently, most of them are not familiar enough with the Islamic

teachings underpinning English language skills and critical awareness. In this sense, the learning of ethical English is plausible to support the notion of integrating Islamic teachings and English.

#### A. Ethical English Instruction through Islamic Literature

Ethical English instruction is part of the efforts to integrate Islamic religion and English language education at PTKI. The use of Islamic literature is an approach that is expected to have a positive influence on ethical English teaching through appropriate stages. In this study, ethical English teaching took place through three phases: (1) selecting, (2) reading, and (3) interpreting and reflecting literary works.

First, the selection stage was conducted by the teacher to Islamic literature based on four principles, namely: (a) the text should not be too long so that it can be completed in one meeting; (b) the text should contain moral messages that can be directly attributed to the Qur'an and *hadith* as the foundations of education at PTKI; (c) the vocabulary and syntax aspects of the text should not be too difficult for most students. However, teachers still need to ensure that the text still contains challenging vocabularies and syntax patterns; and (d) the text has an aspect (language code, cultural code, literary code, background, characters, setting) that can serve as a springboard to elaborating Islamic values and teachings. For example, the word 'dervish' in the story of *Dervish in Hell*, is a cultural code that can be used as an entry point to discuss the tradition of Sufism in Islam. Table 2. shows the data of the texts used in this research.

TABEL 2  
THE ISLAMIC LITERATURE USED

No.	Text Title	Length	Challenging vocabularies and expressions for the students
1.	The Sterile Woman (Shah, 1974)	153 words	Doctor and physician; his wife was not bearing children; come about; put her off her food; knew; cured
2.	Dervish in Hell (Shah, 1974)	62 words	Dervish; exclaimed; reversed; compromised; heaven and paradise; a voice answered
3.	An Ugly Picture (Clark & MacLean, 2004)	70 words	Noticed; walked; threw; walking down the street; walked over; threw it away
4.	A Rich Muslim (Mello, 1991)	76 words	Took off his expensive shoes; the shoes were gone; thoughtless; responsible for; I would have gladly given them to him.
5.	The Golden Axe (Kasser & Silverman, 1986)	314 words	Lived; called; dropped; appeared; disappeared; returned; showed; brought; honest; dishonest; a bridge over a small river; by accident; on purpose; ...that one wasn't his, either
6.	Justifying Wrong Action (Vakil & Vakil, 2011)	395 words	Mosque; <i>Imam</i> Ja'far; the needy; the poor; accomplish

The participants of this research tend to look at the pronunciation aspects of the past tense of irregular verbs as challenges. The affixes of past tense *-ed* on such irregular verbs as *walked*, *called* and *returned* are pronounced [Id] rather than [t] or [d]. Idiomatic expressions, synonyms, and cultural codes, such as *dervish*, are also still challenging for most students. Concerning the meaning aspect, the length of the text tends to have no effect on the students. Short texts such as *Dervish in Hell* and *An Ugly Picture* tend to more difficult to understand compared to the longer text like *Justifying Wrong Action*.

Secondly, the Islamic literature reading stage was conducted through two methods: *bandongan* (whole class) and *sorogan* (face-to-face). *Bandongan* method worked at the collective level and was implemented through the strategy of choral reading and close reading. Choral reading is reading aloud together. Its main objective was to reduce the students' anxiety and to provide examples (*modelling*) related to acceptable pronunciation and intonation. Close reading was conducted by thoroughly reading a text by presenting morphological, syntactic, and semantic explanations. The objective of close reading was to strengthen the understanding of the aspects of meaning. Meanwhile, the *sorogan* method worked at the individual level and was used to evaluate the individual achievement of students in terms of pronunciation and text comprehension. In the case of time constraints, *sorogan* method was conducted randomly, which was by choosing students with a low level of English proficiency.

Thirdly, the interpreting and reflecting stages were carried out through the scheme of take-home assignments so that students had more time to make written answers. A take-home assignment followed not all texts. Before the take-home assignment, students had read several texts so that they could select one of the most-liked texts to be reflected. The task included four main things that students needed to provide, namely (a) specifying the title of the selected text; (b) stating the reason for the selection of the text; (c) providing the message of the text; and (d) listing the Qur'anic verse or *hadits* relevant to the message of the text. In connection with the assignment, a student wrote: "Because I love fiction, and *The Golden Axe* is fiction with an outstanding message. The Islamic moral of this story is that honesty will be replied with kindness, and will surely always be close to Allah SWT. It is in line with the *hadits* narrated by Bukhari and Muslim, stating that 'verily honesty leads to goodness, and goodness leads to paradise' (Jihan Lestari, Female, 19 years old, 2020). It appears that the students could respond to the assignment of interpretation and reflection well.

It is noteworthy that all the stages, as mentioned above, were participatory. Any dialogue or discussion on a specific issue rising during the instructional process was placed within the frame of 'appropriate or inappropriate'. The teacher avoided putting the discussion within the evaluative basis of 'correct or incorrect' to create a participatory-dialogical atmosphere.

#### B. Islamic Literature as a Factor for the Success of Ethical English Instruction

The use of Islamic literature to teach ethical English had made three successful learning achievements, namely: increasing students' interest in learning, improving students' participation, and enhancing students' language mastery and language skills.

The first success of increasing students' interest in learning was seen in the performance of opening prayer. At this stage, Islamic literature was presented in Arabic with an English translation. It is worth noting that the definition of literature in this study followed the opinion stating that religious texts are literary texts (Maley, 2012), in that texts derived from Qur'an and *hadits* are seen as literary text. Among the prayers presented in this study were: "*Subhanaka la' ilma lana 'illa ma 'allamtana 'innaka 'antal- 'Alimul Hakim.*" (Holy-Quran, Al-Baqarah 2: 32) with the meaning 'we have no knowledge except what You have taught us. Indeed, it is You who is the Knowing, the Wise.' Another opening prayer was "*Allahumma inni a'udhu bika min 'ilmin la yanfa'u, wa qalbin la yakhsha'u, wa nafsina la tashba'u. wa du'a'in la yasma'u*" with the meaning 'O Allah, I seek refuge with You from knowledge that is not beneficial, a heart that is not humble, a soul that is not satisfied, and a prayer that is not heard.' The use of such prayers is in line with the basic essence of ethical English that requires a spirituality experience in English language learning. The interview data shows a positive response from the student: "So while learning Arabic next to it there is English" [Kurniatul Hasanah, Female, 19 years old, 2020]. It appears that students are interested in and feel benefited with the opening prayers presenting in Arabic and English.

The second success is seen in the increasing participation of the students during the learning activities. The use of short texts with both *badongan* and *sorogan* methods proved effective in the students' participation. Concerning religious texts used the opening of the learning activities, most students read them seriously using choral reading and *bandongan* method. From the very beginning of the instruction, the teacher had to tell the students that according to Islamic teaching, the learning process should begin with prayer performance unless it would lose its blessing aspect. It is worth noting that the use of short text with a span of 50-100 words allowed each student to read it individually before the teacher through the *sorogan* method. It was evident that the use of short texts allowed students to have a deep practice.

The third success appears in the development of the students' language mastery and language skills. Language mastery refers to vocabulary and grammar, while language skills pertaining to listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Stern, 1991). Related to the *language mastery* and *language skills*, the interview data shows: "Some texts contain difficult vocabularies. However, due to the teaching method used in this class, the hard vocabularies made it easy." (Dinda Solehah, Female, 18 years old, 2020); "...I like it very much because from one story we can learn grammar, pronunciation, and many more." (Muhammad Ardian, Male, 19 years old, 2020); and "For example, I read *The Golden Axe* and found the message: do not lie and do not be greedy." (Destika Rahmadani, Female, 19 years old, 2020). It is safe to state that the students are progressing primarily on the vocabulary and comprehension aspects of reading.

It is worthy of note that in the above three successes, the use of Islamic literature is a factor behind the students' cognitive and affective achievement.

### C. The Use of Islamic Literature in Ethical English Instruction: A Transformation

The use of Islamic literature in ethical English instruction is a unique stimulus to a transformation characterized by a change of attitudes and paradigms. In the attitude aspect, students transform from passive to active students. On the paradigm aspect, students can use language as an instrument for sharing and as a way of doing.

The first transformation is related to the change from passive to active students. Students generally become passive when faced with lengthy text with a less familiar topic of discussion. However, the use of short texts containing Islamic values and packaged in a take-home assignment scheme has increased the activity of the students. One of the texts was *Dervish in Hell*, consisting of 62 words and tells of the religious leader who was thrown into prison for compromising the ruler, and the ruler who was put into heaven for respecting the religious leader. The story encouraged some students to comment: "Indeed, Allah does not see your appearances and possessions, but He sees your heart and deed" (Nurulita Lutfiana, Female, 18 years old, 2020); "...of the greatest sins...making false testimonies or false statement." (Rosnalita, Female, 19 years old, 2020); "(even) an adulteress who gives drinking a thirsty dog is forgiven for her sins." (Nadila, C.S., Female, 19 years old, 2020); and "Don't judge people from the cover...appearance of a man or woman does not guarantee his or her attitude." (Rika Ayu Lestari, Female, 19 years old, 2020). The variety of comments, which were derived from the Islamic tradition, to the same object, shows a good level of the students' being active.

The second transformation is related to the paradigm of language use from communication ability to sharing and caring capacity. Samples of students' works showed another mastery of language mastery and language skills. The use of the word 'we' in the following examples demonstrates the students' sharing and caring skills: "The message we can draw from the story of *The Sterile Woman* is that there is really no man...knowing when death comes." (Arif Ridho, Male, 20 years old, 2020); "The message of *The Golden Axe* is that we must be honest and should not lie." (Muhammad Rafif Dhaifullah, M, 18 years old, 2020); "The moral that we could learn from *The Sterile Woman* is that: do not despair. Trust God's timing." (Allisa Milani, Female, 19 years old, 2020). The use of the word 'we' in the above quotations implicates the engagement of the writer and the interlocutor for the collective good. Thus, Islamic literature presented in English improves not only the students' linguistic competence but also their awareness of sharing Islamic values.

The third transformation is characterized by the paradigm shift from language as an instrument to language as a way of doing. The language exposure and content of values in literary works, as well as reflection session, had encouraged

the students to speak up their minds. This could be seen in the students' reflective notes: "I was disappointed with myself for not having the courage to come forward, being a volunteer to read out the text that we students had read together... Nevertheless, I would try harder to get rid of such an attitude." (Nurul Isnaini, Female, 18 years old, 2020); and "I love the methods used in the class because they teach me not only the English language but also the knowledge of life which for some people might be meaningless, but not for me." (Tahta Gilang Adiwissa, Male, 18 years old, 2020). *Bandongan* method and *sorogan* method have put the language beyond its instrumentality function as a means of communication. More than that, they also form the configuration of the students' ideas and attitudes.

The above three transformations appear to reinforce that argument that has long been pinned in the advantage of literary work, including Islamic literature, which has a transformative potential of making its readers a better person.

## V. DISCUSSION

As has been touched upon in the previous section, this study is based on three arguments. The first argument is that the teaching of Ethical English through Islamic literature at PTKI is much more successful than of the approaches that had ever been used. The conformity of the ideological content embedded in Islamic literature is beneficial in two ways. First, Islamic literature reduces potential conflicting values that might be found within the texts used to teach English. Different cultural contents often take a longer time to teach. Secondly, Islamic literature allows the teaching of English and Islamic values to occur at the same time. Consequently, Islamic literature is more readily accepted by the students at PTKI, which in turn guarantees the success of achieving language competence and understanding Islamic teachings.

The above finding of Islamic literature effectiveness in ethical English instruction at PTKI is in tune with two previous studies. The first study reported that the reading of the Bible as standard reading materials had become a best practice among the church-based ESL programs in Australia (Wollongong, 2009). The second study found that the integration of local literature into English language learning in the Philippines students has helped the preservation of students' cultural heritage (Florentino, 2014). In terms of acceptance, the position of Islamic literature in the teaching of ethical English at PTKI is similar to that of Bible and Philippines local literature. Bible is acceptable for Christian schools, local culture is acceptable for Philippines students, and Islamic literature is acceptable for Islamic educational contexts.

The second argument is that the successful teaching of ethical English through Islamic literature is heavily influenced by the text exploitability factor. It is the text exploitability that makes the connection among reader, text, and context closer. The findings of this study suggest the importance of text exploitability contextualization of Islamic literature through an assignment strategy that relates text, reading comprehension, and main sources of Islamic tradition. It is safe to state that text exploitability is a dominant factor in the instruction of ethical English.

The findings of this study are relatively different from existing studies. Keshavarzi (2012) reported that the main factor of successful literary work use for English instruction is the use of stimulating and imaginative texts. Meanwhile, Isikli & Tarakcioglu (2017) found that the main factor in the use of literary works for EFL teaching of school students in Turkey is a curriculum design tailored to the real skills of the students. It appears that differences in the success factors for the use of literary works for English instruction are varied, particular, and contextual.

The third argument deals with the need to contextualize and established a literary teaching approach from the Western world to generate a more acceptable teaching method at PTKI in Indonesia. Madya (2015) had long emphasized that despite the rich benefits of using literature in ELT, English teachers need to adapt or contextualize the existing practices by developing their own activities through experiences. The findings of this study demonstrate integrating Indonesian Muslim local tradition into the Western established teaching methods is a logical way to bridge theoretical gaps and practical aspects. English teachers at PTKI might want to integrate the established approach with *sorogan* and *bandongan* methods, as local methods that have previously rooted in the instructional tradition of Islam in Indonesia.

The findings of this study also differ from the reported results of Ann, Yunus, & Aziz (2016), showing that content-based approaches as the preferable approach in Malaysian Teaching English as a second or foreign language (TESL) context. Fauziah (2016) reported that within the context of teaching English for young learners in Indonesia, there are three frequently used approaches, namely language-based approach (LBA), reader-response approach (RRA), and information-based approach (IBA). It is safe to state that the suitability of a teaching approach of using literary works to teach English depends much on the educational level and educational setting.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

Unfortunately, what has been understood about ethical English instruction has not been able to show a comprehensive picture of the integration of Islamic literature through a suitable teaching approach. This study finds that the text exploitability aspect, along with the implementation of a contextualized approach, made ethical English instruction in Indonesian Islamic higher education more meaningful. Contextualization in language learning is an essential factor that conditions teaching and learning activities have a closeness to the students.

The use of Islamic literature with special attention to the text exploitability aspect and through the *sorogan* and *bandongan* methods has made it possible to understand more comprehensively the potential of local wisdom. It is local

wisdom that becomes more contextual when it is adjusted with the global theoretical foundation. Through a contextualized approach, an English teacher could gain new insight related to the effort of bridging theoretical discussion with such practical considerations as educational setting, local text, and local traditions.

Nevertheless, this research is limited to the use of Islamic literature to teach ethical English at one university of PTKI only. The study suggests that advanced studies with diverse territories and university classification need to be conducted. Similarly, the comparison of ethical English instruction within other religious backgrounds is needed to configure a more comprehensive understanding of ethical English discussion.

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**Dedi Irwansyah** was born in Sumbawa Besar, December 23, 1979. Pursued his undergraduate degree from English Letters Department of Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta in 2002, Masteral degree in Applied Linguistics from Yogyakarta State University (YSU) in 2005, and doctoral degree of Language Educational Science from YSU in 2018.

He has been teaching English at State Islamic Institute of Metro, Lampung, Indonesia, since 2006. He authored the book of English for Muslim Learners in 2015, published by Penerbit Kalarana Press, Yogyakarta. His current research interests include TEFL and multiculturalism, teaching with literature, and TEFL in Islamic university.

Dr. Irwansyah is a member of Indonesian Researchers for Language Learning and Teaching (iRecall).



**Andianto** was born on November 2, 1987, in Bumi Jaya, North Lampung. He earned his undergraduate from English Language Education Department of Muhammadiyah University of Metro in 2010 and master degree in the field of study of English Language Education from Sebelas Maret University in 2013.

He has been an English teachers educator at State Islamic Institute of Metro, Lampung, Indonesia since 2015. His research interests include TEFL, ELT in Indonesia, and integration of education and technology in language teaching.

Mr. Andianto is a head of the English Language Department of State Islamic Institute of Metro, Lampung, Indonesia since 2021.



**Ahmad Madkur** was born on December 6, 1987, in Kalidadi, Central Lampung. He received a bachelor's degree in English Language Teaching from State Islamic Institute of Metro Lampung, Indonesia, in 2012, a master's degree in the same field from Universitas Islam Negeri Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta in 2015, and is currently pursuing his PhD at the School of Education, Deakin University Australia.

He has been a lecturer at Faculty of Tarbiya and Teachers Training, State Islamic Institute of Metro Lampung, Indonesia. He co-authored the book "Mastering Basic English Grammar through Islamic Stories" in 2019, published by Laduny Alifatama, Lampung. His research interests include, but are not limited to, teachers' pedagogical beliefs and voices, value integration in English as foreign language teaching, and ELT

in Islamic boarding school (*pesantren*) context.

Mr. Madkur is a board member of Indonesian English Lecturers Association (IELA).

# A Comparative Study of the IGM Use in China's English Textbooks

Haiming Zhou

School of Foreign Languages, Yancheng Teachers University, Jiangsu 224002, China

Chenxiang Mao

School of Foreign Languages, Nanjing Normal University, Jiangsu 210046, China

Chunhong Ma

Yancheng Luminglu Junior Middle School, Jiangsu 224000, China

Sen Zhou

School of Foreign Languages, Yancheng Teachers University, Jiangsu 224002, China

**Abstract**—IGM (ideational grammatical metaphor) is frequently used in English textbooks, the application of which may influence learners' proper understanding. The present paper conducts an empirical research on the application of IGM in three English textbooks for English learners of different levels in China including junior high school, senior high school and college with a view to exploring the rate and tendency of IGM application at different levels. It is found that IGM is favored in all the textbooks and nominalization ranks the first among other types of IGM. Besides, the higher the learning level is, the more frequently IGM is used. These findings suggest that the use of IGM in the investigated textbooks turned to be appropriate for EFL learners across three different levels.

**Index Terms**—IGM, English textbooks, nominalization, reading ability

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since the reading ability is an important ability that English learners should possess, it is necessary for English teachers to know how to teach reading in a more efficient way. English teachers teach reading on the basis of different kinds of English discourses, so judging the difficulty degree of an English text is of great importance for them. According to Halliday (1999, 2008), founder of systemic functional linguistics, grammatical intricacy is an important notion in characterizing the complexity of language. However, this notion has not yet been fully examined in the TEFL (Teaching of English as a Foreign Language) setting, particularly in EFL (English as a foreign language) textbooks. Vinh (2017) examined grammatical intricacy across textbook levels in a book series used in tertiary education in the Vietnamese context. Ferzhawana et al (2019) investigated ideational grammatical metaphor in senior high school English textbook. This study intends to examine the application of ideational grammatical metaphor (IGM) across different textbook levels to discover the difficulty degree of texts from a new perspective, with a view to exploring the rate and tendency of IGM application at different levels of English textbooks published in China.

## II. DEFINITION OF IGM

Systemic functional linguistics approaches metaphor from the perspective of language functions. According to Thompson (2000), IGM was related to ideational function, which meant that language can be used to talk about our experience of the world, including the worlds inside our minds, to describe events and the entities involved in them. Halliday (1985, pp. 597-603) categorized grammatical metaphor into ideational grammatical metaphor and interpersonal grammatical metaphor. The former referred to the process which should have been expressed by verbs or adjectives but was expressed by nouns in fact. It also referred to taking non-process as process at semantic level and using verbs to express what should have been expressed by other word categories in form. Halliday (1996) commented that nominalization was the single most powerful resource for creating IGM. IGM mainly falls into three categories, namely verbal nominalization, adjective nominalization and verbalization.

## III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### A. Research Questions

This study was undertaken to address the following questions:

- (1) What is the general picture of IGM use in the textbooks for learners from junior high school, senior high school

and college?

(2) What are the differences of the rates of IGM use in the textbooks for the above three levels of learners? Why?

### B. Data Collection

Firstly, the number of sentences bearing features of verbal nominalization, adjective nominalization and verbalization will be counted by the author. The number of the IGM sentences will be counted by the author under the criterion proposed by Zhu Yongsheng (2006). Quantitative measurements of the rate of IGM use at all levels and the tendency of IGM use from junior high school to senior high school to college will be combined with qualitative discussions. To achieve this goal, the number of the use of IGM in each text will firstly be counted. Then, the rate of the use of IGM of each text will be calculated. After that, the rate of the use of IGM at each level will be calculated. Finally, the tendency of the use of IGM from junior high school to senior high school to college will be analyzed. In the following parts, the collection of data and the process of doing this research will be illustrated in detail. Table 1 reports the details of data collection.

TABLE 1  
DETAILS OF DATA COLLECTION

Types of IGM	Examples	Data collection
Verbal nominalization	Many things played a part in the <i>development</i> of this new type of English.	total number of the investigated forms in each text
Adjective nominalization	Crystal is popular with all age groups and has the <i>ability</i> to amuse people all over the world.	
Verbalization	In 1985, there was little rainfall in Ethiopia, which <i>led to</i> poor harvests and the death of many of the country's cattle.	

### C. Data Analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted on the basis of the number of IGM sentences and that of the words in an article. The rate of IGM used in an article was calculated by the equation (*the number of the IGM/ the number of the words*)  $\times 1000$  and the rate of IGM used in a book was calculated by the average frequency of IGM of the 15 texts. Finally, tendency of the use of IGM from junior high school to college was analyzed by the aid of EXCEL 2010 and a line chart reflecting the tendency was formulated.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This part is composed of two subparts. The first subpart provides a report of the rate of IGM used in each text as well as at each level. It also provides a report of the tendency of IGM used from junior high school to college as well as the number of the use of verbal nominalization, adjective nominalization and verbalization at each level. The second subpart presents a detailed discussion based on the data collected.

### A. General Description of IGM Use

In this part, results collected are reported and analyzed, including the following aspects: the rate of IGM used in each text as well as at each level, the tendency of IGM used from junior high school to college, and the number of the use of verbal nominalization, adjective nominalization and verbalization at each level.

TABLE 2  
RATE OF IGM USED IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Junior high school textbooks	The rate of IGM use	Junior high school textbooks	The rate of IGM use	Junior high school textbooks	The rate of IGM use	Average rate of IGM use
Text 1	0	Text 6	0	Text 11	0	4.5
Text 2	0	Text 7	6.53	Text 12	3.17	
Text 3	8.23	Text 8	3.27	Text 13	3.21	
Text 4	9.4	Text 9	6.53	Text 14	3.23	
Text 5	10.34	Text 10	7.24	Text 15	6.34	

Table 2 shows that 11 in 15 texts taken from junior high school textbooks contain IGM and the average rate of IGM use is 4.5. Although there are 4 texts that do not contain IGM use, it does not mean that exposing second language learners to IGM is not necessary in junior high school. The average rate of IGM use shows that junior high school students have already been required to know IGM. And it is worthwhile for second language teachers to pay attention to exposing second language learners to IGM use in textbooks at junior high school level.

TABLE 3  
RATE OF IGM USED IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Senior high school textbooks	The rate of IGM use	Senior high school textbooks	The rate of IGM use	Senior high school textbooks	The rate of IGM use	Average of the rate of IGM use
Text 1	5.56	Text 6	2.98	Text 11	1.5	4.2
Text 2	1.7	Text 7	1.47	Text 12	6.15	
Text 3	3.48	Text 8	2.85	Text 13	3.61	
Text 4	1.89	Text 9	6.41	Text 14	1.6	
Text 5	7.91	Text 10	6.12	Text 15	10.2	

Table 3 shows that all 15 texts taken from senior high school textbooks use IGM and the average rate of IGM use is 4.2. That all 15 texts take from senior high school contain IGM use means that it puts forward higher requirements for senior high school students to understand IGM. Although the average rate of IGM use is a bit lower than that of senior high school, it does not mean that it is not important for senior high school students to be exposed to IGM. Since senior high school period is a critical period for second language learners to acquire a second language, exposing them to IGM is more important for them to activate LAD and make it work successfully in order to develop the English way of thinking and metalinguistic ability.

TABLE 4  
RATE OF IGM USED IN COLLEGE TEXTBOOKS

College textbooks	The rate of IGM use	College textbooks	The rate of IGM use	College textbooks	The rate of IGM use	Average rate of IGM use
Text 1	10.2	Text 6	3.68	Text 11	9.43	5.8
Text 2	8.51	Text 7	9.53	Text 12	3.36	
Text 3	3.52	Text 8	2.77	Text 13	8.69	
Text 4	4.74	Text 9	3.19	Text 14	1.73	
Text 5	1.52	Text 10	14.69	Text 15	1.5	

Table 4 shows that all 15 texts taken from college textbooks use IGM and the average rate of IGM use is 5.8. From senior high school to college, all 15 texts at each level contain IGM use, which shows that IGM is used more and more frequently. As a result, teachers at senior high school level should help second language learners build a solid foundation of using IGM in order to help them keep pace with the requirement of college. Besides, the average rate of IGM use is 5.8, which is far higher than that of junior high school and senior high school. This result is also consistent with the proposition that there is a higher requirement for second language learners with age.

TABLE 5  
TENDENCY OF IGM USE

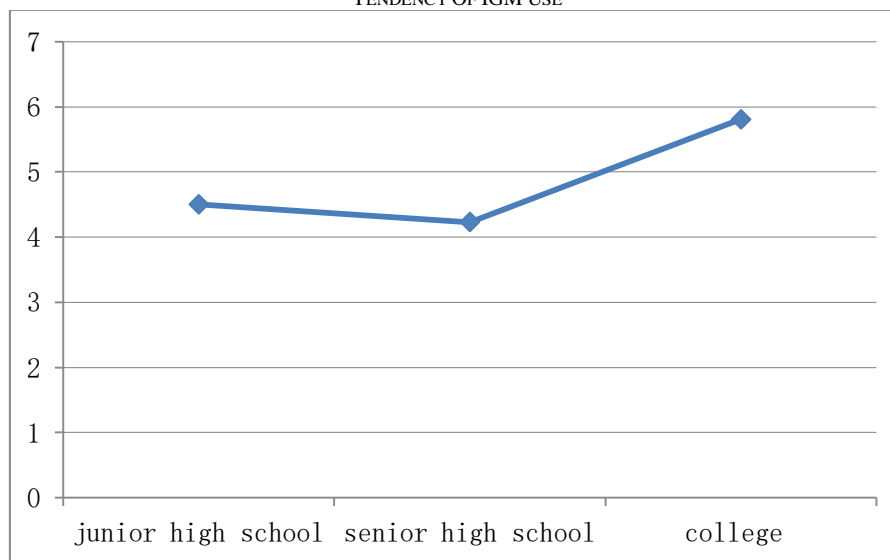


Table 5 shows that although the rate of senior high school is a bit lower than that of junior high school, the use of IGM is generally on the rise, which means that more and more IGMs are used from low grades to higher grades. And from senior high school to college, the rate of IGM use increases rapidly. From senior high school to college, second language learners are at formal operation period, which is a critical period of understanding IGM, since their abstraction ability is developed rapidly. Besides, the use of IGM is an important characteristic of academic English. As a result, senior high school English teachers should expose second language learners to more and more sentences containing IGM use and help them understand this kind of characteristic of English. By doing so, teachers can help them transit from the study of general English to that of academic English.

TABLE 6  
NUMBER OF THE USE OF THREE KINDS OF IGM

Type	Total number of IGM	Adjective nominalization	Verb nominalization	Verbalization
Junior high school	20	8	12	0
Senior high school	48	1	46	1
College	109	46	60	3

Table 6 shows that the total number of IGM use is on the rise and from senior high school to college the number rises rapidly. Verbal nominalization is used the most frequently at all levels and the use of it keeps rising from junior high school to college. Adjective nominalization is used the second most frequently. Verbalization is used least. As a result, teachers should help second language learners cultivate metaphorical thinking ability in order to develop their English way of thinking since English discourses always show their authors' way of viewing the world at grammatical level.

In this study, nominalization includes two cases. One is that the process is regarded as an object and represented by nouns in incongruent form, while in congruent form it is represented by verbs. This is called verbal nominalization. For example,

*The police **investigated** the matter.*

*The police conducted an **investigation** into the matter.*

The first sentence is in congruent form and includes a process. The process is expressed by the verb "investigate". The language of this sentence is distinct and easy to understand. The second sentence is in incongruent form. It changes the verb "investigate" into "investigation" which fulfills the function of object in the sentence. Through recategorization, the dynamic process becomes static, which offers people a new way of viewing the world. And English-speaking people often adopt this way to think and behave.

The other is that the quality of things is regarded as an object and represented by nouns in incongruent form, while in congruent form it is represented by adjectives. This is called adjective nominalization. For example,

*I was not **hungry** to be free.*

*I was not born with a **hunger** to be free.*

The first sentence is in congruent form and includes a quality which is expressed by the adjective "hungry". The second sentence is in incongruent form and changes the adjective 'hungry' into the noun "hunger", accordingly the attribute becomes a circumstance.

In this study, verbalization refers to taking non-process as process at semantic level and using verbs to express what is usually expressed by other word categories in form. There are four types of verbalization. The first one is to take time as a process. For example,

*She left **before** I arrived.*

*Her departure **preceded** my arrival.*

To show precedence relationship, adverbs like "afterwards" and conjunctions like "after" are used. However, in incongruent form, it is taken as a process and expressed by verbs.

The second one is to take cause and effect as a process. For example,

*We rushed and **so** we became confused.*

*Our rushing **led to** our confusion.*

The second sentence takes cause and effect relationship as a process. It is usually expressed by conjunctions, but in incongruent form, it is expressed by verbs.

The third is to take the condition as a process. For example,

*I sleep with the window open **unless** it is really cold.*

*Whether I sleep with the window open is **determined** by the weather condition.*

The first sentence is in congruent form and the condition is expressed by a conjunction. The second sentence is in incongruent form and the condition is expressed by a verb.

The last one is to take concession as a process. For example,

*I felt he was wrong, **although** I did not say so at the time.*

*My silence **did not mean** that I felt he was right.*

In the second sentence, the logical relationship becomes a dynamic process.

Nominalization is more recognizable and used more commonly than verbalization. That's why in the 45 texts the use of nominalization accounts for almost 100% of the whole number of the use of IGM while verbalization is used only four times.

#### B. Detailed Discussion Based on the Data Collected

When it comes to the general picture of IGM use, according to the five tables above, it can be concluded that IGM is used commonly from junior high school to senior high school to college and the tendency of IGM use is generally on the rise. It suggests that second language learners are required to know and understand IGM especially that existing in reading materials ever since they are in junior high school. Since the existence of IGM can make it more difficult for second language learners to comprehend the text, second language teachers should introduce IGM to them gradually, exposing them to this kind of linguistic phenomenon. By encouraging them to compare and analyze the differences

between congruent form and incongruent form, teachers can help them understand different expressions of different discourses. Second language learners are familiar with sentences in congruent form which are direct, but they are not familiar with sentences in incongruent form. Second language teachers should help them transform sentences in incongruent form into congruent form, which will make these sentences more comprehensible. This kind of comprehensible input can activate second language learners' LAD and contribute to acquisition.

What's more, among the three kinds of IGM, verbal nominalization is used most frequently. It makes the content more concise but is not simple in fact. It makes the reading material become more difficult for second language learners to comprehend. Since verbal nominalization can be recognized more easily and exists more commonly, understanding this kind of IGM can benefit second language learners when they read English materials. And they are required to grasp this kind of IGM most. The use of language reveals the user's way of thinking, so helping second language learners recognize, understand and use IGM can develop their English way of thinking and metalinguistic ability.

When it comes to the differences of IGM use at three levels, it shows that at junior high school level, only 11 in 15 texts use IGM; while at senior high school and college level, all 30 texts use IGM. Allowing for the distinctions, it can be concluded that second language learners meet higher standards when they are in senior high school and college. And this is consistent with the cognitive developing rule of students that their thinking become more and more abstract with the increase of their age. Senior high school students and college students are at formal operational stage and their abstract logical thinking ability develops rapidly. Therefore, senior high school English textbooks and college English textbooks use more and more IGM in order to help them develop this kind of ability. The research result suggests that English teachers at junior high school level should help English learners build a solid foundation of the use of IGM in order to get them better prepared for English study in senior high school. And English teachers at senior high school level should enhance students' understanding and application of IGM in order to get them better prepared for the need of academic English in college. As to the phenomenon that the average rate of IGM use at junior high school level is a bit higher than that of senior high school level, the reasons still need to be further investigated.

Since students have been exposed to IGM since junior high school, teachers in junior high school should develop students' ability to recognize IGM. When they are teaching reading, they should tell students which sentence contains IGM and help them to paraphrase this sentence to make it in congruent form. According to Krashen's Input Hypothesis, only when comprehensible input which is a bit higher than the learner's current level is provided can it facilitate language learning. As a result, if some sentences containing IGM are not transformed into the congruent form, students will not be able to understand. Thus, the teachers need to help students paraphrase the sentence to make it much easier to understand.

Then teachers should guide students to recognize the differences between the sentence in congruent form and the sentence in incongruent form. According to Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, there is an interdependence between language and thought. The language structure people habitually use influences the way they think and behave. Different sentences in different forms embody people's different ways of thinking and expressing the world around. By guiding students to observe the subtle differences, teachers can help them be capable of knowing how English-speaking people view and express the world. Learning a language is not only to learn its pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, etc. but also needs to learn the way in which its users think. This will help reduce the influence of negative transfer. If students maintain the Chinese way of thinking, then what they produce will be Chinglish, which may cause confusion in cross-cultural communication.

Finally, students' ability of second language acquisition develops rapidly during senior high school according to the Critical Period Hypothesis, so teachers should help them develop metalinguistic ability. On the basis that students have learned what is IGM, teachers should help students to apply this knowledge to practice, that is, to ask students to transform the sentence in congruent form into the sentence in incongruent form and use IGM consciously in the sentences they make up on their own. Teachers should encourage students to write more sentences in incongruent form.

## V. CONCLUSION

The present study probes into the use of three kinds of IGM, the rate of the use of IGM at three levels and the tendency of the use of IGM from junior high school to senior high school to college through quantitative analysis. Through the study, the following findings are highlighted.

First of all, as to the general picture of IGM use, IGM is used frequently at all of the three levels. That's to say, students have been exposed to IGM since junior high school. And this is consistent with Halliday's thought that people will not be exposed to IGM until they go to high school.

What's more, the rate of the use of IGM at junior high school level is a bit higher than that of senior high school level and far lower than that of college. And the tendency of the use of IGM is generally on the rise. Besides, the 30 texts taken from senior high school and college all contain IGM, which means IGM is used more and more frequently and it puts forward higher requirements for English learners at senior high school and college level.

Finally, of the three kinds of IGM, verbal nominalization as well as adjective nominalization are used the most frequently and verbalization is used the least frequently. This result is also consistent with previous studies that nominalization is used the most frequently in English texts.

In the future, more texts at different levels should be taken into consideration, which can render the findings more

convincing. Besides, the study does not intend to exaggerate the role of IGM in English reading teaching, but to arouse the attention of teachers and students. It is hoped that this study can benefit further researches and improvement of teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

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**Haiming Zhou**, PhD, is an associate professor at the School of Foreign Languages, Yancheng Teachers University, P. R. China. His research interests include teaching English as a foreign language, systemic functional linguistics and effective English language pedagogy for high school education in P. R. China.

**Chengxiang Mao** is an M. Ed. candidate at the School of Foreign Languages, Nanjing Normal University, P. R. China. Her research interests include English education and applied linguistics.

**Chunhong Ma** is a senior teacher at Yancheng Luminglu Junior Middle School, Jiangsu Province, P. R. China. Her research interest includes English textbooks and curriculum design.

**Sen Zhou** is a B. A. candidate at the School of Foreign Languages, Yancheng Teachers University, P. R. China. His research interest includes English education.



# Noun Class System in Ikhin, an Edoid Language

Olaide Oladimeji

Department of Linguistics and Languages, Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Negeria

Opoola Bolanle T.

Department of Linguistics and Languages, Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Negeria

**Abstract**—This paper examines the noun class system in Ikhin, an Edoid language in South-South, Nigeria. Unlike other related Edoid languages examined and investigated by various scholars, nothing has been said on the noun class system in Ikhin. The paper establishes noun prefixes and concord prefixes in modifiers such as demonstrative and possessive pronouns. Although inherited, this paper confirms that majority of the nouns are inflected for number by means of prefix vowel alternation. The study also confirms that the language maintains most of the noun class distinctions in Edoid languages. The paper examines morphological alternations and their implications for phonology. It is argued that vestiges of vowel harmony appear in the patterning of vowels in nouns and in the way vowels alternate in prefixes. Vestigial evidence of concord which is normally the hallmark of a noun class system in Edoid languages was discovered in modifiers such as demonstrative and possessive pronouns.

**Index Terms**—noun class system, Ikhin, Edoid language, concord prefixes, morphological alternation

## I. INTRODUCTION

The name of the founder of Ikhin is Ekpenga. He was one of the three sons of the Oba of Benin who left Benin City as a result of disagreement with their father, King Ewuare of Benin who ruled from about 1440-1475. The other two brothers were Ekonkaran and Iguan. They packed their belongings and headed West Ward from Benin but had no specific destination in mind. The disagreement arose as a result of their opposition to their father's practice of enslavement as a source of labour for building his palace and his insistence on the use of palm oil instead of water for mixing the mortar. The three brothers; Ekpenga, Ekonkaran and Iguan finally settled at Ifon which is now in Ondo State.

They sojourned at Ifon for about half a century. During this period, the three had increased in population but refused to imbibe the Yoruba culture, therefore, the people asked them to leave. Ekonkaran and Iguan were the first to leave. Ekpenga remained. As he continued to stay, Ifon people became more worried and began to ask "what type of people are these"? Ekpenga usually replied in Bini thus "Edo Mikhin", that is "I am from Edo". Therefore, in discussions and conversations, the people of Ifon instead of saying "Edo-Mikhin people" would refer to them as "Ikhin people". From such interplay, Ekpenga and his household earned the name "Ikhin" before they left eventually to settle at UHOMOERUE. That was how the name Ikhin originated.

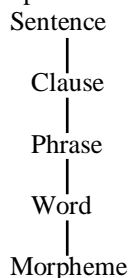
Ikhin is one of the languages spoken in the Southern Nigeria. It belongs to Edoid language family. According Oladimeji (2013), it is a daughter language that belongs to the North-Central group of Edoid languages that was formerly known as Eastern Kwa. Categorically, Oladimeji (2010) states that the Ikhin language is spoken at Ikhin in Owan East Local Government Area of Edo State. For Blench (1989), the Eastern Kwa languages are recently classified as Benue-Congo (BC) and they form putative West Benue-Congo (WBC). However, the Edoid languages are majorly grouped into four. For Lewis (2013:160), they are North Central (NC), Northwestern (NW), Southwestern (SW) and Delta (D). Additionally, Elugbe (1989) recorded that the Edoid languages spread from the eastern Niger Delta in the Rivers and Bayelsa States through Delta State and Edo State into parts of Ondo and Kogi States (<http://www.ling.mq.edu.au>).

This study investigated the morphology of Ikhin with a view to determining the typology of its noun class system. Ikhin has similar linguistic features with Edo (Bini), Emai and Ghotuo languages. Elugbe (1986) and Egbokhare (1990) have both discussed noun class system in Ghotuo and Emai respectively. Emai, Ghotuo and Ikhin are spoken in Owan East Local Government area of Edo states. There is no mutual intelligibility among the speakers, because, each has its own linguistic peculiarities. This paper discusses morphological alternation and its implication for phonology as it relates to the analysis of noun class system in Ikhin.

Granted that some elementary concepts (such as morphemes, morphs, allomorphs, affixes, etc.) in morphology can be understood quite adequately without any real references to the other aspects of linguistics, it is however, rare to grasp the full implications of contemporary research in morphology without a requisite knowledge in phonology and syntax. Egbokhare (1990:74) refers to morphology as a lower-level syntax "because both syntax and morphology involve syntagmatic relations of some kind". Syntax has as its frame of reference, the sentence as a unit of relationship

involving words. Morphology on the other hand, has as its frame of reference, the word as a unit of organization involving morphemes.

The grammatical description of any language can be schematized as below:



Such grammatical description is always in ascending order, that is, from morphemes, words etc. Morphemes are themselves short sequences of phonemes, thus it is important to begin from a phonological description (phonemes) to a morphological description (morphemes / words).

## II. METHODOLOGY

The methodology adopted in this paper is both descriptive and analytical. The collection of data took place in Ikhin and Ibadan. The analysis presented in this paper is based on the quantity of tape-recorded text materials. Data were obtained from seven purposely selected native speakers in Ikhin town and one from Ibadan, using the 1000 wordlist of the Summer Institute of Linguistics and the University of Ibadan wordlist of 400 basic items. This method has assisted in unveiling speech variation among the various speakers. Additional data were collected from traditional stories, conversations, descriptive statements and isolated, unelicited utterances. The data were analysed using the speech filing system of the computerised speech laboratory.

## III. RELATED WORKS

Literature on Ikhin language is rare. Folarin (1982) is a Master's project and is the only extant linguistic study on this language. It dwells mainly on the Phonetics of the language. Apart from the very useful auditory and instrumental study of the sounds of this language and the identification of two basic tones, high /H/ and low /L/, little is said about the various tonal and segmental processes in the language.

There have been various studies on Edoid languages in which noun class system has been exhaustively discussed. However, none has made mention of Ikhin noun class system. This paper is the first work on the noun class system of Ikhin.

## IV. NOUN STRUCTURE

Nouns and their internal structure will be given attention in this paper. Morphology is concerned with the internal structure of words, and how words can be formed. It is usual to recognize three different word formation processes.

(1) Inflectional processes, by means of which a word is derived from another word form, acquiring certain grammatical features but maintaining the same part of speech or category (e.g walk, walks)

(2) Derivational processes in which a word of a different category is derived from another word or word stem by the application of some process (e.g grammar  $\longrightarrow$  grammatical,  $\longrightarrow$  grammaticality)

(3) Compounding, in which independent words come together in some way to form a new unit (buttonhole).

Examples of derivational affixes can be found in the derivation of nouns and gerundive nominals from verbs in Ikhin.

AFFIX	CHANGE	EXAMPLES	GLOSS
e-	verb to noun	vúj'è' èvuj'é	Open/Opening
e-	verb to noun	j'ǎ' èǎ'á	Drink/Drinking

In Edoid languages "most roots (verb or noun) are monosyllabic, consisting in CV". (Westernmann and Bryan, 1952). The prevalence of second syllables in stems and the use of noun prefixes and concord prefixes lend a complexity of morphology to the Edoid languages of a kind not frequently associated with 'Kwa' languages. (Elugbe, 1986). In all branches of the Niger-Kordofanian language family, with the exception of Mande, it is typical that a noun in its simplest form can be analysed as consisting of the stem and an affix. (Welmers, 1973).

Egbokhare (1990) claims that "in a number of West African languages, such affixes are prefixes which distinguish number". Thus Ikhin also has affixes which are noun prefixes.

### A. Number

In Ikhin, majority of the nouns are inflected for number by means of prefix vowel alternation. Thus, the difference between the singular and plural forms is marked by a difference in the prefixes the nouns take.

For example:

- (1) (a) i) ò-bò 'native doctor' è-bò 'native doctors'

ii) ù-gbǎ́ 'thorn'                      i-gbǎ́́ 'thorns'

A look at the singular-plural pairs shows that the following pairs exist:

- (b) u/i  
o/i  
ε/i  
a/i  
o/e  
ɔ/e  
ε/e

On the basis of the above information, we can say that the plural morphemes are /i/ and /e/ and that others are singular morphemes. These patterns do not reveal a purely phonologically determined number system. For example, we have ε/i, o/i and then ε/e, o/e. There is, therefore, no way of phonologically explaining this class pairing. It is not possible to say that non-low vowel attracts [i] and low vowel attracts [e]. It must be assumed, therefore, that this is an evidence of a richer noun classification system of an earlier stage in the history of the language. Nonetheless, it seems obvious that we can say there were two alternants of the plural morphemes [i] and [e] which may be reflexes of an earlier i/e.

Elugbe (1989) confirmed that proto-Edoid [\*e] became [e] in all environments in North Central Edoid. Other North Central Edoid languages include Edo (Bini), Esan, Yekhee (Etsako), Emai and Ghotuo. Typical singular-plural pairings are exemplified in the examples below.

	Singular	Plural
ii)	ò-bò 'native doctor'	è-bò 'native doctors'
iii)	ù-gbǎ́ 'thorn'	i-gbǎ́́ 'thorns'
iv)	è-we 'goat'	è-wè 'goats'
v)	ò-kò 'mortar'	è-kò 'mortars'
vi)	ò-kpòsò 'female'	ì-kpòsò 'females'
vii)	ò-mǎhè 'boy'	ì-mǎhè 'boys'

However, there are also nouns which are not inflected for number but in constant forms. These have the same vowel prefix in their singular and plural forms:

- viii) ù-só 'head'  
ix) à-kǎ́ 'teeth'  
x) i-bùbù 'dust'  
xi) ì-kè 'back'  
xii) è-ò 'eye'

Thus, each noun class set up in this study (as shown below) includes the singular and plural prefix pair of each noun. Vowel harmony is not a prominent feature in Ikhin. However, vestiges of harmony are observed in the patterning of vowels in nouns and in the way vowels alternate in prefixes during plural formation as shown in the following paired classes.

### Singular/Plural classes

#### CLASS 1: u-/i-

##### Parts of the body

- (2) a) i) ò ko 'stomach (intestine)'  
ii) ò gwa 'knee'

##### Man made objects:

- b) i) ò-kpò 'cloth'  
ii) ò-ṣòṣò 'door way'  
iii) ò-ìkhù 'medicine'

##### Animals and animal parts:

- c) i) ò-kò 'he-goat'  
ii) ò-ṣù 'vulture'

##### Plants and parts of plants:

- d) i) ò-ságùò 'groundnut'  
ii) ò-kpá 'seed'

##### Insects

- e) ò-sù 'Mosquito'

##### Natural Phenomenon

- f) ò-kì 'Moon'

#### CLASS 2: a-/i-

##### Plants and parts of plants

- i) ò-siè 'Pepper'  
ii) ò-tábà 'Tobacco'

Parts of body:

h) -tìkpóhò 'Buttocks'

Man made objects:

i) - yǎĩ 'Knife'

CLASS 3: ε-/i-

Man made object:

j) - kpà 'bag'

Abstract:

k) - yèè 'lie'

CLASS 4: ɔ-/e-

People:

l) i) -móhè 'Man'

ii) -rùà 'In-law'

iii) - sè 'Friend'

iv) - rè 'Guest'

Part of plants:

m) i) - gèdè 'plantain'

ii) - mòká 'Orange'

Man made objects:

n) i) - pià 'Machet'

ii) - xòrò 'Mud'

CLASS 5: o-/i-

People:

o) i) -kpòsò 'Female'

ii) -yì 'Thief'

Man made objects:

p) - dí 'Wall of house'

CLASS 6: ε-/e

Animals:

q) i) -la 'cow'

ii) -fè 'Snake'

Natural phenomenon:

r) - dà 'River'

Man made objects:

s) - gùè 'hoe'

CLASS 7: o-/e-

Man made objects:

t) i) -gùà 'farm implement'

ii) - hisà 'broom'

Animal and animal parts:

u) i) - fè 'rat'

ii) -xùà 'horn'

Plant:

v) i) -rà 'tree'

ii) -bè 'leaf'

### Single class

The single classes are each identified by single unpaired prefixes. They contain mass, abstract and some countable nouns which are pluralised through the addition of number.

- a. i) /úsó/ + /evà  
'head' 'two'
- ii) /úsóevà/ 'two heads'

Nouns that refer to parts of the body, parts of the plants, animals, man made objects are countable, while mass nouns, abstract nouns, the nouns which refer to the natural phenomena group are uncountable. Some of these fall within the group called 'others'.

CLASS 8: u-

Parts of body

b) i) -só 'head'

ii) -nù 'mouth'

CLASS 9: i-

Parts of body:

c) i) ̀gwè ‘nose’

ii) ̀xèrè ‘penis’

Man made objects:

d) ̀bàtà ‘shoe’

OTHERS:

e) i) ̀tǎ ‘story’

ii) ̀yì ‘guinea corn’

iii) ̀rà ‘father’

iv) ̀kpèkpéyè ‘duck’

v) ̀sò ‘feaces’

CLASS 10: o-

Natural phenomena:

f. i) ̀kù ‘sea’

ii) ̀óyò ‘day’

Abstract:

g. - sà ‘hunger’

Parts of body:

h. - bǎ ‘arm’

CLASS 11: e-

Man made objects:

i) i) ̀guà ‘village’

ii) ̀yòyò ‘road’

Others:

j) i) ̀rà ‘name’

ii) ̀gbè ‘body’

CLASS 12: a-

Parts of body:

k) i) ̀gbǎ ‘jaw’

CLASS 13: ee-

Others:

l. i) - nè ‘four’

CLASS 14: ɔ-

Seasons:

m. i) ̀rùámè ‘rainy season’

ii) - wòvò ‘dry season’

CLASS 15: oi-

Others:

n. ̀hi ‘fear’

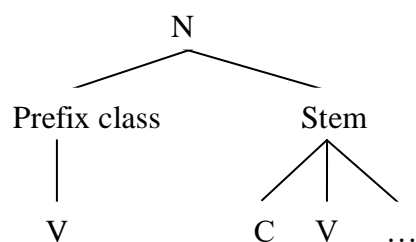
### B. Compound Nouns

A good number of the polysyllabic (trisyllabic) nouns are derived. Each of these nouns whether derived or not has initial vowel which is historically a class marker.

- 3) i) /étuàgbǎ/ < é + tù + à-gbǎ  
‘bear’ np + hair + Jaw  
ii) /ókòèdà/ < ó +kò + è-dà  
‘canoe’ np + motor + river  
iii) /òsàmè/ < ò +sà + à-mè  
‘thirst’ np + hunger + water  
iv) /èrààmèdà/ < è +rà + àmè + è-dà  
‘crocodile’ np + animal + water + river

Based on the above, noun structure may be represented with the following diagram

(4)



### C. Agentive Nouns

A noun in Ikhin (most nouns are formed from verb stems) is usually of v - c v structure (the hyphen separates the prefix from the stem). Polysyllabic nouns are of the structure v - c v c v. While verbs have initial consonants, nouns on the other hand, have initial vowels. A few of these nouns are derived from the verbs by prefixing vowels to the verb stems.

Examples:

Verb	prefix + stem + concord	prefix + verb Agentive-Nominal
(6) i) dè 'buy'	o- li o	-dè ólòdè 'buyer'
ii) kiè 'sell'	o- li o	-kiè ólókjé 'sellers'
iii) gbè 'kill'	o- li o	-gbe ólògbè 'killer'
iv) zò 'build'	o- li o	-zò ólòzò 'builder'
v) xà 'teach'	o- li o	-xà ólòxà 'teacher'

The above involve the deletion of the vowel of the agentive stem.

### D. Personal Pronouns

In traditional grammar, a pronoun is seen as functioning as a substitute for a noun in discourse. According to Egbokhare (1990), an adequate description of the pronominal system of a language entails a specification of the forms which are realized in various environments and where necessary a specification of their relationship. The pronoun in Ikhin is a nominal which can be inflected both for person and number.

The following is the paradigm of the subject pronominal:

		Singular	Plural
(7) i.	1st person	mémé 'I'	mémé 'we'
ii.	2 <sup>nd</sup> person	wéwé 'you'	wéwé 'you'
iii.	3 <sup>rd</sup> person	óré 'he/she/it'	éré 'they'

The above paradigm reveals that the subject pronominals are inflected both for person and number.

Examples:

- iv. mèmè ré òkpòsò I have a wife
- v. wè ré òkpòsò You have a wife
- vi. òrè ré òkpòsò He has a wife
- vii. mè rè íkpòsò We have wives
- viii. wè rè íkpòsò You(plural) have wives
- ix. èrè rè íkpòsò They have wives

On the other hand, the pronominals have the following paradigm when functioning as object.

		Singular	Plural
x.	1st person	mímé 'me'	mímé 'us/our'
xi.	2 <sup>nd</sup> person	wéwé 'you'	wéwé 'you/your'
xii.	3 <sup>rd</sup> person	òsò 'him/his'	è!è 'them/their' (Possessive)

Examples:

Objects

- xiii. ó fi mè èmì He beat me
- xiv. ó fi wè He beat you
- xv. mí fi òsò I beat him
- xvi. ó fi èmì He beat us
- xvii. òbè ní ísè érò The book is their own (Possessive)

On the contrary, the above show that the morphological shape of the second person remains constant in both the subject and the object positions. This is an exception which is not unusual as the same is found in English language where the second person pronoun 'you' has the same morphological shape in every environment it occurs.

### E. Numerals

Numerals are made up of prefixes and stems. The numeral forms from one to ten are simple forms while those from twelve upwards are compounds of one kind or the other:

Examples:

- (8) i) /òkpà/ 'one'
- ii) /èvà/ 'two'
- iii) /èhà/ 'three'
- iv) /ènè/ 'four'
- v) /íkhè/ 'five'
- vi) /éhà/ 'six'
- v) /íkhirà/ 'seven'
- vi) /inènè/ 'eight'
- vii) /itjírí/ 'nine'

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using these demonstratives, Ikhin distinguishes between near /òná/ 'this' and far /òní/ 'that'. This can be looked at from the point of view of the speaker and the hearer.

Example:		Singular Noun	Prefix	Stem	
(11)	i)	òè 'leg'	o-	→ nǎ →	òénǎ 'this leg'
	ii)	òè 'leg'	o-	→ nǐ →	òéní 'that leg'
Plural					
	iii)	àè 'legs'	e-	→ nǎ →	àénǎ 'these legs'
	iv)	àè 'legs'	e-	→ nǐ →	àéní those legs'

Other examples are:

v)	òbónǎ	'this doctor'
vi)	èbónǎ	'these doctors'
vii)	òbóní	'that doctor'
viii)	èbóní	'those doctors'
ix)	ákání	'that basket'
x)	ákánǎ	'this basket'
xi)	ódíní	'that wall'
xii)	ódínǎ	'this wall'

However, the demonstrative morphemes /ò-nà/ or /ò-ní/ can stand alone when it does not serve as a modifier to any noun. Compare for instance, the following pairs of sentences:

- 1a. mí dé áβè ònì (nominalised)  
I buy + past house that  
I bought that house
- b. mí dé ònì (non-nominalised)  
I buy + past that  
I bought that
- 2a. mí dé áβè òná (nominalised)  
I buy + past house this  
I bought this house
- b. mí dé òná (non-nominalised)  
I buy + past this  
I bought this

As said earlier, the demonstrative is not monomorphemic, it consists of the prefix /ò-/ and the stem /-ná/. /o-/ is a singular prefix which becomes /e-/ in the plural so that when we have the plural demonstrative, plurality is marked in the prefix, thus the prefix serves as a concord marker. Examples:

- 1a. mí dé íβèèni 'I bought those houses'
- b. mí dé áβè ònì 'I bought that house'
- 2a. mí dé íβè èná 'I bought these houses'
- b. mí dé áβè òná 'I bought this house'

### C. Possessive

- (11). 1a) òbò mè → òbòmè  
hand my my hand
- b) èbò mè → èbòmèixi  
hands my my hands
2. a) òbò wè → òbòwè  
hand your your hand
- b) èbò wè → èbòwè  
hands your hands
3. a) òbò òsò → òbòsò  
hand his his hand
- b) èbò è!è → èbòè!è  
hands their their hands

In the paradigm for the articles, the stem vowel is deleted at word boundary while in the demonstratives, the prefix vowel of the demonstrative is deleted. Also in the possessive, the prefix vowel is deleted as shown in the third person plural and singular possessives. It must be noted, however, that deletion does not apply to other forms of possessive



because they are monosyllabic with CV syllable structure whereas the third person possessive has V-CV structure like other forms of determiners.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This study confirmed that Ikhin is a typical African language with some similar grammatical features of Edoid origin. In accounting for how nouns and pronominals are inflected for number and person, this paper established that the plural morphemes are /i/ and /e/ and that others are singular morphemes. Vestigial evidence of concord which is normally the hallmark of a noun class system was confirmed in modifiers, such as demonstrative and possessive pronouns.

Regarding pluralisation, the paper demonstrated that plural marking is optional in Ikhin but that when nouns are marked for plural, there are three different ways in which this is carried out. First is through a contextually determined plurality. These are cases where there is no overt plural marking, as such; a noun can be interpreted as singular or plural e.g. [ú-só] ‘head’, [à-kǝ] ‘tooth’. The second strategy is a lexically determined plurality. These are cases where nouns take quantifiers and numerals. The third strategy is a morphologically determined plurality by means of a prefix vowel alternation e.g.

[ò-rǎ] ‘tree’  
[è-rǎ] ‘trees’  
[è-wè] ‘goat’  
[è-wè] ‘goats’

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**Olaide Abduwaheed Oladimeji** was born in Ibadan, Nigeria 1969. He received his PhD degree in Linguistics from University of Ibadan in 2010.

He is a lecturer 1 in the Department of Linguistics and Languages, Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. His research interests include Phonology and Syntax of African languages.

Dr. Oladimeji is member of Linguistics Association of Nigeria.



**Tajudeen Bolanle Opoola** was born in Oyo, Nigeria in 1959. He received his PhD degree in Linguistics from University of Calabar, Nigeria in 2001.

He is currently a Professor in the Department of Linguistics and Languages, Federal University, Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. His research interests include Applied Linguistics and African languages.

Professor Opoola is a member of Linguistics Association of Nigeria and Patron, Association of Nigerian Authors, Oyo State branch, Nigeria.

# Islamification vs. Islamophobia: A Message to the Youth in the Occident: Critical & Rhetorical Inquiries

Bahram Kazemian

Department of English, Tabriz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Shatha Naiyf Qaiwer

Department of English, College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Iraq

Shafiegh Mohammadian

Independent Researcher, Iran

**Abstract**—Drawing upon the recent theoretical framework of Burkean concept of identification (ID), the current study aims at probing the interaction of content and form in two letters penned by Iran's Supreme Leader and addressed to the Youth on Jan. and Nov. 2015. To this end, the study seeks (i) to determine a role ID takes in the conveyance of intended assumptions to the targeted readers; and (ii) to observe if the writer's objectives, i.e. to identify himself with the readers and to realize his politically-religiously-infused creeds, result in success or failure; moreover, (iii) it seeks to determine how he achieved his end to attenuate the impacts of blazing inferno of Islamophobia and anti-Islam sentiments in his addressees. The whole corpus (about 3000 words), in light of van Dijk's Socio-cognitive approach, is critically perused to seek out contextually-coded expressions. The study tries to set out a manner in which political text/talk could be analyzed rhetorically employing ID concept. It was found that ID as a two-way process is a key component for both parties to identify with. It makes the readers align themselves with the writer and helps the writer to associate with the readers and accomplish his goals.

**Index Terms**—identification theory, Burkean rhetoric, rhetorical strategies, socio-cognitive model, Mr. Khamenei's letters, Islamophobia, Islamification

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a powerful shaping force in how we think about or negotiate our way through life. It is integral to the fabric of our daily life. Woods (2006) contends that in our everyday experience, we deal with people, we might need to convince them, or justify our actions to them. In our relationships, inevitably, we all need to write and explicate things to people or complain to them of unfair or unjust treatment. Alternatively, we may want to enforce power over people or grant power to them. Quite a lot of our activities, actions and learning are achieved through language. All the above-mentioned activities, these social relations of ours, involve language (spoken/written); "most of them, in fact, are more or less wholly circumscribed by linguistic communication" (Woods, 2006, p. viii)

Ziahosseiny (1999) points out that both spoken and written discourse are dependent on context, addressee, and the relationship between speaker/writer and listener/reader. A natural communication may contain references impossible to decode without particular knowledge. Even written texts such as reports, letters and so on encode a high degree of shared knowledge between readers and writers. Thus, there are two main factors to be considered in communication whether spoken or written: explicitness and implicitness; that is, what there is to be mentioned, and what is implied or understood.

Politics and language go hand in hand and are closely interwoven and intimately linked at a fundamental level (Chilton, 2004) that, as Lakoff (1990, p. 13) put it, "politics is language and, at the same time, language is politics". Nowadays, with the increasing globalization and cross-cultural communication, people are more interested in political discourses and due to the great impact of politics in our everyday life and of its pre-arranged and engineering essence for public consumption, this discourse has gained its prominence and value worldwide (van Dijk, 2001). The most remarkable and distinctive characteristics that differentiate political discourse from other sorts of discourses are their strong relations with power and control and their multiple and discursive purposes worldwide and nationwide (Zhou & Kazemian, 2015).

Political pundits and statesmen, on the one hand, often attempt to introduce themselves as an authority in order to exert power and influence upon the addressees, as well as to steer grassroots' viewpoints and thoughts to conduct in distinct ways etc. On the other hand, they need to attenuate their power, in one way or another, so as to create a desirable associations and identification with their addressees. All of the above properties make the political discourse

more intricate and discursive and it merits our particular and rigorous attention. In using language in different contexts and discourses such as politics, advertisement and so on, rhetoricians tend to employ particular forms of language to convey particular meanings and assumptions to various people with various orientations and beliefs at one time and within one piece of discourse; therefore, their utterances have a certain force and have consequential effects on the addressees (Woods, 2006, p. vii; Kazemian & Hashemi, 2017).

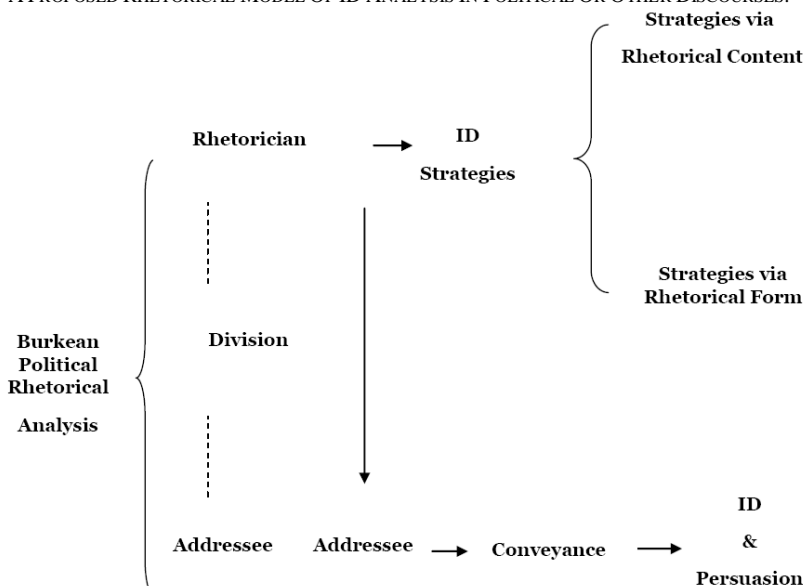
### **Objective & Significance of the Study**

This study is an attempt to set out a manner in which a written/spoken discourse in politics, advertisement etc. could be analyzed and appraised lexico-grammatically, critically, and rhetorically through content and form employing Burkean concept of Identification along with its various strategies, tropes and functions. Put in other terms, the study seeks to pinpoint a role Identification (hereafter ID) takes in the conveyance of intended meaning and assumptions to the targeted readers by the writer, and in this underlying trend and effort, to observe if his ends and objectives to attenuate Islamophobia and Anti-Muslim sentiments amongst the youth culminate in success or failure; It also seeks to see if he succeeds in identifying himself with his addressees, transcending division, inducing cooperation and, thus, realizing his politically, religiously-infused creeds, purposes and notions in the letters.

The *significance* of the corpus for analysis is that it is the first time that young people in the Occident have been directly addressed by a senior Islamic cleric about Islamic thoughts and teachings, Islamophobia and Anti-Muslims propaganda aroused by the Occident's media and pundits. And also, neither in this framework nor other linguistic disciplines, the letters have not been critically, attitudinally and rhetorically evaluated or inspected in any academic papers except for some reviews in online magazines and newspapers by critics.

The *significance* of the theoretical discipline applied in this study is that Burkean Identification theory is a relatively recent line of thinking within rhetoric and political discourse. Since ID arises from the interaction of content and form (Foss, Foss, & Trapp, 2001; Zhou & Kazemian, 2015), the corpus is analyzed from two angles: ID strategies from rhetorical content and form; see the following proposed Table (1) as a rhetorical model to investigate political or any other discourses through Identification Theory (ID-Th in short) each of which will be discussed in the following section.

TABLE 1.  
A PROPOSED RHETORICAL MODEL OF ID ANALYSIS IN POLITICAL OR OTHER DISCOURSES:



Surveying preceding and recent annals of literature involving ID-Th in new rhetoric shows that their focal attention mainly fixed on the elaboration of Burkean concept of ID and its types, tropes and components (Griffin, 1952; Weaver, 1953; Rosenfeld, 1969; Ambrester, 1974; Ehninger, 1975; Harte, 1977; Bitzer, 1980; Cheney, 1983; Hansen, 1996; Corbett, 1998; Foss, et al, 2001; Richardson, 2004; Johnstone & Eisenhart, 2008 etc.); while little has been expressed about how ID-Th in Burke's new rhetoric (Sinha & Jackson, 2006; Christiansen, 2014; Li & Chen, 2015 etc.) could be practically exploited for critical and rhetorical evaluation in various genres and discourses. Furthermore, in spite of ID's clear association to persuasion and inducement of attitudes and actions, as outlined by Burke (1969a, b), few studies (Rex, 2011; Zhou & Kazemian, 2015) have applied ID to the realm of political discourse whereas huge quantities of research investigated old rhetorical tropes in various discourses (Flowerdew, 2002; Murphy, 2003; Atkins & Finlayson, 2014; Kazemian & Hashemi, 2014, 2017 etc.). This is dispiriting since the rhetoric of politics is a fundamental and an indispensable part of the communication discipline.

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

### A. ID Theory in Burkean Rhetoric

According to Burke (1969a) "the most characteristic concern of rhetoric is the manipulation of men's beliefs for political ends" (p. 41). He adds that the underlying function of rhetoric is "the use of words by human agents to form attitudes or to induce actions in other human agents" (p. 41). To Burke (1969a), rhetoric "is rooted in an essential function of language itself, a function that is wholly realistic, and is continually born anew" (p. 43). He states precisely that "rhetoric is the use of language as a symbolic means of inducing cooperation in beings that by nature respond to symbols" (1969a, p. 43). That is to say, rhetoric is an added incentive to action. By means of inducement, the grassroots can be rallied and can create incentives to act in intended ways.

Burke then develops the definition of rhetoric by presenting the conception of ID into new rhetoric. Rhetoric, for Burke, is an intricate concept of meaning, persuasion and human interaction established on *ID/consubstantiation* as the quality of sharing attributes. Rhetoric copes with language's role in ID, influence and inducement of viewpoints and actions. Thusly, the key term in *Burkean rhetorical theory* is ID which is rooted in the notion of substance (Sinha & Jackson, 2006). *Identities* or *selves* are formed through various properties or substances. According to Herrick (2013), ID is the key to persuasion; "as we share substances, we come to identify with others. As we speak each other's language, we become consubstantial" (p. 174). Burke utilizes ID to appraise the traditional concept of rhetoric as persuasion.

In this way, accomplishing ID with '*the other*' for Burke is nothing more than being "united in substance through common ideas, attitudes, material possessions, or other properties, that is, to be consubstantial with the other" (Foss et al., 2001, p. 158). It is through the motives of property in which a thing is identified; i.e. objects, groups, and even ourselves are identified through their substance. Burke (1969a) maintains that via a rhetorical appealing to substance, ID and ultimately persuasion can be achieved. Just as he exemplifies: "to identify A with B is to make A 'consubstantial' with B" (Burke, 1969a, p. 21). To put it simply, whenever someone strives to induce and persuade someone else, ID occurs; for persuasion to occur, one party must identify with another. That is, the persuaded one notices that one party is like another in some way. Within Burke's theory, division between two parties is essential for ID to occur, as he says: "identification is affirmed with earnestness precisely because there is division. Identification is compensatory to division" (1969a, p. 22). Thus human beings consist of a unique compound of different substances, and because of this uniqueness, there are divisions amongst them.

The introduction of the key terms by Burke viz ID versus *division* (alienation/ dissociation) in his theory deserves particular consideration. He proposed that ID should be the central concern within the new rhetoric (Burke, 1951). He concurs with Aristotle's remark that ID can be a process of persuasive appeal "as when the politician seeks to identify himself with his audience" (Burke, 1951). ID in this regard is a plea to the rhetoricians' ethos. However, Burke's initial concern in ID is that it can be an end in itself as when people solemnly long to identify themselves with some group or other (Burke, 1951).

Burke (1951, 1969a, b,) discriminates the *old rhetoric* from *new rhetoric*, and proposed that the key term for the latter is ID whereas the former concentrates more on persuasion. He suggests that as for the association between ID and persuasion, the rhetoricians struggle to persuade their addressees by the exploitation of stylistic IDs; the act of persuasion is carried out for the purpose of causing the addressees to identify themselves with the rhetoricians' interests and assumptions; in other words, they draw on ID of interests to create relationship between themselves and their addressees. Therefore, rhetoric for Burke becomes diverse patterns of attaining ID (Burke, 1969a, b; Corbett, 1998). In his seminal book, Burke (1969a) identifies three major types/functions of ID-They are:

- 1) ID via **common goals/background** as a means to an end, primarily functioning as *persuasion*,
- 2) ID through **common enmity/challenge**, i.e. establishing ID over a joint enemy in association with a mutual enemy,
- 3) ID through **unconscious association** (Burke, 1969a; Herrick, 2013).

The scope of rhetoric in Burkean theory embraces both traditional and non-traditional tropes and forms of discourse. This first type is a more traditional procedure to rhetoric and ID in which rhetoricians draw the addressees' attention with the primary objective to influence and win their full support; it is primarily utilized *as a means to an end* to achieve some degree of persuasion between the rhetoricians and the addressees. This type of ID is very prominent in essence, where rhetoricians try to achieve consubstantiality by identifying their personal properties/substance with the properties of the addressees.

In Burkean theory, the 2<sup>nd</sup> type is titled *ID via Antithesis* in which ID can be attained amongst joint enemies through the sharing of a *mutual enemy*. When ID is achieved among enemies through the association of a common enemy, two opposing parties can get united via some form of mutual opposition. Again, this type of ID serves a prominent role as a linkage between enemies out of a desire for common benefit. ID here operates as an association via a mutual antithesis, bringing together parties or individuals who traditionally would not work and operate together. Burke's 2<sup>nd</sup> type of ID function is perchance summed up best by the old proverb, "the enemy of my enemy is my friend" (Christiansen, 2014, p. 32).

Finally, there are instances where we might not be fully conscious of the IDs we are making and may hold within our subconscious. The third and final type of Burke's conception of ID, and often the most influential, is where ID can accomplish subconsciously or is utilized to persuade the addressees at an unconscious level (Foss et al., 2001).

### B. Van Dijk's Socio-cognitive Approach

Van Dijk (2001) asserts that "action is controlled by our minds"; thus if we can sway people's minds – for instance, their worldviews, outlooks, or ideologies- "we may control their actions, as we know from persuasion and manipulation" (p. 355). He (2008) also claims that *contextualization* plays a crucial role in our perception of human conduct and that discourse is never totally explicit and has several meaning *implications* (entailments) that are not directly and clearly delineated by discourse producers. The rationale behind it is that discourse producers presuppose that their addressees have a large quantity of general sociocultural knowledge and are able to imply these coded propositions on the basis of generally shared knowledge, and thus perceive a mental model for the discourse.

Two vital features of discourse meaning, for van Dijk (2008), are its *presuppositions* and *entailments*. Implications at times are made hidden due to communicative or interactional reasons explicable in contextual terms; for instance, discourse producers do not tend to claim responsibility for explicitly stating such propositions, that is, "as a form of self-protection or positive self-presentation" (p. 148). Van Dijk (2008) adds that contextual inspection of discourse should go beyond grammatical, textual and interactional analysis or understanding. We do not appropriately perceive complicated phenomena without apprehending their context. Construing discourse means discerning 'text/talk-in-context'.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. The Dataset & Context

It is assumed that familiarity with context can assist readers in comprehending coherent relations across text/talk. To date few studies embarked on analyzing Burkean ID theory in political discourse. This analytical, theoretical and rhetorical discourse study seeks for the interplay between ID-Th in Burkean new rhetoric and two letters penned by Iran's Supreme Leader, Ayatullah Seyyed Ali Khamenei, and addressed to the Western *Youth* on Jan. and Nov. 2015. Due to their international political salience, two letters, approximately 3000 words, are selected to pinpoint ID functions and strategies through rhetorical content and form (see Table. 1). The 1<sup>st</sup> letter is titled '*To the Youth in Europe and North America*' and is penned on Jan. 2015 available at (<http://farsi.khamenei.ir/ndata/news/28731/index.html#en>). The 2<sup>nd</sup> letter is written on Nov. 2015 and titled '*To the Youth in Western Countries*' available at (<http://english.khamenei.ir/news/2681/>).

To counter the Western media's Islamophobic propaganda and in response to the Charlie Hebdo's terror attacks in Paris on 7 Jan. 2015 by some Muslim militants who claimed responsibility for shooting, Ayatollah Khamenei has penned an open letter to Western youth. The 2<sup>nd</sup> letter was also penned by him in response to the November 2015 Paris parallel attacks and other contemporary terrorist actions, such as the attack and crash on the Russian plane and the 2015 Beirut bombings. Both letters deal with Mr. Khamenei's views on the causes of recent terrorism. They concern with a quite disturbing increase and cogent manifestations of Islamophobia and Anti-Muslim sentiments, which have further been escalated in the aftermath of the recent terrorist attacks in Paris. The letters were prompted via his accounts on various social media, including Twitter, Facebook and Instagram, using the hashtag #CommonWorry attributed to Mr. Khamenei.

The letters denounces the Western media's depiction of Muslims as terrorists in the wake of Paris terror attacks and called on the Youth to construct their own impartial and independent understandings of Islam rather than the media alone, which he believes it is imperative after several struggles in the last twenty years '*to place this great religion in the seat of a horrifying enemy*'. In both letters, Mr. Khamenei sets forth definite requests for those reading the letters: '*Study and research the incentives behind this widespread tarnishing of the image of Islam*' and he appeals to the Western Youth to have an open mind when it comes to Islam and not to assess it based on the Charlie Hebdo shooting or other violent terrorist attacks. He implores Western youth, in both letters, to learn about Islam from its original sources, rather than have it '*introduced through resentments, prejudices*' and Islamophobia.

#### B. Procedure

The current work first aims to explore the interaction of content and form in the corpus in light of Burke's concept of ID. The initial focus is on ID functions in rhetorical content, i.e., *ID via common goals/background* as a means to an end, *ID via common enmity/challenge* or ID through antithesis, and *ID through unconscious association*. Then, the corpus will be analyzed through ID strategies of rhetorical form, namely, *conventional form* and *figurative forms* (minor rhetorical forms) such as **parallelism**, **three-part list**, **rhetorical questions**, **reversal** and **antithesis** etc. which are employed by Mr. Khamenei (the writer) in the letters, as the more salient features. Those strategies are going to be studied to see how he uses a series of ID strategies, *consciously* or *unconsciously*, to identify himself with his addressees, to persuade, to sway and control their minds (see Table 1), as well as it seeks to determine how he achieved his end to attenuate the impacts of blazing inferno of Islamophobia and anti-Islam sentiments in his addressees.

While perusing the intended corpus for possible functions of ID, the researchers noticed a large number of contextually-implied expressions in both letters and decided to critically sift through those implied expressions based on van Dijk's analysis (2008) of *contextually-coded expressions* in Socio-cognitive approach. To this end, the study adopted and applied Stanovich's (1980) *interactive-compensatory model of analysis* with a functional orientation to interpret the corpus with undivided attention, and in light of van Dijk's Socio-cognitive approach (2008), both letters are critically perused to seek out and unravel contextually-coded expressions, hidden meanings, discursive and intended

orientations, ideologies produced and deployed by the writer or his spin doctors in the corpus. Considering its general purposes and the corpus, this study hopes to be regarded as a step in a rather new direction and a bid to probe any text and talk in various genres and discourses utilizing the extended tools of ID-Th in Burke's new rhetoric.

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

##### A. Strategies through Rhetorical Content

Rhetoricians deploy various linguistic strategies in their discourse giving clues to the addressees that their properties are alike in many ways, achieving ID and thereby attaining persuasion. In short, ID is *persuasion* and *influence*. It is important to note that persuasion and influence are viewed as synonymous terms, where influence is a process that leads to persuasion. As Burke highlights, in achieving persuasion and influence, the rhetoricians must first engage to carry out ID (Christiansen, 2014).

##### 1. ID as a Means to an End via Common Goals

In Burke's initial type, ID is functional and operates to attain a particular end and objective, serving to aid in the influence and/or persuasion of another party or group. It is worth noting that ID is a *bilateral* process, where first ID strategies must exist within rhetorical discourse, i.e. in order for ID devices to be effectual not only must the devices exist but also must they be linked with the readers' sub-consciousness and thereby hold them as parts of their identity. The writer in both letters struggles to depict a plurality of personal properties, values and outlooks as common goals; by depicting and invoking these values that seem common amongst all people worldwide, ID can occur and his effort can be a success in achieving ID and persuasion.

These expressions and values of '*building a better and safer future, terrorism as our common concern, sympathy with the victims, pursuing security & peace, eager for cultural interactions, inspiring confidence and trust in the youth* etc. in both letters are apparently positive characteristics that we as human beings strive to attain them in our personal and public lives and can help the writer to identify with his intended readers. This direct listing of personal values in letters can assist him in highlighting his rhetorical and symbolic properties for his addressees to identify with. In doing so, he symbolically positions his readers in a situation to assess and establish their own moral values and properties, and via this appraisal process, the readers determine to identify with or against the writer's notions and attitudes. Consider the following excerpt from the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter:

1) 'Anyone who has benefited from *affection* and *humanity* is affected and disturbed by witnessing these scenes—whether it occurs in France or in Palestine or Iraq or Lebanon or Syria'.

The above excerpt is the epitome of a sympathetic and passionate statement expressed by him to portray his personal properties over the victims; it can be tailored to meet the properties of readers resulting in ID. This ID type is intended to achieve a particular goal and is performed best by the following excerpt as the key property in 2<sup>nd</sup> letter which is highly motivated and impassioned: '*It is correct that today terrorism is our common worry*'.

By voicing his concern at terrorism and by implicitly deprecating and abhorring terrorism throughout 2<sup>nd</sup> letter, it enables him to explicitly assert his intentions and his end he is struggling to accomplish. It is an indirect ID plea to the readers by appealing and stimulating them to stand on his side against terrorism. It also creates a positive face that allows for his readers to accept or reject these portrayed properties. By rhetorically opining properties that align with the objectives and intentions of the addressees, ID *as a means to an end* can accomplish between two parties. Through his symbolic focus on terrorism, he can identify his notions with the readers and induce their co-operation as well; and through the readers' ID with him, he can garner their support and ultimately achieve his goal.

However, it might result in total failure in attaining ID and persuasion by some readers through his successive remarks (in 2<sup>nd</sup> letter, par. 4). The rationale for his possible failure is that, instead of direct deprecation of violent tumor of terrorism in Paris and overt sympathy with the victims, he strives to compare those atrocious terrorist attacks with the ones in Islamic world. He states that those terrorist groups are West-sponsored and West-recruited acting as proxy for them.

##### 2. ID via Antithesis or a Common Enmity

ID by *antithesis* is the most overriding part of attaining **congregation** via **segregation**; in other words, ID in Burkean theory occurs when foes unify against a joint enemy. The *separation* here implies the *antithesis*. Due to having a common *enemy/obstacle*, both parties become allies and work together in order to conquer this new stronger and mutual enemy. This external enemy noticeably provides an incentive for these two opposite parties to congregate (Li & Chen, 2015).

This type of ID is very functional in essence provided that it is implemented appropriately and in full. Strategically, the writer can gain ID by mentioning the mutual enemy between two parties; displaying a mutual sharing of properties between the parties makes them *consubstantial*. In a bid to gain ID through unification from a joint enemy, both parties will be integrated through such a joint rival. Thus it enables the writer to place himself in a desirable position to attain his political desires and objectives.

By dint of a plurality of common vices and enemies in both letters such as *horror and hatred, insincerity and hypocrisy, the oppression of people of color, bloodshed, humiliation, brutality, death and destruction, torture, extremism, violence, aggression, corruptions* and so on, the writer is able to attain ID and commonality through mutual

threats and obstacles with the readers. By establishing ID through the attachment of these common concerns, two opposing parties become integrated into mutual oppositions and vices, and consequently, ID occurs.

The writer attempts to accomplish this type of ID by manifesting and introducing himself as a leader fighting against these international threats and vices. These threats are common enemies of all the mankind which are utilized to gain ID with his addressees via antithesis. This type of ID is performed and achieved best in the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter by expressing and depicting his concerns over such threats as '*terrorism, violence, oppressions, insecurity* etc. as our *common worries*', which are regarded as joint enemies for all people worldwide. ID here operates as a bond or togetherness through a common antithesis, bringing them together to unify and function together against mutual threats.

However, he is unsuccessful to achieve ID through a common enemy in the 1<sup>st</sup> letter, because despite the fact that the letter is written in response to the horrifying violence of Paris terrorist attacks, he doesn't explicitly condemn terrorism and violence at all and in return, he attributes those atrocities by the terrorist groups to the Occident's contradictory policies against terrorism. He even does not bother himself to name the word '*terrorism*' and instead says that 'the recent events in France and similar ones' have convinced me to talk and write to you about Islamic thoughts, Anti-Muslim sentiments, and Islamophobic propaganda aroused by the Occident and the mass media affiliated to them.

### 3. ID via Unconscious Association

The final strategy in both letters is the appeal to *common values and beliefs* which falls within the 3<sup>rd</sup> type in ID-Th. This last function of ID is gained through the motives of subconscious, i.e. ID is achieved without awareness or willful intent. There are sometimes examples where we might not be conscious of making the IDs and may hold within our subconscious named by Burke (1969a, b) as the subconscious component of ID.

As human beings there are instances we may identify with individuals, groups, practices, or states of affairs in which we might not utterly perceive why. This inexplicable bonding to certain objects, groups, or individuals, Burke says, is explicated by the subconscious type of ID. Now In rhetorical domain, by dint of the rhetorical '*we-group*' vs. '*I-group*' strategy, rhetoricians can achieve an unconscious form of unification amongst the addressees. Cheney (1983) argued that from a writer-reader perspective, the exploitation of the rhetorical strategy, i.e. '*we-group*' vs. '*I-group*', can assist in stimulating an unconscious form of unification and cohesivation amongst the addressees. Burke (1969a) emphasizes that this sense of unification and belonging is rhetorical in essence.

In the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter (par. 4<sup>th</sup>), Mr. Khamenei mentions that '*terrorism is our common worry*', and by dint of *we-group* (12 times in 2<sup>nd</sup> letter), he has constructed an inclusive relation between himself and his readers. He has strategically united and included himself in the same group to shorten his distance between them, and then to share and convey his politically- and religiously-charged creeds and notions to them. On the whole, the above clause seems very impressive and effectual which is deployed to create joint intimacy, sympathy and rapport with the addressees (Kazemian & Hashemi 2017). As a result, respecting Burke's 3<sup>rd</sup> type of ID, he is successful in establishing subconscious ID with the readers in 2<sup>nd</sup> letter.

However, since he has not utilized any *we-groups* in the 1<sup>st</sup> letter and instead has used *you-groups* and *I-groups* in large quantities, perchance his efforts in subconsciously identifying with the readers culminate in failure. This ***YOU-Do-As-I-Command-Trend*** in the 1<sup>st</sup> letter (40 *you-groups* and 13 *I-groups*) has made him and his words tough, unapproachable, and hard as well for the readers to become *consubstantial* and *subconsciously* identify with him. Thereby, based on Burke's 3<sup>rd</sup> type of ID, a division/lack of ID remains between two parties in 1<sup>st</sup> letter.

At the very beginning, the writer in 1<sup>st</sup> letter states that '*... the sense of quest for truth is more vigorous and attentive in your hearts*'; meaning to create ID with his addressees, he has drawn upon certain key words, such as '*truth, security, peace*' and the like to relate his properties with the properties of the addressees. These values (quest for *truth, security, bright future, peace* etc.) are stated repeatedly in different forms throughout the letters along with some other common values in the corpus.

The sense of *peace, security and truth* is cherished by people from all walks of life worldwide. By appealing to these common values, he may have achieved the favorable ID and impression from the domestic readers, the Western youth as well as most Muslims worldwide. These are common values shared by peoples all over the world, whatever their cultures, religions and social backgrounds. Consequently, he might win the appreciation and trust of most youth and Muslims nationwide and worldwide in this regard. These keywords and expressions can unite the writer with that of his addressees, establishing a sense of belonging and unification. As Burke contends '*belonging*' is in a sense rhetorical (1969a).

In addition to the above-mentioned values and beliefs, he has also resorted to the religious motifs or the adherence to God. For example, he has commenced his letters with the name of God (*In the name of Allah, the Beneficent the Merciful*) which enunciates his religious faith. Besides, there are also some other strong religious contents disseminated through his speech which all can help him to win the sympathy and supporting of the readers and identify with. Insofar as the *emotional appeal*, he can place ID and associate the properties of religious motifs with both Muslims and the Youth worldwide.

Eventually, to condemn the callous slaughter of hundreds of innocent civilians by terrorists, Israeli soldiers' brutality with Palestinians, and to attack the West and their mass media for Anti-Muslim sentiments, as well as their double-standard and inconsistent policies against terrorism, the writer has employed vast quantities of Devil Terms in both letters. Hence, the plurality of Devil terms in both letters can adversely affect the unification and ID of some readers

with him. These informationally and lexically-loaded sentences with devil terms as well as their coercive power and pejorative meanings throughout the letters, can provoke a sense of alienation amongst some readers from the letters and the writer and inevitably culminate in dissociation/division between two parties.

### B. Strategies via Rhetorical Form

In rhetorical form, there are three major types of form, or processes of generating persuasion and effects as (i) **conventional form** (subdivided into (a) typical structure of text/talk, (b) stylistic features of text/talk, (ii) **repetitive form** (the use of redundancy or restatement of common values and beliefs) and (iii) **progressive form** (which guides the addressees to anticipate or desire certain developments). The progressive form is not considered in this study. There is also a plurality of minor *rhetorical forms* named as *figurative forms* in traditional rhetoric, such as the metaphor, paradox, reversal, rhetorical questions and so on. The stylistic features of text/talk in conventional form refers to the appropriate deployment of short and long sentences; a great variety of sentence types not only lead to the expressive power of text/talk, but also help the rhetoricians fulfil the addressees' anticipatory expectations of form and pattern of text/talk (Zhou & Kazemian, 2015). Thus, they can be utilized to accomplish ID with the addressees as far as the conventional form concerned (see table 1 & 2).

#### 1. Conventional Form

In Burke's sense, a rhetor "can't possibly make a statement without its falling into some sort of pattern, any consideration of the subject or content of rhetoric also must include a consideration of its form" (Foss et al., 2001, p. 194). Conventional form in Burke's theory is the expected process utilized to craft rhetoric. It is categorized as one of ID strategies via the rhetorical form. Rhetorical form and content are of equal importance to rhetorical acts. Form is the preliminary thing that the readers encounter a discourse.

Compared with traditional rhetorical form, both letters are at odds with the typical structure and format of the letter writing. The length of both letters are not on a par with the typical pattern of letter writing format (1<sup>st</sup> letter is about 1000 words and the 2<sup>nd</sup> one about 2000 words). The 2<sup>nd</sup> letter is too long and extended and is pregnant with tedious and redundant information. They are both comprised of a title but lack the opening part and greetings. They contain introductory paragraphs, the body parts, the writer's politically and religiously-charged creeds and notions and the closing remarks as well.

They are not well-organized and they do not show great coherence and rationality in terms of content and arguments. They contain quite a few indirect, covert and implied remarks so that it might be hard for the readers to digest and take the writer's intended concepts and assumptions in, and therefore, difficult for them to align and identify themselves with the writer. It may be difficult for the writer as well to encourage the readers to embrace and support his policies. It is assumed that the neater the organization of text/talk, the better their readability and reliability as well. Through rigorous arrangements of the letters and arguments, the readers can show inclination toward cooperation and can identify with the writer unconsciously (Zhou & Kazemian, 2015). For a quick review and synopsis of the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter, please see Appendix or visit (<http://english.khamenei.ir/news/2684/>).

#### 2. Figurative Form: Rhetorical Tropes

Day (1960) contends that ID in Burkean rhetoric is a process leading to persuasion and it covers all the traditional tropes of rhetoric as a set of apparatus to create ID within rhetorical discourse. To Burke (1969a), all rhetorical tropes in ID-Th are not solely used for persuasive purposes as in the traditional rhetoric, but they are subconsciously or intentionally exploited by rhetoricians to *transcend division, gain ID, induce cooperation*, and thus, *to realize their motives with their addressees*. To this end, if rhetoricians tend to make their text/talk more forceful and persuasive, they would resort to the figurative use of language (Day, 1960). For Burke all the traditional rhetorical devices are a means of establishing ID, and ultimately persuasion (Harte, 1977).

In both letters, many traditional rhetorical tropes are employed such as *parallelism, three-part list, Rhetorical Questions, Reversal and Antithesis* each of which will be clearly delineated as follows. Initiated for persuasive effect and in part for aesthetic impact, rhetorical tropes viz *parallelism and tree-part listing* include instances of syntactic and lexical patterning of language which adds melodic-like and cohesive structures to the letters (Kazemian & Hashemi, 2014, 2017). Done well, parallel structures can convey influence, harmony and power to text/talk. They also adds balance, rhythm, and, most importantly, clarity to the sentences. As an example, this structure ('*Have you ever ...*') in 1<sup>st</sup> letter has been used five times in a row to holds the readers' attention right to the very end and to display that the ideas and arguments are equal in importance. Consider another example as in:

1) UNTIL double-standards dominate ..., UNTIL terrorism is divided into 'good' and 'bad' types, and UNTIL governmental interests are given ..... (2<sup>nd</sup> letter).

These *parallel* and *repetitive* structures along with three-part listing are not only helpful to explain the writer's ideas in a forceful way, but more importantly, beneficial and pre-planned to impress the readers. Thomas & Wareing (2004) argue that "audiences and speakers seem to find linguistically grouped features and especially those in threes, aesthetically pleasing" (p. 49). Rhetorically, by exploiting repetitive structures and the rule of three in logical sequences, not only can they add clarification, unification, efficiency and beauty to the sentences, but they are also readily embedded and stuck in the addressees' mind (Woods, 2006; Kazemian & Hashemi, 2017) as in:

2) Therefore, don't miss the opportunity to gain *proper, correct* and *unbiased* understanding

3) They result in *growth, development* and *richness*.



They can also establish '**the familiar clap-trap rhythm**' that the addressees can identify them as both persuasive and appropriately political (Woods, 2006, p. 57). Two other rhetorical strategies analyzed in the corpus are the abundant utilization of *Rhetorical Questions* (RQ hereafter) and *Antithesis* which can help the writer to strengthen his rhetorical impact and emotive force of his oratory.

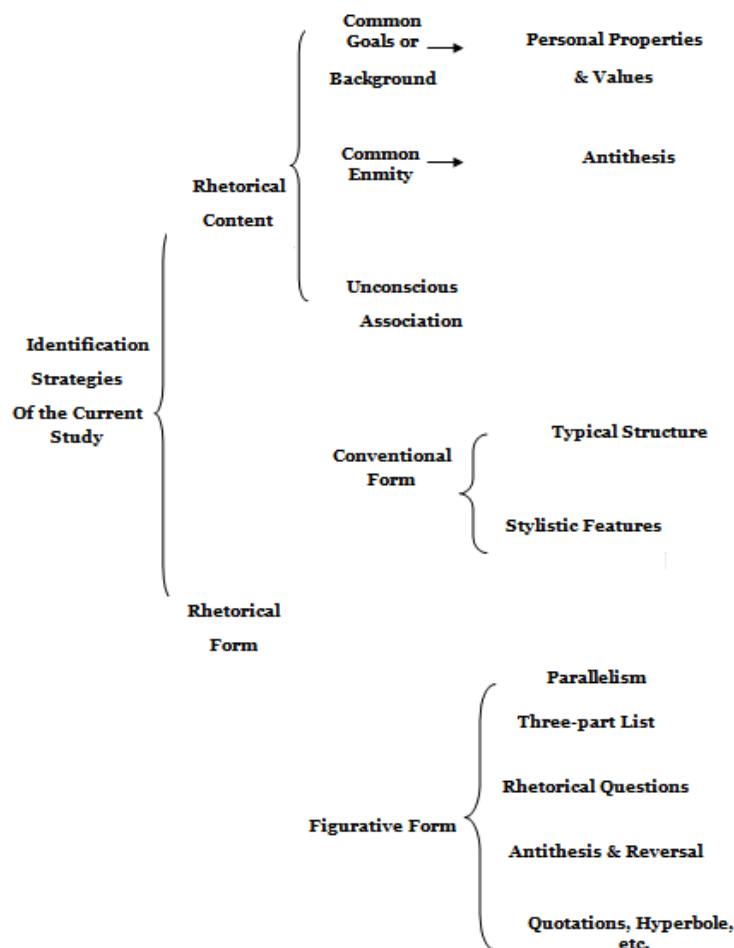
By dint of these preplanned RQs in both letters, he is trying to steer the addressees to the main issue and to his requests that he wishes to communicate to them from paragraph eight in 1<sup>st</sup> letter and from paragraph ten in 2<sup>nd</sup> letter; as part of this, he urges them to seek and to attain a firsthand knowledge of Islam, rather than accepting his own or any other reading of the religion or the media alone. He also strongly recommends them to read and learn the Quran for themselves in para. 13 in 1<sup>st</sup> letter. These RQs can form nicely developed paragraphs by changing a series of logical propositions into queries. As one of the persuasive devices in rhetoric, RQs are utilized by the writer to primarily convey his purposive notions to the readers and then to make them contemplate on issues as well. Indeed, they are not all replied by him, for their answers are apparent or apparently desired, and usually just a yes or no. The writer has posed seven RQs in 1<sup>st</sup> letter and 11 in 2<sup>nd</sup> letter and has obliged the Youth to ponder over the targeted phobias and illusionary fear of the Islam by the super powers. These long and complicated RQs are mostly utilized in both letters in a row which can constitute highly sophisticated and directed paragraphs by rendering a series of rational propositions into inquires, enabling the addressees/readers to contemplate, enquire or even reach a conclusion along with the orator as well.

To Abrams & Harpham (2009), *Antithesis* is defined as a "contrast or opposition in the meanings of contiguous phrases or clauses that manifest parallelism" (p. 14). By dint of reversal and antithesis in the text, the writer can put all his propositions in two different situations as in:

- 4) Fissures have *to be sealed, not deepened*,
- 5) ... analyses that see the *hidden* and *apparent* corruptions.
- 6) ... is divided into '*good*' and '*bad*' types.

By this contrast, the addressees might be more responsive to his suggestions, and consequently, much more likely to identify and agree with him. These antithesis and reversal tropes (24 clauses) in both letters are subconsciously or deliberately and strategically juxtaposed to indicate inconsistent propositions and to help the readers distinguish facts from fictions, falsehood from truth and so on (Kazemian & Hashemi, 2017).

TABLE 2  
IDENTIFICATION FUNCTIONS & STRATEGIES IN MR. KHAMENEI'S POLITICAL LETTERS



By dint of various properties and values as well as traditional rhetorical tropes and strategies, the writer is in a bid to align his rhetorical properties and expressions, either real or perceived, with that of the addressees. By deploying various keywords or phrases, for instance, through rhetorical tropes, the writer is able to draw on the perceived ideals of the political culture.

### C. Critical & Contextual Analysis of the First Letter

To van Dijk (2008), the prevailing perception of context–discourse relations is that "it is context that influences (controls, etc.) discourse" (p. 128); the reverse also holds true but it is pretty rare in which discourse controls context. Respecting the context and setting of the letters, both letters are separately perused in light of van Dijk's Socio-cognitive approach to unravel contextually-coded expressions and words as follows.

The writer has long mentioned his animosity is directed not toward the American people but at their government. In keeping with that concept, at 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> paragraphs, he writes that his letter '*isn't addressed to Western leaders*', whom he accuses of intentionally distorting the truth, but to the youth who might still have open minds. As part of this, at the outset of the 1<sup>st</sup> letter (par. 2) and 2<sup>nd</sup> letter (par. 3), he explicitly and aggressively accuses and censures the West for deviation from the path of righteousness and virtuousness. To this end, he probably endeavors to convince the youth to ruminate over his following pointers and remarks, and to turn and hold their attention to the crux of yawning chasm and separation between them and their statesmen.

In paragraph three, it was alleged that some Western politicians have been scheming to depict Islam as a harrowing and horrific religion worldwide. In order to justify his utterances and arguments in paragraph three and to convince his addressees about '*Western governments' insincere and hypocritical treatment of other nations and cultures*', the writer (in par. 5) overtly and intermittently utilizes *rake-it-up strategies* and disparaging remarks by dredging up some unpleasant past when some Western countries practiced slavery and colonialism long ago. He probably struggles to denigrate the west and to underscore and foregrounds Islamic thoughts and his notions instead.

To criticize the Western media's Anti-Islam propaganda, the writer (in para. 10) intimates to hold the West accountable for the creation of DAESH (ISIS) and claimed that this group or any other terrorist groups are their own accomplice and proxy recruited to disgrace Muslims and Islam, so that they have the pretext to blame Islam. He insinuated that the bloodsheds wrought in the name of Islam by those terrorists must not be attributed and generalized to the whole Muslims worldwide; and these terrorists and their savage and inhumane misdeeds and delinquencies are not only disapproved, reproached and demonized by all Muslims but also they are ostracized by the Muslims worldwide.

In referring to the West, his tone in 1<sup>st</sup> letter is aggressive and tough but lenient, advisory and soft to the Youth; however in the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter, his tone of voice is somewhat sharp toward the youth and is belligerent toward Israel and the West; overall he employs a more conciliatory tone throughout the letters, saying: '*Don't allow them [western countries] to hypocritically introduce their own recruited terrorists as representatives of Islam*'. That is part of a persisting process and growing trend that, he wrote, began after '*the disintegration of the Soviet Union*'. '*This is a preplanned challenge between Islam and you*', he added, a twenty-year-long bid by the West '*to place this great religion in the seat of a horrifying enemy*'.

### D. Critical & Contextual Analysis of the Second Letter

To van Dijk (2012) "discourses are like icebergs. Only a minor part of their meaning is 'visible' as explicit propositions expressed in their sentences. The major part of their meaning remains implicit, namely as implied propositions" (p. 596). Thus, we must be vigilant when we read, analyze or probe the discourse of politics to seek evidence of stage management, purposive and eclectic use of words and expressions, or even of contextual, lexicogrammatical, rhetorical devices and so on.

In his 2<sup>nd</sup> letter, the writer referred to the strings of terrorist attacks in France as *Blind* terrorism adding that Palestinians are confronted with 'worst' terrorism. This concept is permeating through the letter and is named blind for some reasons. To him, primarily, it stems from the hypocrisy and duplicity of western policies, i.e. the domination of double-standards and contradictory policies of the west against terrorism in the support for the state-sponsored terrorism of Israel and in creating or at least reinforcing and arming vile and terrorist groups such as al-Qaeda, Taliban and their inauspicious successors, namely ISIS, as the epitome of unspeakable violence and profound religious intolerance. Thus, as he postulates:

*So long as terrorism is compartmentalized by its powerful supporters into categories of 'good' and 'bad', and so long as governmental interests are given precedence over humane and ethical values, the roots of violence should not be sought in any other place.*

The lead rationale behind it is the basic tenets and faith of DAESH which is believed to grow out of Wahhabism and begun after the colonialist era in Muslim world. The basics of DAESH or other extremists' notions is believed to be derived from Wahhabism who are ostracized by most Muslims; the majority of mainstream Sunni and Shia Muslims worldwide wholeheartedly disapprove of the interpretation of Wahhabism, and many Muslims would denounce them as a faction or a '*vile sect*' (Valentine, 2015, p. 16). They are regarded as *Pseudo-or-Quasi-Muslims* who have brought disgrace on other Muslims. Their barbarous misdeeds, atrocious and brutal murdering, violent terrorist attacks and the like on defenseless and innocent civilians have escalated Islamophobia and added fuel to raging inferno of

Islamophobic and Anti-Muslims sentiments amongst other nations. Their distorted and rejected thoughts and beliefs are regularly denounced by Muslims with terms such as *satanic faith* (Valentine, 2015). Those or other radical extremists stand accused of being a source of global terrorism riddling callously the bodies of both innocent Muslims and non-Muslims with bullets.

His first requests in both letters are somehow alike, i.e. he requested the youth to convert their current mentality corrupted by duplicity via the western media by studying and researching the *'incentives behind this widespread tarnishing of the image of Islam'*. Finally, he insinuated that it is the task of the youth to analyze and uncover those hidden and apparent corruptions in various layers and façade of their own society and then to untangle any deep-rooted knots, resentments and chasms. However, they are warned not to take any superficial and extreme measures or any hysterical or knee-jerk reactions; otherwise it will do nothing.

Mr. Khamenei finishes his letters by appealing to the youth not to *'miss the opportunity to gain proper, correct and unbiased understanding of Islam'* and to then *'write the history of this current interaction between Islam and the West with a clearer conscience and lesser resentment.'* Despite the fact that the letters are written in response to the horrifying violence of Paris attacks, and instead of resisting violence, or embracing peace, he weirdly wishes youth to *'write history.'* Unlike the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter, the first letter contains no direct deprecation of extremism, violence and terrorism at all. He also concludes both letters with a blessing and an appeal to the Youth in the West not to permit to be confined and encircled *'with fabricated, mental borders'* and offensive portrayal against Islam by the media or the West each of whom trying to establish a yawning chasm between them and reality, saying: *'Hopefully, due to your sense of responsibility toward the truth, future generations would write the history of this current interaction between Islam and the West with clearer conscience and lesser resentment.'*

## V. CONCLUSION

By drawing upon the recent theoretical framework of Burkean concept of ID in the corpus, the current research argues that ID is a fundamental component in determining the writer's overall success or failure in identifying with the target readers. Thereby, ID, as an all-embracing device to rhetoric, is considered a deliberate strategy as when the writer seeks to identify himself with the addressees. The analysis provided in the results and discussion section supports this argument, emphasizing how ID functions are essential for rhetoricians to be aligned with the grass roots in order to achieve their intended objectives. In case of ID functions' absence or inappropriate deployment, there can be negative effects for the writer, as was seen in the writer's rhetoric in the current study.

Rhetoric, to Burke's definition (1969a), can be addressed to the self and since persuasion requires addressees, one can be his own addressee by "cultivating certain ideas and images" (p. 38). These symbols can be keywords and expressions that hold a wide assortment of meanings or rhetorical assumptions. Upon presenting these symbols to an individual or groups, it is their choice to accept or reject the symbols and by doing so, i.e. accepting or rejecting, a variety of meanings associate with such symbols. Rhetoricians seeking to use the conception of subconscious ID would possibly resort to the plurality of rhetorical tropes and strategies that take advantage of symbolic acceptance and rejection of symbols.

As a symbolic rhetorical decision-making process, for ID to be the most effective and influential, the readers must make rhetorically conscious decisions to position and link these ID appeals to their identity and belief system. Thereby, ID functions, as a two-step process, can be coupled with decision-making process of establishing one's self/identity via what is dubbed by Burke (1969a) as a symbolic rhetorical procedure.

Mr. Khamenei attempts to transcend division, gain ID, and thus, achieve his intended purposes and goal in the corpus by employing a series of rhetorical strategies and techniques in his letters. In the process of identifying with one another, the writer and readers become 'substantially one' with a person other than their *self* or *identity*. To construe ID in new rhetoric, Burke (1969a) presents the concept of division. It is found that there is definitely a division between both parties in this given context. Rhetoric, for Burke, is meant to supersede division with ID. The function of ID, simultaneously, reminds both parties 'of their capacity to be unique as well as their individual locus of control' (Sinha & Jackson, 2006). It is the identification of this division which assists both parties in clarifying the fundamental contradiction that they are unified, yet alienated, from one another (Rosenfeld, 1969).

Intending to attain ID with his addressees, the writer has utilized certain strategies and keywords, such as *'peace and security, bright future'* etc. to tailor his properties to the properties of the addressees. This constant stream of symbol connectedness can establish an appeal for the good life via a process of transcendence, generating a symbol of perpetual rebirth on the subconscious level. Some ways this could be accomplished is through the already mentioned rhetorical *we-group* strategy and emotional appeals. For Burke (1969a) the quest for ID on a *subconscious level* occurs via the symbolic fashion of making rhetorical choices. As Ambrester (1974) contends "identity occurs through acceptance and rejection of various symbols", i.e. by unconsciously developing our personalities, we establish a sense of selfness via the acceptance and rejection of multiple symbols imposed on us by multiple rhetorical strategies and contexts.

The results also indicate that in analyzing 2<sup>nd</sup> function of ID, it is important to establish a clear rhetorical enmity/challenge. Since it is a stimulating force in ID, the introduction of a common and symbolic threat/enemy, can help both opposing parties rally against it, and thus establish ID. In this case, the addressees are positioned in a state to symbolically accept or reject the writer's notions through common threat.

The successful/unsuccessful exploitations of ID functions are not clearly and explicitly delineated by Burke. The results of this study indicate that using ID functions in political text/talk can be remarkably potent and effectual; however, a total lack of ID functions and/or inappropriate implementation of them in any text/talk can culminate ID in failure. Yet their great success or failure seemingly depends on the addressees. In either way, it is then up to the addressees to consciously put that decision into their *selves* or *identities*. *Consubstantiation/ID*, as a contributing and motivating factor, occurs when two entities are coalesced into a substance through mutual notions, points of view and properties.

Van Dijk (1993) regards discourse as a subconscious depiction of knowledge and all-embracing experience of the world constructing viewpoints, orientations, and ideology. Eventually, in light of van Dijk's socio-cognitive approach (2008), the researchers critically delved deeper into the letters and concentrated more on contextually-embedded entailments in the utterances, on connotative meanings of some expressions and words, as well as on deliberate disposition of emotionally, politically and religiously-charged terminology embedded within, between or behind the lines produced in the corpus by the writer.

The current research tried to provide a new insight into the prospective studies and outlines that for any political text/talk to successfully identify with the addressees, it requires to encompass at least two of ID functions/types in Burkean theory. The study hopes to smooth the path for prospective similar studies in political or other discourses; and for the goal of critical and rhetorical studies, the current research attempted to set out a manner in which a written/spoken discourse could be dissected and appraised lexico-grammatically, critically, and rhetorically through content and form deploying Burkean concept of ID along with its various strategies, tropes and types.

## APPENDIX

A quick review and synopsis of the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter is as follows:



#CommonWorry

Message of Ayatollah Sayyid Ali Khamenei  
Leader of the Islamic Republic of Iran  
29<sup>th</sup> of Nov, 2015

Review of main topics in letter of Leader of Revolution to the youth in western countries 29 Nov. 2015		
1	Grounds of the words	The bitter events brought about by blind terrorism in France have once again, moved me to speak to you young people.
2	Main topics: Terrorism, common worry	Mutual consultation about terrorism as our common worry and finding solution for a more secure future
3	Difference of terrorism in west and Islamic world	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Islamic world has been the victim of terror and brutality to a larger extent territorially, to greater amount quantitatively and for a longer period in terms of time.</li> <li>2. Terrorism in Islamic world has always been supported by certain great powers; e.g. nurturing and arming of al-Qaeda, the Taliban and their inauspicious successors by US.</li> </ol>
4	Duplicity of western policies	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Suppressing most pioneering democracies, while allying with most backward political systems in region</li> <li>2. Double standards towards awakening movement in Islamic world</li> <li>3. Supporting state terrorism of Israel despite its massacres and destructions in Palestine</li> <li>4. Calling on Muslims not to view themselves as oppressed despite western military invasions of Islamic world in recent years</li> </ol>
5	First step in creating security	reforming western violence-breeding mentality
6	Real roots of violence in west	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Dominance of double-standards over western policies</li> <li>2. Dividing terrorism into "good" and "bad"</li> <li>3. Preferring governmental interests over human values and ethics</li> </ol>
7	Result of ill-fated pairings with imported cultures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Silent violence and harmfulness due to imposition of western culture upon other nations</li> <li>■ Humiliation of rich cultures by west despite lack of replacement quality in western culture which has two elements of "aggression" and "moral promiscuity"</li> </ul>
8	Examples of ill-fated pairings with imported cultures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Planting seed of extremism in a Bedouin tribe since confluence of colonialism with extremist thoughts</li> <li>■ Formation of such garbage as DAESH due to unsuccessful ties between imported cultures</li> </ul>
9	Why some Europeans join terrorist groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Being nurtured in a pathologic western culture in a corrupt environment borne out of violence</li> <li>■ Deep hate borne out of inequality and prejudice in west which appears in a sickening manner</li> </ul>
10	Big mistake in fight against terrorism	Rushed, emotional reactions and superficial measures
11	Consequences of hasty reaction in fight against terrorism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Widening the chasms</li> <li>■ Creating isolation, fear and anxiety among Muslims in Europe and America</li> <li>■ Depriving Muslims in Europe and America of their basic rights</li> <li>■ Opening the way for future crises by increasing current polarizations especially turning superficial measures into legal forms</li> </ul>
12	Musts in avoiding unjust behavior with Muslims	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Injustice brings unwanted reversibility</li> <li>■ Muslims do not deserve such ill-treatment</li> </ul>
13	Backgrounds of interaction between west and Muslims	The day that westerners were guests in Islamic lands and were attracted to the riches of their hosts and on another day when they were hosts and benefitted from the efforts and thoughts of Muslims- they generally experienced nothing but kindness and forbearance.
14	Way to a bright, secure future	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Disentangling and resolving the knots and resentments in western communities</li> <li>■ Laying the foundations for a correct and honorable interaction with the Islamic world based on correct understanding, deep insight and lessons learned from horrible experiences.</li> </ul>

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**Bahram Kazemian** is a Ph.D. candidate and was born in Tabriz City, East Azerbaijan Province, Iran in 1979. He obtained his B.A. in English Translation and his M.A. in ELT from the Islamic Azad University-Tabriz branch, Iran. Currently, he is the managing director of Unique Language Center in Tabriz. He has 15 years of experience in TEFL at different language institutes in Tabriz. His major thrust areas of interest are Systemic Functional Linguistics, CDA, Rhetoric and Rhetorical Devices, Appraisal

Framework in SFL, Metadiscourse Markers (Hedges, Boosters, etc.), ELT and EFL. He has published several articles, six ISI book reviews and one book based on his areas of interest. He serves as a member of Editorial Boards and Reviewers for various journals.

**Shatha Naiyf Qaiwer** obtained her Ph.D. at the university of Nottingham / UK - School of English. She is currently teaching at the University of Baghdad. Her major thrust areas of research interest are CDA, political discourse analysis and corpus studies.

**Shafiqeh Mohammadian** is an MSc and was born in Tabriz City, East Azerbaijan Province, Iran in 1990. She obtained her MSc from Urmia University, Iran. She is currently teaching in Unique Language Centre. Her major thrust areas of research interest are CDA and ELT.

# Exploring EFL Writing Teaching Through the Integrated Skills Approach: A Case Study in the Saudi Context

Waad Aljahdali

King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Abdullah Alshakhi

King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

**Abstract**—This study aims to explore the teaching practices of EFL writing that employ the integrated skills approach. It investigates the benefits and challenges associated with teaching writing that uses the integrated skills approach. The study also aims to provide solutions to the challenges faced by the EFL teachers in teaching writing skills. This study uses a qualitative approach by utilizing two instruments: diary writing of event logs in the first phase, and semi-structured interviews in the second phase. The data were collected in a Saudi university at a Preparatory Year Program (PYP). The sample included four general track teachers. After the analysis of the data, the findings revealed that the integrated skills approach can facilitate students' output; however, students' lower-level of proficiency, a large number of students in writing classes, and time constraints can negatively affect the teaching practices. Suggestive measures were proposed to eliminate the negative aspects that might hinder the implementation of the integrated skills approach while teaching writing skills. Based on the findings, pedagogical implications and directions for future research have been put forward.

**Index Terms**—EFL writing, integrated skills approach, Saudi EFL context, sociocultural theory

## I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, research has shown an increased interest in communicative language teaching (CLT) to improve students' communicative competence. CLT claims to promote realistic language that is not only used in classrooms but in the real world as well (Oxford, 2001; Hinkel, 2006). Widdowson (1978) was one of the first linguists who encouraged the initiation of integrated skills approach in language teaching as it would facilitate the language learning process and boost learners' proficiency levels. Hinkel (2010) further explains that the emergence of integrated language teaching is often associated with the expansion of CLT.

In language teaching and learning contexts, a prevalent perspective is that people use language skills in tandem, and not separately, in meaningful communications (Hinkel, 2006). In this sense, the integrated skills approach helps learners to use the target language in a natural way, mirroring its use in everyday communication. The aim of the current integrated language teaching models is to promote fluency and accuracy alongside developing learners' socio-cultural communicative competence and enabling them to adapt the target language for different genres and contexts (Hinkel, 2006). In the same vein, the integration of different skills can be reasonably rational to mimic the natural process of skill-mixing and provide ample learning opportunities for students in a classroom environment (Harmer, 2007).

The major innovative trait of CLT in English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching was the integration of the four skills and their various components in one lesson (Hinkel, 2010). For decades, research has suggested CLT to be the most appropriate approach for promoting communicative language learning. However, a debatable question is whether this approach is effective in teaching and learning the writing skill in an EFL environment, as its complex process makes it a challenging phenomenon for teachers and learners.

Writing is one of the most important skills of the English language; however, it constitutes challenges for many EFL learners. These challenges stem from various factors, such as differences in the writing systems of learners' L1 and the English language, inadequate knowledge of English, lack of exposure to L2 writing, inappropriate teaching methodologies, and learners' attitude to EFL writing. These factors directly or indirectly influence the learners' ability to master the writing skills and become proficient writers in the target language. Bearing in mind the deficiencies of traditional teaching methods, practitioners have adopted the CLT approach to teach and help learners develop their writing skills in an interactive way. In the Saudi EFL context, the teaching programs of the universities and schools implement the integrated skills curriculum to allow for communicative language learning inside the classroom. The integrated curriculum takes a holistic view of the learners' skills and teaches writing through the CLT techniques. According to Sanchez (2000), writing skills cannot be learned in isolation. In fact, when learners hear, read, and talk to peers about what they anticipate in a writing task, this can lead to more effective writing skills.



### A. Rationale of the Study

There is a plethora of studies on EFL writing in the Saudi context that includes different variables, such as reasons behind learners' weak writing skills, error analysis, writing and assessment, and technology-based instruction of writing etc. (e.g., Huwari & Al-Khasawneh, 2013; Ahamed, 2016; Obeid, 2017; Ezza, Alhuqail, & Elhussain, 2019). Research on writing instruction based on the integrated skills approach appears to be overlooked in the Saudi EFL context, therefore, there remains an immense need to uncover how writing is taught alongside other language skills and sub-skills, and whether integrated skills approach fosters or impedes learning in this context.

Despite its prevalence in the Saudi EFL context, there is an urgent need for more research to understand the effects of implementing the integrated skills approach in teaching EFL writing. Therefore, the current research explores the teaching practices of writing in an English language institute that implements the integrated skills approach while teaching receptive skills (reading and listening) and productive skills (speaking and writing) and their sub-skills to foundation year EFL learners. The current study is important in relation to the achievement levels in English classes which are lower than expected, despite the integrated textbooks that are being used in the Saudi EFL context (Khan, 2011).

For L2 learners, writing in a target language is often a daunting task. Harmer (2007) believes that some students are hesitant writers due to several reasons; perhaps they have written little in their first language (L1) or cannot find or come up with thoughts on a topic. However, it is the teacher's job to help hesitant students build the "writing habit" in order for them to approach writing tasks with enthusiasm. He further suggests certain ways to do this, one of which is to ensure that teachers give students enough information to do the tasks, and make sure that they have a sufficient amount of the right type of language to do the writing tasks. In relation to the integrated skills approach, providing students with the right type of language might be one of its most notable elements where students are provided with a comprehensible input through a range of different skills. Moreover, scholars such as Hinkel (2018), Sanchez (2000), Oxford (2001), and Su (2007) underscore the beneficial role of the integrated skills approach that can eventually improve students' learning. Therefore, it is essential to understand how this approach is considered by EFL teachers while teaching writing skills in the Saudi EFL context.

On the other hand, the integrated skills approach can have some challenges related to time while considering other skills at the same time (Mezargue, 2016). Hence, the identification of challenges related to teaching EFL writing with the integrated skills approach may help teachers minimize their impact by adopting teaching approaches that can help learners overcome their writing difficulties. In addition, suggested pedagogical implications might help in decreasing the effects of the factors that lead to such challenges.

### B. Theoretical Underpinnings

The sociocultural theory is most relevant to this research as it goes hand in hand with the aims of this research, which are to provide insights into the benefits and challenges of teaching EFL writing while employing the integrated skills approach, and to suggest pedagogical implications that facilitate the teaching and learning of writing based on the notions of the sociocultural theory; scaffolding and Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Recent theoretical developments have revealed that the sociocultural theory through some of its predominate notions, such as the ZPD and scaffolding play a pivotal role in enhancing pedagogical practices, especially in writing lessons. Today, sociocultural theory constitutes the major paradigm of research on writing (MacArthur, Graham, & Fitzgerald, 2008).

### C. Research Questions

This paper aims to identify the benefits and challenges of teaching EFL writing through the integrated skills approach and suggest solutions to problems that might arise in writing lessons. It also aims to outline pedagogical implications for EFL teachers, policymakers, and EFL students based on the implementation of an integrated skills language curriculum. This study is guided by the following two overarching research questions:

1. What are the benefits and challenges of teaching EFL writing through the integrated skills approach?
2. How do EFL teachers overcome the challenges of teaching writing skills while using the integrated skills approach in EFL writing classrooms in the Saudi context?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The integration of skills offers many learning opportunities for students in the classroom (Harmer, 2007). Further, empirical findings in the Saudi EFL context proved the effectiveness of integrated skills teaching. For example, Mekheimer (2011) conducted a quasi-experimental study on EFL undergraduate students as teachers were not using the assigned books to their full potential, which were meant for skills integration, the researcher realized that the teachers neglected many integrated activities. As they were mainly concerned with completing all the units while leaving important activities, there was little consideration for skills integration. The study investigated the integrated holistic method for teaching English skills in a Saudi university. The findings of the study confirmed the effective role of integrated skills teaching by teaching the four language skills in an integrative manner. The difference between the experimental group and the control group was the emphasis on skills integration. The experimental group emphasized integrating all four language skills, whereas the control group did not emphasize skills integration. In the second phase

of the research, the participating teachers were involved through questionnaires, diaries, and interviews. It was also found that students' performance was improved in writing through the integration of all other skills. Ultimately, the results imply that the segregated approach may not help develop students' competence in English as the experimental group writing performance was developed more notably than the students of the control group as they did not stress skills integration.

As for Al-Dosari (2016), his study investigated the influence of integrated reading and writing on learners' writing ability. The researcher used a quasi-experimental design composed of experimental and control groups. The experimental group performance was positive in writing and reading comprehension altogether which was a result of the emphasis of integrating writing skills with other skills and sub-skills of reading and writing. Al-Dosari (2016) deduced that the quality of students' writing was positively influenced when it was integrated with reading skills. This suggests that using the integrated skills approach in language classes helps in developing learners' language skills, and especially promoting writing skills. Consequently, these results confirm the necessity of integrating reading and writing skills.

Despite the positive results of Mekheimer's (2011) and Al-Dosari's (2016) studies, it is important to note that the sample of the studies were students at the college of languages and translation, which implies their higher level of English than those enrolled in the Preparatory Year Program (PYP). Hence, these results may not be generalizable to the PYP students. Since these studies were conducted at the same university, there is a need for more studies in different Saudi universities with varied levels of EFL students.

#### A. *Integrated Skills Approach*

The integrated skills approach is a mode of instruction that is concerned with the teaching of the four main language skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) and their sub-skills. Hinkel (2010) notes that this approach emerged from communicative language approaches as a reaction to more traditional approaches in the field of ELT.

It is important to define some of the main terms used in this study. Oxford (2001) portrayed English language teaching as a tapestry and stated that: "the tapestry is woven from many strands, such as the characteristics of the teacher, the learner, the setting, and the relevant languages (i.e., English and the native languages of the learners and the teacher)" (pp.1-2). Oxford (2001) added:

In addition to the four strands mentioned above--teacher, learner, setting, and relevant languages--other important strands exist in the tapestry. In a practical sense, one of the most crucial of these strands consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. This strand also includes associated or related skills such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage. The skill strand of the tapestry leads to optimal ESL/EFL communication when the skills are interwoven during instruction. This is known as the integrated skill approach. (Oxford, 2001, pp. 1-2)

Widdowson (1978) is one of the earliest linguists who called for initiating the integrated skills teaching to further language learning and improve learners' proficiency. He pointed out that language learning does not occur in separated units, although language skills can be easily taught separately. In the natural learning context of L1, we learn all the skills and not only one language skill at a time. Likewise, Oxford (2001) indicated that the traditional ESL/EFL programs implement the segregated skills approach, and this teaching system goes against the natural process of L1 acquisition. However, Peregoy and Boyle (2001) stated that in L1 acquisition, oral language development occurs fully and earlier than written language development. Accordingly, Widdowson's (1978) and Oxford's (2001) expositions imply that even L2 skills are not learned in isolation. Not only that, but segregated skills teaching might be unsuccessful in preparing students for job-related, academic-related or everyday life communication, although it is possible to teach skills separately in the classroom (Oxford, 2001). The use of integrated skills teaching can be found in different models. Content-based and task-based instructions are two popular types of integrated skills approaches used in ESL/EFL classrooms (Oxford, 2001).

#### B. *The Benefits and Challenges of the Integrated Skills Approach*

Several empirical studies have investigated the notion of integrated skills teaching in different contexts. For example, Su (2007) investigated the impact of a teaching practice using the integrated skills approach in comparison to a teaching practice using the segregated skills approach in a higher education setting in Taiwan. Her study measured students' satisfaction of integrated skills teaching and to see, if over the course of the study, students changed their views regarding the segregated skills teaching. The findings of the study were in favour of the integrated skills teaching as most of the participants indicated that this approach provided them with many opportunities for in-class authentic communication while only a few of the participants thought that language skills should be taught separately. Moreover, one of the benefits of the integrated skills approach is that it gives learners an actual picture of the "richness" of the English language when it is used in communication (Oxford, 2001), and the integrated skills approach was identified as a motivating factor in language learning (Oxford, 2001; Su, 2007).

On the contrary, Kebede (2013) identified three factors that could hinder integrated skills teaching: a) school-related factors, b) teachers'-related factors and c) learners'-related factors. Factors related to school are concerning policy, equipment, and environment of the institution. Furthermore, competence and belief were identified as factors related to teachers. Similarly, Richards (2001) indicated that teachers might think it is impossible to teach more than one skill at a

time or that it is easier and “logistically simpler” to teach language skills separately than to teach them all together at a time. This implies that teachers’ beliefs are an important factor for the success of an educational process. As for the last factor, it was identified as relating to students’ language proficiency, attitudes, and motivation. Kebede (2013) pointed out that those with poor language proficiency including limited grammar and vocabulary knowledge, basic language knowledge, and lack of motivation might impede integrated skills teaching and vice-versa. In the same vein, Alseghayer (2011) noted that students’ beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions in ESL/EFL classrooms contribute greatly to the process of English language learning and their success. Thus, students’ attitudes play an immense role in their learning endeavours. Even if the teaching system was appropriate, it seems that without motivation and a positive attitude, learners may not make any progress in their bid to learn the English language.

The integrated skills approach might enhance students’ communicative competence; however, its enactment may not accomplish similar proficiency rates across all four skills (Hinkel, 2018). Furthermore, the problem of large classes is likely to affect its implementation as highlighted by Hinkel (2010) that integrated skills teaching might not be a practical choice in areas where teachers teach large classes. As for teachers’ abilities, integrated language skills curricula require flexible and well-trained teachers. According to Hinkel (2010) in many cases, instructors should be familiar with discourse based instructional models. Moreover, the complexity of integrated language teaching may appear when the teaching materials have to account for learners of mixed abilities (Hinkel, 2010).

Despite these obstacles, Hinkel (2018) suggested that for the teaching-learning process to be successful in any EFL/ESL context and at any level, the enactment of integrated skills approach is fundamental. Since the integrated skills teaching might be demanding, Hinkel (2018) suggested a solution that may help in saving time when teaching through this approach:

When teaching integrated L2 skills in general, and speaking skills in particular, pre-teaching the needed vocabulary and grammar constructions and providing examples can often help learners manage the demands generated by the process of learning to improve multiple L2 skills. (Hinkel, 2018, p. 4)

Although Hinkel’s (2018) study is about the speaking skills, there is a clear indication of all four language skills, including writing. Writing and speaking are related to each other as they are both productive skills, therefore, teachers may consider pre-teaching certain parts of the topic before the writing lesson as a means of managing the class time effectively.

Linking the teaching of writing to other language skills, such as reading, listening, and speaking might eventually help learners use the language in a communicative way. For instance, linking reading and writing may create opportunities for listening and speaking at the same time. Sanchez (2000) considers writing practice closely connected to all other language skills, reading, listening and speaking. Nevertheless, it is important to bear in mind that not all learners will achieve high level of proficiency in writing, as L1 interference may result in producing unacceptable forms. Sanchez (2000) further explained that if there is a constant skill integration practice, more efficient outcomes will be achieved in writing exercises.

Writing teachers may encounter various pedagogical challenges in the classroom. According to Mezrigui (2016), some teachers often complain about the shortage of time when teaching with the integrated skills approach. In his context, grade six students’ sessions are only an hour long, due to which, teachers do not have enough time to complete all the activities. Hence, some tasks are assigned as homework or left behind. Hinkel (2010) also pointed out that the integrated skills teaching might be demanding for both instructors and learners. Moreover, Mezrigui (2016) attributed one of the possible impediments of integrating skills to weak/slow learners. Leki (2001) pointed out that correcting grammar exercise and giving feedback to students in large classes is considered a time-consuming task. Similarly, Akram and Malik (2010) pointed out that large classes or limited time of teaching might negatively affect the successful implementation of integrated skills teaching. However, they indicated that teachers’ experiences can help them manage such issues.

### *C. Teaching Writing through the Integrated Skills Approach and its Relation to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)*

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is a common teaching strategy used in many language schools nowadays. Unlike the traditional approaches to language learning, CLT aims to provide learners with real-life communication opportunities. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), the roots of CLT go back to the reforms in the British language teaching tradition dated to the late 1960s when British applied linguists envisioned the importance of communicative competence in comparison to the mastery of structures. Since the mid-1970s, CLT expanded in scope as American and British proponents considered it as an “approach” and not a “method” that aims to: “a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching, b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language communication” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.155). It is the “comprehensiveness” of CLT that made it stand out (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

CLT emphasizes the use of language in a communicative manner, and this goes in line with the integrated skills approach. Hinkel (2010) explained that the main feature of CLT-based ESL or EFL teaching is the integration of macro skills with their components. In support of this view, Richards and Schmidt (2002) confirmed that the four macro language skills are utilized for effective communication in L2. This communication is effective due to a close connection between oral and written language skills. According to Perego and Boyle (2001), in everyday

communication, language uses of written and spoken language usually occur together, not separately from one another. Hence, using written and spoken language adopts one of the primary principles of CLT and allows students to use all language skills in a communicative way.

As there seems to be no study that has considered teaching EFL writing with the integrated skills approach using qualitative methods, this qualitative study will bridge that gap and contribute to the body of knowledge. To resolve the problems of EFL writing that teachers and learners encounter, it is important to explore the nature of teaching practices, especially related to the integrated skills teaching that always considers several skills alongside the writing. Thus, this article investigates the nature of a teaching system in a language institute that implements the integrated skills approach with a focus on teaching EFL writing. The study also considers the effects of the teaching process and uncovers its benefits and challenges in the Saudi EFL context.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. *Research Paradigm*

This study is underpinned by the interpretivist paradigm. Unlike the positivist approach, interpretivism focuses on in-depth variables (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). Interpretivism is a methodological philosophy that has come to challenge quantitative methods in social science research and the positivist paradigm during the mid-twentieth century. In humanities and social sciences, the impact of interpretivism on qualitative research is evident (Hammersley, 2013). Furthermore, interpretivist researchers consider the inside meaning or perspective from the part of the research participants as valuable social knowledge (Wahyuni, 2012). One of the requirements of the interpretivist paradigm is adopting an exploratory orientation requiring the researchers to understand the distinctive perspective of the people involved and to monitor how their actions are revealed in a specific context. It is meant to find out the rationale of what might look at first odd, evil, or irrational; thus, it requires a comprehensive exploration of the experiences and perspectives of people (Hammersley, 2013).

#### B. *Research Design*

Qualitative methods offer an effective way of understanding certain phenomena; therefore, the current study employs a case study research design to gain a detailed understanding of the studied phenomenon. According to Dörnyei (2007), “the rich data obtained about the participants’ experience can widen the scope of our understanding and can add data-driven (rather than speculative) depth to the analysis of a phenomenon” (p. 40).

#### C. *Context of the Study*

The context of this study is an English language institute of a Saudi Arabian university. As the study was conducted in an EFL context, the complexity of teaching the English language and writing skills might be evident. This English language course is taught to PYP students who use textbooks that encompass all language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and their sub-skills (grammar, vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, etc.). Hence, writing lessons are delivered through the integrated skills approach.

#### D. *Participants*

For the purpose of data collection, four EFL teachers were recruited from a Saudi university following a snowball sampling procedure, where the participating teachers were recruited according to their availability. However, they were selected by the level they were teaching. The rationale behind choosing level 102 and level 103 teachers only is because more sophisticated writing tasks are taught in these courses in comparison to level 101 courses.

#### E. *Research Instruments*

Data were collected from multiple sources, utilizing teachers’ diary forms about their experiences in teaching EFL writing, and phone interviews. Overall, as there were four participants, eight diary forms were received and four interview protocols were prepared.

##### 1. *Diary Writing*

Since the 1980s, diary studies have been used by learners in applied linguistics to gain personal accounts of language learning and by parents to document their children’s progress of L2 development (mainly bilingual children). Diary studies have also been used in teacher education programs. Diary study is defined as “an insider account” in which participants are considered co-researchers (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 157). They are based on a self-report from participants, which diminishes the inaccuracy that might result from not remembering things accurately (van Eerde, Holman, & Totterdell, 2005). Research diaries range from highly structured event logs to unstructured narrative accounts (Sheble & Wildemuth, 2009). The type of diary used in this research is an event-contingent diary. Event-contingent studies require participants to provide a self-report each time a specific event occurs (Dörnyei, 2007). In this case, teachers were asked to write about how they taught two writing lessons.

##### 2. *Semi-structured Interviews*

To obtain further in-depth information on teaching writing, interviews were chosen as a follow-up instrument, which in qualitative inquiries is the most adopted method (Dörnyei, 2007). In an ordinary semi-structured interview, the

interviewer prepares questions or topics to be covered in the interview session. However, when and how to ask questions can be flexible, and there is flexibility for the interviewees to answer according to the questions (Edwards & Holland, 2013). This study has used semi-structured interviews. Due to the general condition of online learning during the academic year 2020, interviews were conducted over the phone.

#### F. Data Analysis

To analyze the qualitative data, content analysis technique was initially used which was followed by thematic analysis. The analysis was manually performed using Microsoft word.

### IV. RESULTS

The results of the study generated different views regarding the benefits and obstacles of teaching writing through the integrated skills approach, the challenges were followed by teachers' solutions to deal with some of the encountered challenges. Figure 1 shows the emerging themes.

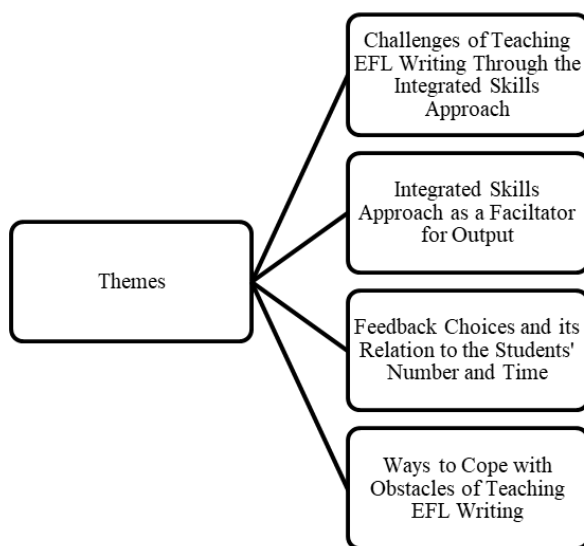


Figure 1. Emerging themes

#### A. Challenges of Teaching EFL Writing through the Integrated Skills Approach

This theme includes some of the challenges the participants encounter when teaching writing through the integrated skills approach. Maram outlined different challenges when teaching EFL writing in her class:

*Time, first of all, time. And the students will be confused if you gather all the skills and practice them with writing. They will be, you know, confused, so you should tell them that this is listening skill and then we will produce writing; you specify the skill itself. We are now learning listening, and then we will learn writing.* (Maram)

Maram also emphasized the students' reception of knowledge in an EFL class:

*If you give them more than one skill, you will not be successful. They have, you know, reception for the skills, it is maybe 10 to 15 minutes they will concentrate with you, and then they will get bored. So, you cannot practice all the skills to produce writing.* (Maram)

Maram also believes that this approach might be confusing to the students:

*So, the students would be a bit confused and worry about the time because all of them want to be corrected. And their writing, they want it to be read and displayed in the class.* (Maram)

However, to Marlene, it is the level of the students' proficiency that seems to constitute the challenge as she explained:

*Usually, the obstacle is coming from the students themselves. Like I said, they might not have the imagination; the critical thinking skills to be able to come-up with reasons and examples. Their vocabulary is limited. They learn the vocabulary for the sake of passing exams; they are not learning it to use it. So, yeah, that is one of the obstacles. It is comfortable to them, so they will reverse back to basic language instead of using new vocabulary that they learned. And when it comes to writing, as well, some tend to write as they speak, or Google translate it in their head, so it comes out in the wrong word order. And yeah, that is the biggest problem I have; lack of vocabulary.* (Marlene)

In support of this view, Ahlam draws on students' proficiency level: *"if they do not have the basic things like grammar and they do not know how to write sentence with a good structure, it takes time. So, yes, it depends on the students' level sometimes"*. (Ahlam)

#### B. Integrated Skills Approach as a Facilitator for Output

This emerging theme indicates how teaching writing through the integrated skills approach has an effective role when it comes to the output stage in the language classroom. Marlene indicated the following:

*Well, it helps the students to be able to improve their writing because they have the vocabulary, they have the grammar. If they want to improve their writing, then they are more focused on the grammar, checking that the grammar is correct, and are encouraged to use the vocabulary to make their writing better because they are expected to. So, yeah, it is something for them to fall back on.* (Marlene)

In the same vein, Ahlam shared the same view: *"to have input from using other skills to help them to write to product something"*. (Ahlam)

Similarly, Amany commented on the presentation of knowledge needed for the output stage:

*It makes it easier for them; you know. So, they feel more comfortable there is nothing new about what you are going to write, we already know what we are supposed to write; the vocabulary, everything is there. (Amany)  
On the other hand, if it was not integrated, so they are blank. They have no idea to write about, and it would be a bit difficult for me to mention topics from scratch but, this way, they already have an idea they have covered some points in the introduction, in the reading, in the grammar, so, that way it actually helps me.* (Amany)

#### C. Feedback Choices and its Relation to the Students' Number and Time

When Ahlam was asked about the number of students in her class, she identified as 40 students. She indicated that: *"yes, it is a big number. I think the challenge is when I give them feedback. I cannot give the feedback to each student, so in this case, usually, I gather the most important mistakes and I correct them, or we correct them together on the board"*. (Ahlam)

In the same vein, Amany also drew on giving individual attention and how the large number of students' makes it difficult for teachers to give detailed feedback to each student during the class time. *"if I have large number of students, it gets difficult to give individual attention"*. (Amany)

Amany further elaborated the notion of individual attention:

*You know, there are individual differences between the students, they are not at the same level normally, or they do not understand the points right away. Some students need more time, more attention, and that gets difficult for me as a teacher. They have large number of students in the classroom, so, I cannot really give individual attention to each one of them.* (Amany)

#### D. Ways to Cope with Obstacles of Teaching EFL Writing

This final theme draws on some solutions the participants of this study indicated which can help teachers overcome challenges they encounter in their writing class. Amany believes that an email can help when it comes to not being able to check on the students' drafts:

*I ask them to send their writings by email or you know come and see me in my office hours. Like now, we are doing the online classes but if I'm in class, then I would ask them to come in my office hours and I check their writing so I can cover as much as I can.* (Amany)

A similar view is indicated by Ahlam:

*As I told you before, I may take their writing with me or maybe some of them those who finish and we comment on their writing and I take the others' papers to correct them at home and the most important mistakes I found, I discuss them with the students.* (Ahlam)

On the other hand, Ahlam gives lower-level students more attention to facilitate the writing process for them. *"I give them more attention by explaining more to them, maybe sometimes using L1. And sometimes, I show them the vocabulary or the form of the sentence"*. (Ahlam)

### V. DISCUSSION

This section discusses the results of the research questions in a sequential order.

*Q1: What are the benefits and challenges of teaching EFL writing through the integrated skills approach?*

This question generated different views on the implementation of the integrated skills approach when teaching writing in the Saudi EFL context. Some of the findings suggest that the integrated skills curriculum offers many avenues for input; however, it may also be considered a time-consuming practice that leads to the learners' confusion.

#### A. Benefits

There was a general agreement that teaching writing through the integrated skills approach helps in the output stage of a writing lesson. The results indicated that this approach with its different skills and sub-skills provides students with a comprehensible input to help them in the writing tasks that lead to their improved learning outcomes. This is in line with what Sanchez (2000) found that constant integration of skills yielded more effective results in writing exercises.

This is demonstrated by the contribution of other skills, such as reading texts, providing structure, and introducing new vocabulary, which are meant to facilitate students' writing. The efficiency of the integrated skills approach is reflected on by this teacher: *"It makes it easier for them; you know. So, they feel more comfortable there is nothing new about what you are going to write, we already know what we are supposed to write; the vocabulary, everything is there."* (Amany)

By comparing the current findings with Al-Dosari's (2016) study, his results proved that when integrating reading and writing skills, students writing were greatly improved. This suggests the significant role of skills integration in fostering students' writing skills in an EFL setting. Although the integrated skills approach provides students with a comprehensible input, the current study indicates that some students might experience difficulties in writing, mainly because of their lower proficiency levels. This result might be attributed to the fact that Al-Dosari (2016) considered EFL students enrolled in the English language department; unlike the students who are taking compulsory English courses in the PYP. Hence, they might lack the motivation to learn English.

### B. Challenges

This study illustrates that the integrated skills approach can be time-consuming and confusing for the EFL learners. This finding is consistent with that of Mezrigui's (2016) where he noted that some teachers complained about the shortage of time while using the integrated skills approach in teaching. Although Mezrigui's (2016) context is different to the current context in terms of age groups, the issue remains the same despite the learners' age. Furthermore, it is worth noting that describing the integrated skills approach to be confusing for students, might be related to what Richards (2001) pointed out that teachers might deem it impossible to teach more than one skill at a time or that it is easier to teach language skills separately. Thus, if we consider the time factor and students level in relation to skills integration, a possible reason for experiencing difficulties with it might be associated with learners' needs, such as wanting to be corrected or it might also be related to their proficiency level, as indicated by some of the participants.

One interesting finding is that students have a limited reception capacity for absorbing information during the class. A possible explanation for this to occur during the class time might be attributed to the long hours of teaching in the language classroom. Another possible reason for losing interest or having limited reception of information could be related to the teaching methods, and the environment of the classroom. This is pointed out by one of the participants:

*If you give them more than one skill, you will not be successful. They have, you know, reception for the skills it is maybe 10 to 15 minutes they will concentrate with you, and then they will get bored. So, you cannot practice all the skills to produce writing.* (Maram)

Among the challenges, large classes and time limitations were highlighted by the participants. In the same way, Hinkel (2010) noted that integrated skills teaching might not be practical in areas where teachers have to teach large classes. Similarly, Akram and Malik (2010) pointed out that an integrated skills approach helps in making the lessons dynamic if applied successfully. However, large classes or limited time of teaching might negatively affect the successful implementation of integrated skills teaching as indicated by the findings of this study: *"So, the students would be a bit confused and worry about the time because all of them want to be corrected. And their writing, they want it to be read and displayed in the class."* (Maram)

This could be due to the fact that usually large classes affect teaching in terms of guiding students individually and trying to respond to their different needs, as evidently stated in the current study. The challenge might be more apparent especially in the case of lower-level students when teachers find it difficult to respond to individual differences or individual mistakes in large classes while considering other sets of skills during class time. However, by minimizing students' number and increasing the allotted time to teaching writing, the problem can be easily solved.

*Q2: How do EFL teachers overcome the challenges of teaching writing skills while using the integrated skills approach in EFL writing classrooms in the Saudi context?*

The last research question finds solutions to the problems highlighted by the EFL teachers in this study. The results include the use of emails as a medium for correction, the use of L1 for explanation, and the manifestation of examples for lower-level students.

### C. Solutions

The findings suggest solutions to the challenges identified by the participants of this study. As indicated earlier, time appears to affect the teaching of writing skills, especially at the feedback and correction stage. This is similar to what Leki (2001) established that correcting grammatical errors and providing students with feedback in large classes is a challenging and time-consuming task. Due to the large number of students, it was pointed out that some students send their drafts via email for correction. Although it seems to be a good practice, some students might seek help of others in writing their drafts, and that might not reflect their actual level of writing. However, considering the challenging phenomenon of large classes, it might be the only solution. Similarly, Mekheimer (2011) pointed out that teachers should be trained to manage time effectively as the integrated skills approach requires more time than teaching with a segregated skills approach. Therefore, it is time-consuming in comparison to the segregated skills approach.

As for the students' proficiency levels, it was found that the use of students' L1 can help them, especially the weaker ones. Moreover, displaying the form or vocabulary might help them to start the writing task with more confidence. Indeed, this kind of assistance mirrors scaffolding since presenting examples to students is one way of assisted learning.

Further, this participant clarified the way she manages this issue: “I give them more attention by explaining more to them, maybe sometimes using L1. And sometimes, I show them the vocabulary or the form of the sentence.” (Ahlam)

## VI. CONCLUSION

Overall, the findings highlight the importance and efficiency of teaching EFL writing with the integrated skills approach to provide learners with a comprehensible input; however, the students’ proficiency level and their inadequate vocabulary can influence the application of this approach effectively in an EFL classroom. It is also illustrated that the large number of students and time constraints negatively affect the teaching of EFL writing. Therefore, the educational institutions might consider extending the time allotted for teaching writing skills and reduce the number of the students in language classrooms. This result is in line with previous studies wherein large classes and time limitations were identified as two factors affecting teaching practices that use the integrated skills approach. Furthermore, the findings contribute to the understanding of the benefits and possible challenges that might arise in an EFL environment.

## VII. RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

More research is required to understand the teaching of writing skills and the process of EFL writing, with the integrated skills approach. This is an important issue for future research since the integrated skills approach is commonly used in the Saudi context. Moreover, future research can explore the factors that might improve or obscure teaching and learning of EFL writing while using the integrated skills approach. Also, it will be interesting to conduct a study comparing two different teaching systems, such as a semester-based teaching and a modular system to assess their outcomes and examine their impact on the integrated skills approach in the Saudi EFL context.

## VIII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the current study have certain pedagogical implications for EFL teachers, policymakers, and students:

- For EFL teachers: Pre-teaching vocabulary might help in saving time as suggested by previous studies in the field of SLA.
- For policymakers: Reducing students’ number might have more fruitful results for teachers and students alike.
- For students: Practicing the newly taught vocabulary in context might help them internalize the new words and use them in the writing tasks.

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**Waad A. Aljahdali** holds a Bachelor's degree in the English language from King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. She is currently pursuing a Master's degree in TESOL at King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. She has a teaching experience of two years in the English language to EFL learners. Her research interests revolve around teaching and learning the productive skills of the English language.

**Abdullah Alshakhi** is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics and the Head of Curriculum and Testing Unit at the English Language Institute at King Abdulaziz University. With particular research interests in language testing and assessment literacy, construct validity, writing assessment, and language policy, Dr. Alshakhi has been published in both local and international journals. He is actively involved in several workshops involving language assessment and testing through the Educational Testing Service (ETS), Cambridge Assessment as well as the European Association of Language Assessment and Testing (EALTA).

# A Genre Analysis of English and Chinese Legal Research Article Abstracts: A Corpus-based Approach

Jing Duan

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China

Jing Wei

College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China

**Abstract**—Research article (RA) abstracts are generally viewed as the gateway to know the gist and major findings of a study. They also function as a “promotional” genre to attract readers’ interest and increase readership so as to better engage the authors in the academic communities. Although RA abstracts as a genre have been gaining more attention over the years, there is still a lack of study on RA abstracts in the field of law, let alone cross-linguistic study concerning them. Therefore, this study investigates English and Chinese legal RA abstracts from the perspective of genre, analyzes their move structures, frequency and features, and then compares the similarities and differences of them in two different languages. To this end, a corpus consisting of 60 RA abstracts was compiled, 30 randomly selected from three prestigious English law journals and 30 from three Chinese law journals. The move analysis was conducted based on an adjusted model of four moves. The results reveal that the moves of Introduction, Gap-filling and Contribution are obligatory while that of Methodology is optional in both languages. However, English abstracts, with more complicated move structures than Chinese ones, tend to state explicitly the purposes of study while Chinese abstracts show a preference for pointing out the “Gap” first.

**Index Terms**—legal RA abstracts, genre, move analysis, move structure

## I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past years, research articles (hereinafter referred to as RAs) have received great interest and attention of academic investigations from genre and discourse analysts as RAs push forward professional development, enhance discourse community membership and facilitate international academic exchanges. Abstracts, as the first step to attract readers’ attention and present the writer’s credibility to address the topic as an insider, are extremely important in presenting and even marketing one’s work to the academic world. A qualified abstract must serve certain communicative purposes identified by the professional community so that the parent paper stands a better chance to attract attention and get published.

Representative genre explorations of abstracts include those in the fields of language and linguistic studies (Santos, 1996; Lor  , 2004; Pho, 2008; Tseng, 2011; Dor  , 2013), psychology (Hartley, 2003), engineering, physics, marketing, sociology and humanities (Hyland, 2004), protozoology (Cross & Oppenheim, 2006), literature (Tank  , 2017; Zhao, Liu, Deng et al.), humanities, social sciences and natural sciences (Stotesbury, 2003) and medicine (Salager-Meyer, 1990, 1992; Chu & Jiang, 2018). There are also some studies concerning cross-disciplinary perspectives such as applied linguistics and medicine (Cavalieri, 2014), law and business (Hatzitheodorou, 2014). As English is the dominant language on the international academic stage, it has always been the focus of RA studies. Thus there are also some cross-linguistic investigations like English and Spanish (Martin-Martin, 2003); Italian and English (Diani, 2014), French and English (van Bonn & Swales, 2007), etc.; and cross-cultural explorations including those between Iranian and English (Majid & Omid, 2018), Chinese and English (Cao & Xiao, 2013), etc. It is shown that abstracts across different disciplines and cultures adopt different move patterns with different characteristics. Diversified and numerous as the studies are, little attention has been paid to RA abstracts in the field of law. This study conducts a comparative genre analysis of English and Chinese legal research article abstracts to investigate their rhetorical move structures and explore the similarities and differences, aiming to promote understanding of RA abstracts in the field of law across the two languages and shed some pedagogical light on ESP and EAP teaching for non-native writers at tertiary level.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Research Article Abstracts as a Specific Genre

The studies on “genre” and “genre analysis” have gone through decades of development. There are mainly three approaches towards it. First is the systemic functional linguistics approach, viewing genre as the result of “register and

goals". Hasan (1977) defined genre as "a type of discourse" in her description of contextual configuration (CC) and generic structure potential (GSP), which classified which elements were obligatory and which were optional. Halliday (1978) included genre in his discussion of register: "The field, tenor and mode act collectively as determinants of the text through their specification of the register." Martin (1992) viewed genres as a social interactional process concerning how things got done, which were realized through registers and registers in turn were realized through language. Second is the new rhetorical approach. Representative figures include Bazerman, Myers and Miller. They see genre as dynamic and social action in which context of the situation is involved. Situational contexts and communicative purposes must be considered together when analyzing a genre (Miller, 1984). The third is the ESP approach and also the prevailing one in contemporary studies. As Swales (1990) saw it, genre was a class of communicative events that share some certain sets of communicative purposes recognized by certain specific communities. Swales and Feak (2009) further defined genre as "a type of text or discourse designed to achieve a set of communicative purposes". Another key figure Bhatia (2004) referred to genre as "language use in a conventionalized communicative setting in order to give expression to a specific set of communicative goals of a disciplinary or social institution, which give rise to stable structural forms by imposing constraints on the use of lexico-grammatical as well as discoursal resources". Their emphasis on "communicative purposes or goals" have influenced many scholars and provided inspirations on research in different fields.

The past decades have seen increasing interest and attention to the notion of genre and its application in language teaching and learning. Abstracts have long been studied as a recognizable kind of genre that functions as "independent genres as a mandatory source of consultation for researchers" (Van Dijk, 1980), "representation" (Bazerman, 1984), or significant carriers of a discipline's epistemological and social assumptions (Hyland, 2000). The essence of this genre is one of distillation (Swales, 1990), "a description or factual summary of the much longer report" (Bhatia, 1993) or "condensed document representation" (Cross & Oppenheim, 2006). By resorting to certain linguistic and rhetorical practices in abstracts, academics demonstrate their professional credibility and the value of their work to the discipline (Hyland, 2000). Apart from summarizing or representing the related articles, abstracts have another unique aim—to attract interest in a time of busy readership and persuade people into reading the whole articles. There is no doubt that, RA abstracts, with the limited space and word count, involves a certain "marketisation"—a promotion of oneself and one's paper through discursive means which might be considered analogous to the promotion of goods (Fairclough, 1995); and they also projects a specific disciplinary context to situate themselves in it and a way of conducting social relations with colleagues (Hyland, 2000). So the authors of abstracts at least want to 1) persuade the editors that their work is important enough to be published; 2) arouse readers' interest and urge them to read on; 3) inform readers of the main content and findings of the paper; 4) promote the study and demonstrate their membership, competence, and credibility in the target discourse or academic community. Based on Halliday's (1994) theory of metafunctions, the content of abstracts relates to the ideational metafunction; the generic structure resorts to textual metafunction and the purposes of authors reflect interpersonal metafunction. Therefore, abstracts, as a genre, are informative with a marketing aim. It is important and meaningful to analyze the generic structures of abstracts and their linguistic realizations so as to find out how those communicative purposes are achieved.

### *B. Move Analysis of RA Abstracts*

According to Swales & Feak (2009), a move is a stretch of text with a definable rhetorical function, which is realized by smaller conventional and optional discourse units in specific genres. Such units are called "steps" (Swales, 1990; Santos, 2002; Hyland, 2004), "sub-moves" (Nwogu, 1991; Santos, 1996) or "rhetorical strategies" (Bhatia, 1993; Martín-Martín, 2003). Like other genres, abstracts display a relatively stable generic template to help authors accomplish their academic and interpersonal goals. Previous studies show that abstracts in different professional fields adopt different patterns of moves. Thus we can see different models have sought to delineate the textual organizations of RA abstracts in terms of moves. Hyland (2000), after rigorous analysis and research of 800 RA abstracts taken from both soft and hard sciences including philosophy, applied linguistics, sociology, physics, marketing, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering and biology, proposed a five-move model (Introduction-Purpose-Method-Product-Conclusion) to investigate RA abstracts. He concluded that RA abstracts in hard sciences and soft sciences bore a lot of differences (For example, writers in the soft knowledge domains see a greater need to situate and contextualize their discourse with an Introduction, while writers in the hard knowledge fields tend to omit this move in favor of a description of the Method.) and writers needed to establish their credibility and status of being an insider of the academic community through the regular patterns of abstracts. Saboori and Hashemi (2013), using Hyland's model, studied the rhetorical structure, voice and tense of the verbs and self-mentioning of the author in RA abstracts across three different fields of applied linguistics, applied economics and mechanical engineering. They found that the move least frequently used was Introduction. Majid and Omid (2018) did a cross-cultural study on the RA abstracts of agricultural engineering based on Hyland's model and found out Iranian and native scholars were significantly different in using the moves of Introduction and Method. Bhatia (1993) proposed a four-move model including "introducing the purpose", "describing the method", "summarizing the results" and "presenting the conclusions". Alhuqbani (2013) used Bhatia's model and Hyland's model to study the rhetorical structures of abstracts across four unrelated disciplines in Arabic: law, linguistics, medicine and police, concluding that Arabian medicine abstracts strictly adhered to either model while the other three had no conventional move structure.

Another influential model is the famous Swalesian model (1990) of CARS (Creating a Research Space for analyzing introductions of RAs) and IMRD model (Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion). Lorés (2004), by analyzing 36 RA abstracts from linguistics based on these two models, found out the abstracts demonstrated the three types of IMRD structure, CARS structure and a combinatory structure, fulfilling three different functions, namely, the informative, indicative and informative-indicative functions. Marefat and Mohammadzadeh (2013) also conducted research under these two models, investigating literature RA abstracts written in English and Persian. Their results were not consistent with Lorés' claims and showed that none of the models were efficient though literature abstracts matched CARS more.

Santos (1996) examined the abstracts of RAs in applied linguistics at the macrolevel of textual organization and content as well as at the microlevel of textual analysis and probably was the first to report a five-move pattern in this arena: M1-situating the research, M2-presenting the research, M3-describing the methodology, M4-summarizing the results, M5-discussing the research. Tseng (2011) extended Santos' work and studied the length and verb tenses of each move in the same field. Cross & Oppenheim (2006), inspired by Santos' model, studied the semantic organization and thematic structure of 12 abstracts in the field of protozoology from CABI database. They aimed to provide some practical implications for information retrieval like abstracting and indexing services instead of for pedagogical purposes, which interestingly displayed another important application area of genre analysis. Doró (2013) did cross-disciplinary analyses on abstracts of linguistics and literature based on Santos' five-move pattern, revealing that linguistics abstracts provided clearer reference to the research scope, methodology and results while literature abstracts emphasized placing the research into a wider context and offering tentative reference to the findings.

Apart from linguistics, literature abstracts have also received much attention. A model that is worth noting is one compiled by Tankó (2017), who analyzed 135 literary RA abstracts from four influential international journals and presented the move structure model for LRA abstracts: Topic-Background-Niche-Purpose-Method-Outcome-Conclusion-Implications. After careful examination of the syntactic complexity and lexical richness of LRA abstracts with soft-ware driven analysis, Tankó concluded that LRA abstracts had high syntactic complexity and lexical density, making them different to comprehend. Zhao, Liu, Deng et al. (2019) proposed their move pattern (Background-Purpose-Conclusion-Implication) based on the studies of Swales (1990), Santos (1996), Stotesbury (2003) and Tankó (2017) and furthered Tankó's study in the literature field.

Judging from the previous models, it can be seen that most genre analysis models put emphasis on the "academic" or "summarizing" aspects of RA abstracts. This study believes that equal attention should be paid to the "marketisation" or "promotion" aspect when constructing a RA abstract since abstracts, to a large degree, also aim at attracting readers to finish reading the whole paper and convincing them that the study is important in the academic field. Based on this, this study proposes an independent move of "Gap-filling", where gaps or problems in existing literature are presented so as to provoke readers' interest and thinking, serving the communicative purpose of "marketisation". However, most previous studies (except the "Niche" move in Tankó's study) have included this "problem-raising" part in the "Introduction" or "Background" move. This study believes it is necessary to separate "Introduction" move and "Gap-filling" move.

Moreover, studies on the abstracts of legal RAs seem quite rare over the past decades. Most of the attention has been put on non-academic contexts. For example, Bhatia (1993; 2008) distinguished between linear move-structure and interactive move-structure in the research of legislative provisions and legal cases and investigated international arbitration discourses. In academic contexts, very limited literature is found: From a cross-disciplinary perspective, Hatzitheodorou (2014) proposed an adapted framework drawing on those of Swales (1990), Lewin, Fine & Young (2001), Pho (2008) and Agathopoulou (2009), and analyzed RA abstracts in the field of law and business. She found that business abstracts displayed a higher frequency of moves than law abstracts and had a tendency for more extended texts. Ghasempour and Farnia (2017), based on Hyland's (2000) and Tseng's (2011) models, attempted a cross-linguistic study on Persian and English legal RA abstracts. Their findings showed that the moves of purpose, method and conclusion were more frequently used in English abstracts while those of introduction, purpose and conclusion were more frequent in Persian abstracts. To the best of the author's knowledge, there has not been comparative study on the English and Chinese legal RA abstracts so far. Therefore, the present study aims to fill this gap in order to advance research in the academic discourse community of law with the following research questions to be addressed:

1. What moves occur in English and Chinese legal RA abstracts and what are their frequencies in the two languages respectively?
2. What are the features and functions of the moves?
3. What are the move structures of English and Chinese legal RA abstracts and what are their similarities and differences?

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. The Corpus

The corpus of the present study consists of 60 RA abstracts randomly selected from six prestigious English and Chinese legal journals. 30 Chinese abstracts were selected from *China Legal Science*, *Chinese Journal of Law* and *Peking University Law Journal* (ten abstracts from each journal), and 30 English abstracts from *Harvard Law Review*,

*The Yale Law Journal* and *Columbia Law Review* (ten abstracts from each journal). The time span covered by those abstracts was 2018-2019 to ensure they demonstrated the latest trend in legal RA abstract writing. Some details of the corpus are presented in Table 1 (the statistics are derived from the software *Wordsmith*):

TABLE 1  
LEGAL RA ABSTRACTS CORPUS

Language	Journal	Tokens	Types	STTR
English	Harvard Law Review (10)	8186	2300	48.09
	The Yale Law Journal (10)			
	Columbia Law Review (10)			
Chinese	China Legal Science(10)	6999	301	10.73
	Chinese Journal of Law (10)			
	Peking University Law Journal (10)			

### B. Framework of the Analysis

The framework of the present study draws on Swales' CARS model (1990) and Hyland's five-move model (2000) as presented in table 2. Even though Swales' CARS model was initially used to analyze introductions of RAs, it was proved to be efficient in studying abstracts as both parts bore certain similar communicative purposes. A top-down approach is adopted to analyze the selected abstracts. Ten abstracts (five English and five Chinese) are first examined carefully by the author to decide on the communicative purposes of different information segments and to see how well they correspond to the moves of the aforementioned two models, based on which a preliminary mover structure model for the present study is constructed. Then the rest of the abstracts are investigated according to the preliminary model and adjustments are made in due course. Finally, the adjusted model is used to analyze all the abstracts in the corpus once again to see if any further changes are needed. The analysis is done with the help of a specialist informant majoring in law. The adjusted move structure model is presented in table 3.

TABLE 2  
JOHN SWALES' CARS MODEL AND HYLAND'S FIVE-MOVE MODEL

John Swales' CARS Model (1990)	Hyland's five-move Model (2000)
Move 1 Establishing a territory Step 1 Claiming centrality and/or Step 2 Making topic generalization(s) and/or Step 3 Reviewing items of previous research	Move 1- Introduction Establishes context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion.
Move 2 Establishing a niche Step 1A Counter-claiming or Step 1B Indicating a gap or Step 1C Question-raising or Step 1D Continuing a tradition	Move 2-Purpose Indicates purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outline the intention behind the paper.
Move 3 Occupying the niche Step 1A Outlining purposes or Step 1B Announcing present research Step 2 Announcing principal findings Step 3 Indicating RA structure	Move 3-Method Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.  Move 4 -Product States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.  Move 5-Conclusion Interprets or extends results beyond scope of paper, draws inferences, points to applications or wider implications.

TABLE 3  
The Adjusted Move Structure Model

Move 1: Introduction Step 1: Situating the study in the context Step 2: Referring to previous studies Move 2: Gap-filling Step 1: Indicating the existing gap or problems in the field Step 2a: Stating the purpose of the study Step 2b: Claiming significance of the study Move 3: Methodology Move 4: Contribution Step 1: Reporting the major results, findings, arguments or conclusions of the study Step 2: Further implications, extensions or suggestions for further study
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This model puts emphasis on the communicative purposes of "summarizing" and "marketing" of abstracts. Introduction move serves as the lead-in part to provide background information of the present study as to "what is the status quo" of the field, showing the author's academic knowledge and situate the study in the academic discourse

community. Gap-filling move puts forward the existing problems or gaps in the field in order to justify the study and persuade the readers that the present paper deserves attention, which further enhances the author's credibility and arouses readers' interest. This move concerns "what can be changed, added and developed" in the field. Methodology move introduces the methods adopted to do the research. Contribution move reports major results or findings of the study, providing a more complete picture of the following paper. Further implications and suggestions extend the results and highlight the contribution of the present study, relating it to other members of the discourse community and further promoting the paper. This move deals with "what has been achieved and its contribution" in the field.

It is reasonable to believe that an abstract does not necessarily include all of the moves based on the writing traditions, requirements and practices in different fields. Some moves occur more frequently while others do not. Researchers hold different views as regards move stability, that is, a move that occurs regularly in a genre will be considered conventional and thus obligatory. Swales (1990) believes that if a move appears in no less than 50% of the investigated instances, that move is obligatory; moves with a lower frequency are considered optional. Other opinions concerning move stability are 60% (Kanoksilapatham, 2005), 66% (Hatzitheodorou, 2014), 90% (Santos, 1996), and 100% (Cross & Oppenheim, 2006; Tseng, 2011).

Therefore, the frequency of each move in the selected corpus is calculated and summed based on the presented model in an attempt to investigate how the RA abstracts in the field of law reach their communicative purposes.

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

##### A. Moves and Their Frequencies

In an attempt to answer the first two research questions, the corpus of 60 legal RA abstracts in both English and Chinese were analyzed carefully in terms of move patterns based on the proposed model. Table 4 lists the number of abstracts featuring each move in the corpus; and table 5 shows the number of abstracts featuring each step in the corpus.

TABLE 4  
THE NUMBER OF ABSTRACTS FEATURING THE MOVE IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE CORPUS

Moves	English		Chinese	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
M1: Introduction	27	90.00%	22	73.33%
M2: Gap-filling	27	90.00%	23	76.67%
M3: Methodology	11	36.67%	5	16.67%
M4: Contribution	30	100%	29	96.67%

TABLE 5  
THE NUMBER OF ABSTRACTS FEATURING THE STEP IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE CORPUS

Moves & Steps	English		Chinese	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
M1: Introduction				
S1: Situating the study	25	83.33%	22	73.33%
S2: Referring to previous studies	10	33.33%	0	0.00%
M2: Gap-filling				
S1: Indicating the gap	16	53.33%	20	66.67%
S2a: Stating the purpose	22	73.33%	7	23.33%
S2b: Claiming significance	8	26.67%	4	13.33%
M3: Methodology	11	36.67%	5	16.67%
M4: Contribution				
S1: Reporting major results	30	100%	29	96.67%
S2: Further extensions	18	60%	11	36.67%

As is shown in the table, three frequent moves are identified in both English and Chinese legal RA abstracts—Introduction, Gap-filling and Contribution, with differences in the percentage. If the threshold of move stability is set too high, then some variations may not be identified, especially in the fields of humanities where research topics are not so well-defined as in social sciences. Therefore, the present study opts to follow Hatzitheodorou's view (2014) to decide the move stability. Introduction and Gap-filling occur in 27 of the selected English abstracts, consisting 90% and Contribution occur in all of them, consisting 100%. Those numbers are less in Chinese corpus but still take more than seventy percent of the total. Methodology move takes the smallest portion in both languages but its frequency in Chinese is less than half of that in English. Thus it is safe to say that the moves of Introduction, Gap-filling and Contribution are stable or obligatory while Methodology optional in the corpus. Taking a closer look at the frequency of each step, bigger differences are found between the English and Chinese legal RA abstracts. In English, the most frequent moves are M4S1/results (100%), M1S1/introduction (83.33%) and M2S2a/purpose (73.33%) whereas in Chinese, the most frequent moves are M4S1/results (96.67%), M1S1/introduction (73.33%) and M2S1/gap (66.67%).

##### B. Functions and Features of Each Move

###### 1. Move 1: Introduction



This move, usually placed at the beginning of abstracts, introduces the background and research topic of the RA while preparing readers for what comes next. It consists of two steps: step1—situating the study in the context and step 2—referring to previous studies. Different from hard sciences, soft sciences such as legal research usually work much harder to acquaint readers with the background to their research and to construct its significance rhetorically because community members participate in less clearly identifiable areas of study and proceed along less heavily trodden paths of research (Hyland, 2000). As legal RAs in this corpus cover a wide range of branches and issues including constitutional law, economic law, administrative law, etc., researchers of one area may not be familiar with another, as a result, M1 is frequently employed to contextualize the study and familiarize readers with the topic. The high percentage of M1 in both English and Chinese corpus attests to the statement that Introduction providing a general context were more common in the humanities and social sciences because they tend to be more diverse and have more permeable boundaries (Hyland, 2000).

As is seen in table 5, one thing worth noting is that although M1S1 in both English and Chinese exhibit frequent occurrences (83.33% and 73.33% respectively), M1S2 in Chinese corpus exhibit none while in English it is found in one third of the abstracts (33.33%). The reason may be that Chinese writers try to make their abstracts precise and concise due to the limit of space and thus focus on their own studies, saving “previous studies” to the introduction and literature review part of the paper. This interesting difference reflects different academic writing practices in the field of law in English and Chinese. For example:

1) The concept of “information fiduciaries” has surged to the forefront of debates on online-platform regulation.(M1S1) Developed by Professor Jack Balkin, the concept is meant to rebalance the relationship...Balkin argues...(M1S2)

2) 《反不正当竞争法》引入的网络条款旨在评价网络竞争行为的正当性。(M1S1) (translation: The Internet-related provisions introduced by the *Law against Unfair Competition* are aimed at evaluating the legitimacy of online competition.)

## 2. Move 2: Gap-filling

This move consists of two steps: Step 1—Indicating the gap, and Step 2—Stating the purpose or Claiming significance of the present study. Step 1 expressly points out the lack of knowledge or the problems in the research field. Step 2 fulfills the Gap presented by demonstrating the purpose of the study or explaining how important the study is. Gap-filling move shares some common functions with M2 (Establishing a niche) in Swales’ CARS model, but with a more direct goal to “sell” or “market” the paper. Though the two steps of Move 2, the author is able to, first, boost his credibility and professionalism as an insider in the field by putting forward the “Gap” that other members of the community may have not noticed, thus attracting readers and provoking their thinking; second, to encourage further reading into the article to learn more about the problem or solution by stressing purpose and significance of the study. As is shown in the table, M2 has the second most frequent occurrences in the abstracts of both languages (in English M1 and M2 have the same percentage), however, the distribution of S1 and S2 is different. In English, Stating the purpose is the most common one with a percentage of 73.33% while in Chinese it is much less—only 23.33%. Indicating the gap, on the other hand, has the percentage of 66.67% in Chinese while in English this number is 52.33%. Claiming significance has a low frequency rate in both languages, with English 26.67% and Chinese half of it. This shows that English authors tend to encourage readership by stating clearly the purpose and goals of the study while Chinese authors seem to do it by pointing out the lack of knowledge or the problems in the research field. For example:

3) ...But while it might appear that any internet user can publish freely and instantly online, many platforms actively curate the content posted by their users. How and why these platforms operate to moderate speech is largely opaque (M2S1). This Article provides the first analysis of what these platforms are actually doing to moderate online speech under a regulatory and First Amendment framework (M2S2aS2b). ..

4) ...然而, 10 年实践表明:由于责任分配不清、科层压力不够, 行政保障面临制度配套不足、考评追责乏力和监督救济缺失的困境(M2S1);法院则突破限制, 探索多样化的审查方式, 对公共企事业单位的信息公开活动积极开展监督(M2S2a)... (translation: ...However, Ten years of practice show that due to unclear distribution of responsibilities and insufficient pressure from different levels, administrative security is faced with the difficulties of inadequate system support, weak evaluation and accountability and lack of supervision and relief; the court, on the other hand, broke through the restrictions, explored various ways of examination, and actively carried out supervision over the information disclosure activities of public enterprises and institutions... )

One thing needs to be mentioned here is that sometimes one step may be embedded in another. As in example 3, right after indicating the “Gap”, the author directly and logically states the purpose of the study responding to the “Gap”. By using “the first analysis”, the author “promotes” or “sells” the study as “the first” in the research area, which demonstrates the significance of the study and further intrigued the readers.

## 3. Move 3: Methodology

Methodology move describes the materials, subjects, procedures and other elements involved in the way the study is conducted. It is obvious, as is shown in table 5, that the move of Methodology is optional in both English and Chinese legal RA abstracts, with the frequency of 36.67% in English corpus and 16.67% in Chinese, much less than that of other moves. This somehow attests to Hyland’s opinion (2000) that writers in the soft knowledge domains saw a greater need to situate their discourse with an Introduction while those in hard disciplines showed a preference for a description of

the Method. Moreover, it is found that the Methodology move in the corpus is usually concise without taking up too much space in the abstracts and some are embedded in other moves, which further indicates that scholars in the field of law pay less attention to the description of methodology in writing abstracts. For example:

5) ...Through an original behavioral study (M3), this Note reveals flaws in the fundamental assumptions of both camps...(M3 embedded in M4)

6) ...从语义、语境、渊源等多方面解构“合理”一词(M3), 可得出“合理”在法学领域应用中的四种意涵... (M3 embedded in M4)

(translation:...Deconstructing the word “reasonable” from multi-dimensions of semantics, context, origin and other aspects, we can derive four meanings of it in the application of law...)

#### 4. Move 4: Contribution

This move foregrounds the Contribution of the study to the field, serving the communicative purposes of “summarizing results” and “further marketing the study”. It consists of two steps: Step 1—reporting major findings, results or argument and step 2—providing further extensions or implications. In most cases, it is the last move in the abstracts and emphasizes the contribution of the study in order to encourage readers to finish reading the whole paper that follows rather than skip to the next one. Therefore, this move occurs most frequently in the corpus studied, with 100% in the English abstracts and 96.67% in the Chinese ones. It is worth mentioning that as long as M4 occurs, there must be M4S1 but not necessarily M4S2. On the one hand, the high frequency of M4S1 implies that it is almost a must in both English and Chinese to report the results, major findings or arguments of the study in constructing legal RA abstracts; on the other hand, the frequency of M4S2 is 60% in English and 36.67% in Chinese, indicating that it is more common to provide readers with further extensions and implications of the study in English legal RA abstracts than Chinese. This result is in line with Hyland’s study (2000) where he found 94% of the data included a Product (Product move in Hyland’s model resembles M4S1 in the proposed model in this study) statement that presented the main argument or findings. Writers are anxious to underline their most central claims as a means of gaining reader interest and acceptance, underlying the assertion by Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) that the abstract is essentially a promotional genre. For instance:

7) ...The empirical analysis reveals that agencies have been increasingly engaging in regulatory bundling for the last two decades. More generally, bundling behavior varies widely across different administrative agencies, and agencies appear to include more subjects in their final—as opposed to proposed—rules. (M4S1) These findings, in turn, raise significant normative concerns that could be addressed through a suite of tools novel to the administrative state: single subject rules, line-item vetoes, and innovative uses of more traditional doctrines of judicial review. Whether some of these tools should be adopted, however, requires further empirical assessment of regulatory bundling’s causes and consequences. (M4S2)

8) ...因此, 市场与政府不只是补充关系, 更有互为支撑、相互转化的交叉关系。(M4S1)循此逻辑, 方能建立张弛有度、与时俱进、尽如所期的社会主义市场经济法律体系。(M4S2)

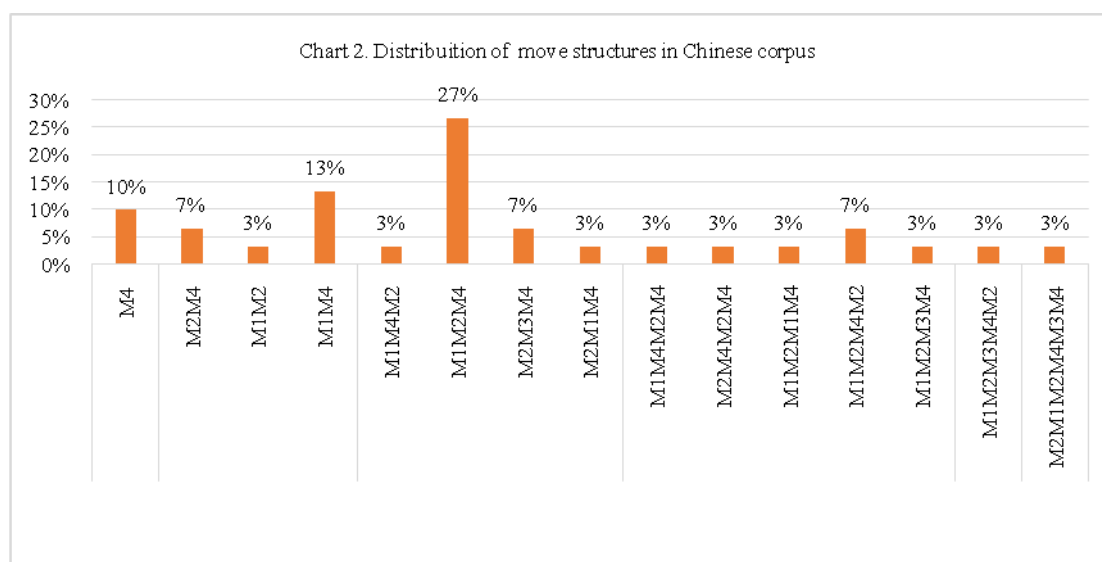
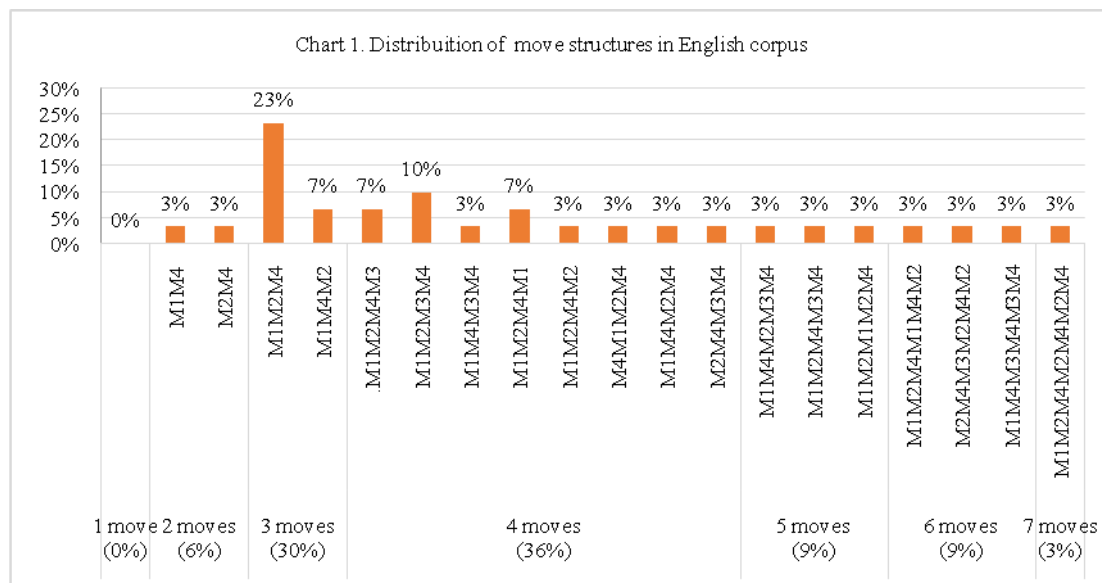
(translation:...Therefore, the market and the government are not only complementary, but also interdependent. They support and transform each other. Only by following this logic can we establish a flexible and current legal system of socialist market economy that fulfills its expectations.)

The results of this study are slightly different from Hatzitheodorou’s findings (2014) when she compared the move structures of abstracts in law journals and business journals. The moves that appear most often were 2a/Gap, 2b/Goal and 3a/Discussion of results (80% for all three) in her corpus of legal RA abstracts. But in the present study, the most frequent moves are M4S1/Results (100%), M1S1/Introduction (83.33%) and M2S2a/Purpose (73.33%). More interestingly, in Ghasempour and Farnia’s cross-linguistic study (2017), their results of English legal RA abstracts showed that Purpose (91.11%), Method (80.00%) and Conclusion (71.11%) were most frequent moves. The frequency of Method is a far cry from other studies including the present one. Maybe it is because the writing practices and requirements of different journals vary in the field of law or scholars engaging in different laws abide by different writing norms.

#### C. Move Structures

In order to further understand the move structures of the corpus, each abstract is analyzed, marked and described with move sequences; then those move sequences are collected and arranged by the computer. The results are listed as follows:





Several points can be made clear according to the above two charts: first, 23% of abstracts in English contain all of the four moves as proposed in the model (recurring structures included) but it is only 9% in Chinese abstracts. Thus the move structures of abstracts in English corpus, with more recurring move cycles in one abstract, are obviously more complicated than those in Chinese. Second, the most dominant in English corpus is the four-move structure, accounting for 36% of all cases while in Chinese corpus that is the three-move structure, comprising 40% of all cases. Third, the most frequent move structures in English corpus are the sequences M1-M2-M4 (23%) and M1-M2-M3-M4 (10%), and in Chinese corpus those are M1-M2-M4 (27%) and M1-M4 (13%). The dominance of the move structure M1-M2-M4 in both languages (though with different percentages) in this study share some common ground with Hyland's claim (2000) that humanities/social science writers shows a general preference for the I-P-Pr model whereas physicists and engineers tend to opt for the P-M-Pr pattern. Fourth, 84% of the abstracts in English corpus start with M1 and 65% in Chinese corpus start with it; the rest of the abstracts start with either M2 or M4 and no abstracts start with M3. This indicates that English writers feel more obliged to situate their discourse with an Introduction and writers of both languages may not regard the description of methodology as helpful or efficient in promoting their study. The last point worth noting is that one-move pattern is found in three Chinese abstracts, all of which consist of M4 (to be specific, M4S1S2), but no one-move pattern is found in English abstracts. However, move structures with more than four moves in English corpus take up about 21% while that number in Chinese is only 6%. This further shows that the abstracts in English tend to display more complicated and recurring move structures.

## V. CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the expanding research of genre study and EAP and fills the research gap as the study on English and Chinese legal RA abstracts has been quite rare so far. By analyzing the moves of legal RA abstracts in both

English and Chinese, this study proposed a move model based on which the comparative study is conducted. The findings show that apart from move 3 (Methodology), other moves are obligatory in both English and Chinese legal RA abstracts. Furthermore, while both English and Chinese legal RA abstracts attach great importance to reporting the major results of the study (M4S1) and projecting a specific disciplinary context in order to situate the study within it (M1S1), English abstracts tend to state explicitly the purposes (M2S2a) and Chinese abstracts show a preference for pointing out the “Gap” first. In addition, it is found that English legal RA abstracts are generally more complicated in move structures than Chinese ones, as the dominant move structure in English is four-move sequence and that in Chinese is three-move sequence.

This study provides important inspirations for scholars in the field of law, both English and Chinese, to help them understand better the generally writing practices in the two professional discourse communities thus promoting communication and exchanges. It also has pedagogical implications for teachers and students in ESP and EAP fields. English academic writing can be more explicitly and creatively taught to students who seek to engage in the international academic circle and vice versa. On the one hand, better awareness of RA abstracts as a “promotional” or “marketing” genre guide writers in producing effective academic discourses that follow certain norms with more smooth move signaling and research space creation, which is likely to increase their chances for publication and draw more attention from the academic discourse communities; on the other hand, familiarity with genre practices in the certain field facilitate readers’ understanding of RA abstracts and boost efficiency of reading.

There are also some limitations with respect to the present study. As the corpus comprises of only 60 abstracts altogether and are selected from six rather prestigious journals, the results may illustrate the best disciplinary writing practices in both English and Chinese discourse communities. A larger corpus from a wider selection of journals will provide a bigger picture for scholars both in genres and law. The findings of the study can also be taken a step further with interviews of legal scholars and other professional background research to explore the rationale behind those similarities and differences. Moreover, the exploration of other linguistic features of each move such as voice, tense, self-mentions and syntactic complexity is expected to expand the study.

#### APPENDIXES

##### 1. Moves in the selected research article abstracts (those in the brackets represent embedded moves):

No.	English abstracts	Chinese abstracts
1	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> (S <sub>2b</sub> )M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>3</sub> )S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> )S <sub>2</sub>
2	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
3	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2b</sub>
4	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> (M <sub>3</sub> )M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
5	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> )M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
6	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
7	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> (S <sub>2b</sub> )M <sub>3</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> M <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
8	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> (S <sub>2b</sub> )M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
9	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> )	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2b</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub>
10	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
11	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2b</sub> M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
12	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> )S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
13	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> )	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> (embedded)M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
14	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
15	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> S <sub>2b</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
16	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>3</sub> )M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> )S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
17	M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2b</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
18	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>3</sub> )M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> )
19	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2b</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> (M <sub>3</sub> )M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
20	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
21	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
22	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> (S <sub>2b</sub> )M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
23	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
24	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
25	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2b</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>3</sub> )S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
26	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub>	M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>
27	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>3</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
28	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>
29	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> SM <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> M <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2b</sub>
30	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2a</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub> (M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>2</sub> )S <sub>2</sub>	M <sub>1</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>2</sub> S <sub>1</sub> M <sub>4</sub> S <sub>1</sub>

## 2. The move structure model before and after the revision:

Before revision	After revision
Move 1: Background Step 1: Situating the study in the context Step 2: Referring to previous studies Step 3: Claiming significance of the study	Move 1: Introduction Step 1: Situating the study in the context Step 2: Referring to previous studies
Move 2: Gap-filling Step 1: Indicating the existing gap or problems in the field Step 2: Stating the purpose of the study	Move 2: Gap-filling Step 1: Indicating the existing gap or problems in the field Step 2a: Stating the purpose of the study Step 2b: Claiming significance of the study
Move 3: Methodology	Move 3: Methodology
Move 4: Results and Conclusion Step 1: Reporting the major results, findings, arguments or conclusions of the study Step 2: suggestions for further study	Move 4: Contribution Step 1: Reporting the major results, findings, arguments or conclusions of the study Step 2: Further implications, extensions or suggestions for further study

## 3. List of the selected legal RA abstracts:

English:

- Aaron Tang. Life After Janus. *Columbia Law Review*. 2019 (119): 677-761.
- Andrew Kent, Ethan J. Leib & Jed Handelsman Shugerman. Faithful Execution and Article II. *Harvard Law Review*. 2019 (132): 2111-2192.
- Andrew Verstein. The Jurisprudence of Mixed Motives. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2018 (127): 1106-1175.
- Barton Beebe & Jeanne C. Fromer. Are We Running out of Trademarks? An Empirical Study of Trademark Depletion and Congestion. *Harvard Law Review*. 2018 (131):943-1045.
- Brian D. Feinstein & Daniel J. Hemel. Partisan Balance with Bite. *Columbia Law Review*. 2018 (118): 9-82.
- Cass R. Sunstein & Adrian Vermeule. The Morality of Administrative Law. *Harvard Law Review*. 2018 (131): 1932-1978.
- Daniel J. Hemel & Lisa Larrimore Ouellette. Innovation Policy Pluralism. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2019 (128): 544-614.
- Deenis Chu. Broker-Dealers for Virtual Currency: Regulating Cryptocurrency Wallets and Exchanges. *Columbia Law Review*. 2018 (118): 2323-2360.
- Fiona Scott Morton & Hebrert Hovenkamp. Horizontal Shareholding and Antitrust Policy. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2018 (127): 2026-2047.
- Hebrert Hovenkamp & Carl Shapiro. Horizontal Mergers, Market Structure, and Burdens of Proof. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2018 (127): 1996-2025.
- Howard Shelanski. Antitrust and Deregulation. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2018 (127): 1922-1960.
- Jennifer Nou & Edward H. Stiglitz. Regulatory Bundling. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2019 (128): 1174-1245.
- Joseph Blocher. Free Speech and Justified True Belief. *Harvard Law Review*. 2019 (133):440-496.
- Joseph Landau. Process Scrutiny: Motivational Inquiry and Constitutional Rights. *Columbia Law Review*. 2019 (119): 2147-2204
- Joseph P. Fishman. Music as a Matter of Law. *Harvard Law Review*. 2018 (131): 1863-1923.
- Kate Klonick. The New Governors: The People, Rules, and Processes Governing Online Speech. *Harvard Law Review*. 2018 (131): 1598-1670.
- Lina M. Khan & David E. Pozen. A Skeptical View of Information Fiduciaries. *Harvard Law Review*. 2019 (133): 498-540.
- Lina M. Khan. The Separation of Platforms and Commerce. *Columbia Law Review*. 2019 (119):973-1098.
- Lucian Bebchuk & Scott Hirst. Index Funds and the Future of Corporate Governance: Theory, Evidence, and Policy. *Columbia Law Review*. 2019 (119): 2029-2146.
- Luke Ali Budiardjo. The Effect of Arbitration Agreements on the America Invents Act's Inter Partes Review Procedure. *Columbia Law Review*. 2018 (118): 83-126.
- Matteo Godi. Beyond Nudging: Debiasing Consumers Through Mixed Framing. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2019 (128): 2034-2086.
- Melissa J. Durkee. International Lobbying Law. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2018 (127): 1742-1826.
- Natasha Sarin. Making Consumer Finance Work. *Columbia Law Review*. 2019 (119): 1519-1596.
- Nick Werle. Prosecuting Corporate Crime when Firms Are Too Big to Jail: Investigation, Deterrence, and Judicial Review. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2019 (128):1366-1438.
- Robin Bradley Kar & Margaret Jane Radin. Psuedo-Contract and Shared Meaning Analysis. *Harvard Law Review*. 2019 (132): 1138-1219.
- Saikrishna Bangalore Prakash. Of Synchronicity and Supreme Law. *Harvard Law Review*. 2019 (132): 1221-1299.
- Shaanan Cohnney, David Hoffman, Jeremy Sklaroff & David Wishnick. Coin-Operated Capitalism. *Columbia Law Review*. 2019 (119): 591-676.
- Shelley Welton. Electricity Market and the Social Project of Decarbonization. *Columbia Law Review*. 2018 (118):1067-1138.
- Steven C. Salop. Invigorating Vertical Merger Enforcement. *The Yale Law Journal*. 2018 (127): 1962-1994.
- Suresh Naidu, Eric A. Posner & Glen Weyl. Antitrust Remedies for Labor Market Power. *Harvard Law Review*. 2018 (132): 549-601.
- Chinese:
- 陈小君. 宅基地使用权的制度困局与破解之维[J].法学研究, 2019(3): 48-72.
- 冯彦君. 劳动法上“合理”的多重意蕴及其应用[J]. 中国法学, 2018(5): 181-197.
- 高富平. 个人信息保护: 从个人控制到社会控制[J].法学研究, 2018(3): 84-101.
- 侯利阳. 市场与政府关系的法学解构[J]. 中国法学, 2019(1): 186-203.
- 蒋舸. 《反不正当竞争法》网络条款的反思与解释——以类型化原理为中心[J]. 中外法学, 2019(1): 180-202.
- 姜涛. 网络型诈骗罪的拟制处分行为[J]. 中外法学, 2019(3): 692-712.
- 李昊,王文娜. 婚姻缔结行为的效力瑕疵——兼评民法典婚姻家庭编草案的相关规定[J].法学研究, 2019(4): 102-118.

- 黎四奇. 二维码扫码支付法律问题解构[J]. 中国法学, 2018(3): 110-131.
- 刘冰. 论我国破产制度的构建[J]. 中国法学, 2019(4): 223-243.
- 刘征峰. 家庭法中的类型法定原则——基于规范与生活事实的分离和整合视角[J]. 中外法学, 2018(2): 472-492.
- 刘庄. 影子银行的第三类风险[J]. 中外法学, 2018(1): 194-207.
- 陆青. 离婚协议中的“赠与子女财产”条款研究[J]. 法学研究, 2018(1): 87-105.
- 吕忠梅. 民法典“绿色化”与环境法典的调适[J]. 中外法学, 2018(4): 862-882.
- 彭鐔. 公共企事业单位信息公开: 现实、理想与路径[J]. 中国法学, 2018(6): 89-108.
- 彭岳. 分享经济规制现状及方法改进[J]. 中外法学, 2018(3): 763-781.
- 彭岳. 一致性解释原则在国际贸易行政案件中的适用[J]. 法学研究, 2019(1): 193-208.
- 阮开欣. 涉外知识产权归属的法律适用[J]. 法学研究, 2019(5): 191-208.
- 邵六益. 审委会与合议庭: 司法判决中的隐匿对话[J]. 中外法学, 2019(3): 713-738.
- 王道. 发电子商务平台经营者安保责任研究[J]. 中国法学, 2019(6): 282-300.
- 王莹. 诈骗罪重构: 交易信息操纵理论之提倡[J]. 中国法学, 2019(3): 240-260.
- 徐汉明. 我国网络法治的经验与启示[J]. 中国法学, 2018(3): 51-70.
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**Jing Duan** was born in Chongqing, China in 1989. She received her master degree in English linguistics from Southwest University, China in 2013.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University of Political Science and Law, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include functional linguistics, genre analysis, ESP, EAP and legal translation. Her publications include:

Translated book: *Big Law* (Chinese version), Beijing: Law Press China, 2017.

Research paper: *A Comparative Study of Metadiscoursal Features in English Research Articles Abstracts in Hard Disciplines*. Second author. *Applied Research on English Language*. 2018 (Volume 7).

**Jing Wei** was born in Chongqing, China in 1979. She received her PH.D. degree in applied linguistics from Southwest University, China in 2014.

She is currently an associate professor in the College of International Studies, Southwest University, Chongqing, China. Her research interests include EFL writing, Functional Linguistics and English for academic purposes. She has published several research papers including: *Thematic choice in Chinese college students' English essays*. *English for Specific Purposes*. Volume 41, Issue 1, 2016; *Corpus-based research on topical Theme choices in Chinese and Swedish English learners' English writings*. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Volume 3, Issue 12, 2013.



# Assessment of ITP Learners' English: A Needs Analysis

Nguyen Minh Nhut

The International Collaboration and Project Promotion Department, Tra Vinh University, Tra Vinh province, Vietnam

**Abstract**—This study is to seek out learners' needs of International Training Program (ITP) English course (batch 58) at the English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU) in India. Thirty participants involved in the survey come from nine different countries. The questionnaire-based survey is designed with a focus on two main categories: Target situation analysis (TSA) and Present situation analysis (PSA), which is based on the adaptation of the theoretical frameworks of Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) and of Hutchinson and Waters (1987). The result of TSA has shown that Office job and Social communication are learners' main purposes for this English course. Two most important elements that the learners expect to develop from this course are oral communication and listening skills, and linguistic knowledge of grammar and pronunciation. Meanwhile, the finding of PSA has indicated vocabulary as their most difficult element. The majority of learners perceive that they are at the third current level of English proficiency, whereas speaking skills are most frequently used in the workplace. Finally, this study has indicated the proportional relation of the elements of PSA to those of TSA. The overall finding contributes to the design for a proper English specific course for learners' needs in the future.

**Index Terms**—learners' needs, present situation analysis, target situation analysis, English course, ITP

## I. INTRODUCTION

The demand of English for the pursuit to a specific purpose is increasingly high. For example, students who wish to undertake their overseas study have to meet a certain standard of English proficiency in academic purpose, or those who wish to work in a company need English for business purpose in the workplace. Therefore, while the demand of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is increasing and the proficiency of English to meet an individual's purpose is necessary in the workplace, educational settings and so forth, an assessment of learners' need is regarded as a necessary initial step towards a proper ESP course. Despite this crucial part, an assessment of learners' actual needs in connection with their current backgrounds is a new aspect at the English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU) in India where it hosts international students to join short English courses. Therefore, a research study on needs analysis to these subjects at EFLU is worth doing.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which was developed in the 1960's, has aroused scholars' interests over the past years. Hutchinson and Waters indicate three reasons for the emergence of ESP, which originated from the demand for English as an international language in the economic settings. For the demand of an English course, the study of linguistics at grammatical level in connection with reality has emerged. The author's core idea is that the features that English are used in a particular situation should be included as part of the course design for learners. This has brought English into different purposes (Swales, 1985) in which learners' need plays a key role and the educational psychology is one of the main factors (Rodgers, 1969). This whole development forms ESP.

There are different stages associated with the development of ESP. In the 1960's, register analysis was focused in order to identify the characteristics of grammar and vocabulary, on which it was then developed into teaching materials. However, the second stage looked at its development in the contact of discourse analysis in order to gain insight into a specialised field. If the first two stages examined the ESP development at language level, the third stage found out the reason that learners learn, which led to a closer examination about target needs as their main purpose. In the 1980's, the fourth stage drove to a higher level; that was the application of skills and strategies of learners into language use, which led to the development of materials in order to meet this demand. However, a learning-centred approach in the fifth stage was broader as it emphasised the process of language learning. In this final stage, an ESP course is designed towards meeting learners' needs. In order to reach this aim, the important elements of language description, learning models and needs analysis need to be taken into consideration as they constitute an approach to course design. This is as important as how a course is developed; that is, it examines syllabus and material designs including theories of learning in relation to the process of course and learner evaluation. The final point in the learning-centred approach to ESP is the role of teachers who get involved in all factors of course design and have to adapt to a new environment with a group of learners from diversified backgrounds.

During the course of development, the aspect of needs analysis in ESP is one of the central points for discussion. In fact, on the theoretical backgrounds of ESP, numerous studies have been investigated on different aspects of ESP that emphasize the importance of relating ESP course design to learners' current needs. Despite of their contributions to ESP

field, some gaps need to be filled. Indeed, although many research studies have indicated the importance of learners' goal and examined their present needs for a proper course design, little empirical research has shown evidence of the proportional relation between the elements of Present Situation and those of Target Situation in order to prove that such a careful examination will drive an ESP course to be designed more properly. Furthermore, in Indian context, little research on ESP has been found in an international learning perspective; that is, learners of English who come from diversified backgrounds. Therefore, this research aims to identify the proportional correlation between the elements in Present Situation and in Target Situation. This study expects to provide future researchers with a reference of data source for an examination of a proper ESP course design.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Definitions and Classifications

Scholars have defined ESP (English for Specific Purposes) in different ways. Strevens (1988) examines ESP on its characteristics, i.e. proper design in order to meet learners' specific need including proper content to a particular activity and its appropriate language at different aspects, and in contrast with General English. According to Robinson (1991), ESP is defined on two key criteria and a number of characteristics. The former characterizes goal-directed that ESP courses are developed from a needs analysis, whereas the latter considers the element of time bound, in which activities and goal have to be attained with a specific period of time. Moreover, Crocker (1981) looks at ESP course as a means that a learner uses for their future career. In order to make this point clear, the author compares general English courses with ESP courses, in which the former focuses on language proficiency as the main goal while the latter has no ends but rather a medium or an approach to learning teaching.

ESP is classified by category. According to Robinson (1991), ESP consists of two branches, i.e. English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes or English for Educational Purposes (EAP/EEP). However, these two branches are then divided into smaller branches by experience rather than by profession. In a different way of classification, ESP consists of two main branches by professional area: EAP and EOP; however, each of which is then divided into smaller branches (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998).

### B. Needs Analysis

Different concepts of needs and needs analysis are brought into discussion in ESP field. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) examine needs under necessities, wants and lacks; whereas it is described as objective and subjective, target situation/goal-oriented and learning, process-oriented and product-oriented (Brindley, 1989); perceived and felt (Berwick, 1989). Robinson (1991) states that learners' needs will be affected by analysis team, which means that needs will possibly be categorised into different sets based on different viewpoints of the analysts. Regarding needs analysis, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) conclude all these approaches including target situation analysis and present situation analysis; objective needs, subjective needs and learning needs; wants, means and lacks; and linguistic analysis.

Needs analysis is also examined in relation to syllabus. According to Hawkey (1980), needs analysis is the foundation for a course design, which is similar to that by McDonough (1984). This means that the information about the learners' need will help create a profile that consists of crucial elements such as objectives of their language needs. Similarly, Schutz and Derwing (1981) place the importance of learners' goal against a program, which is further explained that if there is a close examination of learners' goal, this will help include it as a learning objective into the teaching program. Furthermore, a study by Sasikala (2012) indicates that some of the students in ESP course felt dissatisfied with the ESP course they were taking since their learning needs were not met.

Moreover, Nunan (1988) establishes strong connection between the syllabus of learners and teachers; that is, both should involve in information exchange. This process is important because the goal of learners may not align with that of the teachers as Riddell (1991) states "...the course designer becomes equipped to match up the content of the program with the requirements of the student." Similarly, Crocker (1981) explains that the learning objectives should be involved in a process of negotiation between teachers and learners. This stresses the central importance of learners during the learning process, in which teachers take role as a facilitator rather than directly transmitting knowledge to learners. One more important point that Swales (1980) adds is to incorporate the learners' cultural backgrounds and habits into the program in order to maximize the learning results and arouse learners' interests.

With regard to ESP, some recent research studies have been investigated. Francisco (2018) indicates the effectiveness of designing a lesson plan for engineering English course by applying content and language integrated learning approach as part of the syllabi of ESP courses in bilingual context. Erandi Kithulgoda et al. (2020) examine the development of materials for a business English course, in which it focuses on lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features. The result suggests an effective design of the materials in L2 classroom. In Indian context, a few research studies on ESP have been investigated. Mortaza (2012) stresses the importance of the crucial factors such as learner, setting, means and situation to localizing ESP materials design; however, it does not deal with statistical analysis of the elements and their relations in learners' specific present situation and target situation. From another angle of ESP, Smrutisikta Mishra (2014) indicates that teacher is an important factor in ESP course that requires a high competence in English language and expertise. Another study by Clement and Murugavel (2015) identifies a big gap between

professors' competence in teaching English class of engineering and the need of their professional development. This study focuses more on teachers' than on learners' need. Similarly, Biswanandan Dash (2015) points out that students' competency should be needs-oriented with a further suggestion on a design of an ESP-based course.

Although a review of literature has indicated that the studies have dealt with ESP issues, they do not truly touch on correlation between the elements of Target Situation and of Present Situation. Therefore, this research study attempts to fill this gap by identifying to what extent the elements of Present Situation Analysis (PSA) and of Target Situation Analysis (TSA) has proportional relation. To address this issue, the study applies TSA and PSA as two main approaches for needs analysis. By doing this, this study focuses on making assessment of learners' present situation, expectation and goal of an International Training Program (ITP) English course. In order to reach this objective, the study attempted to address three questions:

(1) What is the most important element of Target Situation that the learners are expecting to improve from the ITP course?

(2) What is the most difficult problem of Present Situation that the learners are facing?

(3) To what extent are the elements of Present Situation proportionally congruent with those of Target Situation?

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. Participants

This study was conducted through a questionnaire survey on 30 International Training Program (ITP) learners who took English course-batch 58 at the English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU) in India. They obtained qualifications of diploma, bachelor's and master's degrees and gained experience in English learning with various years from 2 to 22 years and above.

The participants' age ranged from 25-38 and came from different countries (Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Niger, Coast D'Ivoire, Malaysia, Palestine, Vietnam, Afghanistan and Myanmar). The number of male and female participants in this survey is 17 and 13, respectively. However, the consideration of gender element is random as it was assumed not a decisive factor to the study result, and the participants were selected on the objective basis of the available number in ITP English course. They were all officials in their home countries and were taking different job positions including English teacher, Air traffic controller, Diplomat, Accountant, Official, Assoc. Director and Translator.

The technique of random sampling was applied in the study as the participants joined the same ITP English course and came from diversified backgrounds.

#### B. Instrument

Overall, the questionnaire was designed on the adaptation of the theoretical frameworks that consisted of learners' present situation and target situation by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), and target needs and learning needs by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). On this basis, twelve questions were written with two open questions and ten closed questions of various types including checklist, rating scale and ranking order. The questionnaire was divided into three main parts. Part 1 was to find out the learners' personal and professional backgrounds. Part 2 was designed for Present Situation Analysis (PSA). To be more specific, a present situation assessment of learners' English comprised the elements: English background, present level of English, English skills mostly used in the workplace, skills-based tasks performed in the workplace, and learners' difficulties in English. The last part dealt with Target Situation Analysis (TSA) that focused on three main points. The first point was to understand the main purpose and the expectation of the learners from this International Training Program (ITP) English course. The second point sought out the tasks and activities that they wish to do in such this English course and the third point was the time bound related to their convenience to take part in the course.

Prior to the survey, the questionnaire was sent to the learners of ESP course in order to check its clarification including language use. More importantly, the relevance of the questionnaire contents was examined and suggested for improvement by an ESP expert before the official survey was conducted.

This study was undertaken on the basis of the participants' consensus. Prior to the survey, a clear guidance was provided to the participants including the purpose and their voluntary rights to this research study. The questionnaire content was understandable to the participants of various diversified backgrounds. The participants completed the survey on a given time. The data was then collected, processed and analyzed on the statistical software system.

The questionnaire is also SPSS-based checked for its reliability. With regard to the participants' difficulties in English, the indicator of Cronbach Alpha is 0.933 and all the indicators of the corrected Item-Total correlation of five items are  $\geq 0.3$ , which shows the reliability of these variables in this category. For the category of the main purpose of learners' English improvement, Cronbach's Alpha is 0.867 and all the six items are  $\geq 0.3$ . The index of Cronbach's Alpha is 0.880 for the category of learners' expectation by skill and all the observed variables are higher than  $\geq 0.3$ . Similarly, Cronbach's Alpha reaches 0.785 in the category of learners' expectation by linguistic and all the items is  $\geq 0.3$ . Therefore, the results ensure the reliability of the questionnaire questions.

However, one challenge during the process of data collection was that some expected participants refused to involve in the study. Some reasons were due to their unpreparedness for both the availability of time and interest. In order to



deal with this problem, the questionnaire was then given to other participants as planned; therefore, this problem did not basically affect the study process.

#### IV. RESULTS

The findings of the assessment of participants' needs in English are discussed by each category.

##### A. Present Situation Analysis

TABLE 1.  
CURRENT LEVEL OF ENGLISH PERCEIVED BY LEARNERS AND SKILLS  
MOST FREQUENTLY USED IN THE WORKPLACE

Current level of English (%) From 5 to 1 (From least to most proficiency)					Skills	Most frequently used in workplace (%) From 1 to 4 (From most priority to least priority)			
5	4	3	2	1		1	2	3	4
11	22	56	11	0	Listening	0	50	25	25
11	33	45	11	0	Writing	50	25	12.5	12.5
22	22	45	11	0	Reading	25	25	25	25
33	33	12	22	0	Speaking	50	0	12.5	37.5

As can be seen in Table 1, most of the learners perceived that they were at the 3<sup>rd</sup> current level of English proficiency. Whereas speaking and writing skills were their priority in the workplace with equal number of 50%, reading skills were also necessary for their jobs (25%). However, listening skills was least required by the participants.

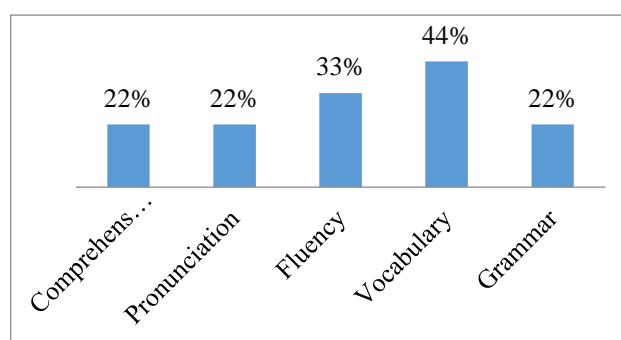


Figure 1. Learners' Difficulties in English

With regard to their difficulties in English as in Figure 1, vocabulary was the biggest barrier to the learners (44%) along with fluency (33%), whereas three elements (comprehension, pronunciation and grammar) were equal with 22%.

##### B. Target Situation Analysis

TABLE 2.  
THE MAIN PURPOSE OF LEARNERS' ENGLISH IMPROVEMENT (N=30)

Purpose	Percentage (%)
Office job	29
Social communication	23
Research	18
Teaching	18
Translation	6
Higher education	6

Overall, among all the learners in the survey, the most important purpose was to improve English for Office job with the highest number of 29%, which was followed by Social communication (23%). While Research and Teaching shared the equal figure (18%), the elements of Translation and Higher education did not receive much of their concern with the lowest percentages (6%).

TABLE 3.  
LEARNERS' EXPECTATION BY SKILL (N=30)

Expectation by skill	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Oral Communication	.33	.479	.088
Listening	.23	.430	.079
Written Communication	.17	.379	.069
Reading	.17	.379	.069
Translation skills	.10	.305	.056

TABLE 4.  
LEARNERS' EXPECTATION BY LINGUISTIC (N=30)

Expectation by linguistic	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocabulary	.30	.466	.085
Pronunciation	.27	.450	.082
Grammar	.27	.450	.082
Spelling	.17	.379	.069

In Table 3, Oral communication (mean=0.33) received the highest expectation about English improvement among the learners, followed by listening with a fairly high figure (mean=0.23). Written communication and Reading skills were less required with the equal figure (mean=0.17) and the least expectation about this course was Translation skills (mean=0.10).

With regard to linguistic elements illustrated in Table 4, the learners expected to increase vocabulary (mean=0.30), and grammar and pronunciation was in their second list of expectation (mean=0.27). However, they did not pay much attention to Spelling element that showed the lowest mean. The comparative figures in table 3 and 4 also indicated a close correlation between oral communication and vocabulary; that is, vocabulary is the most significant element that the learners need for oral communication.

Apart from the current situation, main purpose and expectation, three more elements that were included in this questionnaire were classroom tasks, activities and time. In particular, Listening and Fluency in speech were the most two important things that the learners wish to include in class. While Group work is preferred by the majority of the learners during the learning class hours, the remaining learners opted for Topic presentation, Play role and free discussions. Regarding Time, the most convenient time that the learners could take part in the class was morning and afternoon on weekdays while none of them was free in the evening or weekends.

Some learners also provided some additional information in the opened questions. For instance, most learners pointed out English activities that they usually do in free time such as listening to music, audio/video, watching English movies, speaking English and reading English books. Meanwhile, a few learners also left some comments, e.g. the selection of students for an ITP course should emphasize more on their actual need instead of documentational need.

## V. DISCUSSION

The research study has reached its objectives of the learners' needs in two aspects of Target situation and Present situation. Regarding learners' need, Oral communication is the most important skills for their improvement. This result is consistent with Abdelgawad et al.'s (2012) study that the students expect to improve their speaking skills among the four skills. Their aim of the improvement in oral communication is proportional to their expectation. To be specific, Fluency in speech should be an important element in class. The expectation for this skill is in line with the improvement in vocabulary which is the most expected linguistic aspect, so that they will be able to use it for oral communication in reality. This is again consistent with Biswanandan's (2015) study that language activities should focus on lexicon and pronunciation.

Their expectation is also in connection with the necessity of English use when vocabulary is the biggest challenge in their present situation. Moreover, the possibility that the learners' expectation for their main purpose and improvement in skills and linguistic features is associated with their personal and professional backgrounds. This result supports the conclusion by Alderson and Urquhart (1983) that further research should be carried out in order to get more in-depth understanding about the correlation between linguistic proficiency and other factors, especially background knowledge.

As mentioned, although they were taking different job positions, most of which require good command of social communication such as diplomat and English teachers, and many learners were taking office jobs such as accountant and official. This result is consistent with study by Mohamed Benhima et al. (2012), which indicated that communication with other people is the top factor with the highest percentage (63.5%).

With regard to classroom activities, the learners expect to include fluency and listening in class. This strengthens the result of PSA that fluency is their weakness (which ranks second as their learner's difficulties) and in TSA that oral communication and listening skills are put in their first and second priority for their expectation. From the PSA and TSA, it is clearly seen that despite their different backgrounds, they mostly encounter the same problems and meet the same purpose for their plan of English study. This increases the data reliability and validity that the elements of vocabulary and oral communication are the most prominent and urgent as their expectation for an ESP course. This finding is supported by Alderson and Urquhart's (1985) conclusion that there is an interaction between knowledge backgrounds and linguistic proficiency.

Moreover, the participants from the diversified cultural backgrounds contribute to the significance of designing an ESP course in the era of global education. Indeed, Swales (1980) mentions that the aspects of culture and habits of learners play important role in ESP program.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This study has answered the three questions through the analysis of the learners' present situation and target situation. From PSA, the study has identified the learners' difficulties in English learning, their current level of English

proficiency and the role of English in their workplace; meanwhile, TSA has indicated their main purpose and expectation from this ITP English course. Moreover, it shows proportional relation of the elements in learners' present situation to those in their target situation about their aim and expectation. Furthermore, it has evaluated the learners' needs in English at three important aspects, i.e. necessities, wants, and lacks on the basis of two main categories of present situation analysis and target situation analysis. Finally, this study has depicted a more overview picture of learners' needs that hopes to contribute as theoretical reference source to developing an English specific course based on their needs in a next study. From the overall analysis of all the elements of learners' needs, the scope of this study has developed an ESP course as a future plan (as illustrated in the annex).

Nevertheless, this research study still leaves some limitations. First, the methodological approach to this research is questionnaire as the main tool for the understanding of learners' perception about language learning and teaching. Therefore, future research should apply another methodology in order to elicit more data on learners' need. Another challenge is with the number. For each batch, the number of learners who join ITP course is limited as it is allocated against the enrolment regulation of the university and their home institutions. This resulted in the small-sized sample which was taken in this survey. Therefore, more studies on ITP learners of next consecutive batches could be conducted in order to get more data for analysis. Finally, time is another challenging factor. Since each batch of ITP learners lasts only approximately three months, this survey on each participant has taken their available time into consideration. Therefore, the questionnaire was used as the main tool in my research in order to ensure sufficient time for the involvement of the participants.

#### APPENDIX. ENGLISH SPECIFIC COURSE DESIGN PLAN

English course plan (as per need)	Class activities	Time
<b>ORAL COMMUNICATION</b> - Pronunciation - Fluency in speech - Speaking with grammatical correctness - Increase vocabulary	- Group work - Topic presentation - Play role - Discussion	Weekdays afternoon
<b>LISTENING</b> - Understanding new vocabulary, grammar - Join seminar/conference - Video/audio	- Group work - Topic presentation - Play role - Discussion	Weekdays morning

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**Nguyen Minh Nhut** is a staff member and a lecturer at Tra Vinh University, Vietnam. In 2016-2018, the author did master's degree in India, in which he conducted a research on ESP field. He holds a Master's degree in Linguistics. Email address: [nguyenminhnhut74@gmail.com](mailto:nguyenminhnhut74@gmail.com) or [nguyenminhnhut74@tvu.edu.vn](mailto:nguyenminhnhut74@tvu.edu.vn)

# A Jurilinguistic Analysis of Proverbs as a Concept of Justice Among the Yoruba

Oyedokun-Alli, Wasiu Ademola

Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria

**Abstract**—Polemical surveys of the rich cultural heritage of the peoples of Africa, especially before their contact, and eventual subjugation to the western imperialists have continued to reverberate across Africa and beyond. The surveys bemoan the abysmal disconnect between the African societies and their indigenous socio-cultural and institutional values. It has been pointed out, more than three decades ago, by Nkosi (1981) that indigenous languages formed part of a living organism forever changing to accommodate concepts and ideas which, over time, became the common heritage of all those who speak the same language. This paper examines the jurisprudential concept of justice among the Yoruba of South West Nigeria, with examples drawn from Yoruba proverbs. What linguistic instruments were available to canonize the justice systems and how were they deployed? The plethora of examples, it is found, have become etched on people's consciousness and sensibilities, such that they become canonized into unwritten laws in many of the societies. In strict consideration of jurisprudence as the science of law, the study investigates how Yoruba proverbs constitute a corpus of linguistic materials used in informal administration of law among the Yoruba. Although lacking established benchmarks, many of the proverbs have become the codes in the process of administration of justice, which in many cases is conciliatory and not adversarial. In effect, therefore, the study is a contribution to the growing research on African linguistics and jurisprudential analysis. This viewpoint is ensconced in a metaproverb: "a re ma ja kan o si". (Disagreements are inevitable amongst folks).

**Index Terms**—jurilinguistic/jurisprudence, proverbs, canonized, justice, Yoruba

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language as a social phenomenon is closely tied up with the social structure and value systems of a society, Trudgil (2009). This is further echoed by Nkosi (1981) who asserts that language is a *living organism* forever changing to accommodate concepts and ideas, which in time, "becomes the common heritage of all those who grow up speaking the same language whatever their class or educational background. Herbert (2011), citing Jacobson's (2009), on functions of language, identified the following as ideational functions of language:

- (i) Referential
- (ii) Poetic
- (iii) Emotive
- (iv) Conative
- (v) Phatic, and
- (vi) Metalingual

Of all these, the most relevant to this study is the Referential function as it corresponds to the factor of context and describes a situation, object or mental state. According to Herbert (2011), under this, the "truth-value is identical in both the real and assumptive universe". Language, in this context, consists of both the definite descriptions and the deictic words.

A stringent appraisal of the modern day administration of justice, especially in Africa, would explicitly show a disconnection between the tradition, culture and norms of the people and the colonial – imposed value systems. The indigenous society's ultimate acceptance of its subjugation to the foreign laws and values has created serious dislocation and disorientation in the indigenous value systems in modern day Africa. And this goes to demonstrate glaring inconsistencies and lack of psychological harmony between the people and the societal values.

In what seems to be the re-affirmation of and protestation against the relegation of African values, identity, and "ancestral achievements", Odiowo (1999) examines the term "negritude" and does an extrapolation of negritude as an ideology. He contends that negritude is more than the praise-singing of African culture; that it is "indeed a form of protest, a protest against repression, destruction of native culture and psyche and the imposition of Western Culture created and nurtured by the French under the umbrella of assimilation", (Odiowo 1999, p.78). African culture is expressed in its arts and crafts, folklore and religion, clothing, cuisine, music and languages, Greenberg (1966). It is also to be noted that expression of culture are abound within Africa, with large amounts of cultural diversity being found not only across different countries but also within single countries. What is certain is that even though African cultures are widely diverse, they are, upon close scrutiny, seen to have striking similarities. This is mostly notable in the morals they uphold, the veneration of the aged and rulers. In the same vein, Karenga (2000) gives a succinct description of the richness of the African culture and civilization:

our culture provides us with an ethos we must honor in both thought and practice. By ethos, we mean a people's self understanding as well as its self-presentation in the world through its thoughts and practice in the other...areas of culture. For culture is here defined as the totality of thought and practice by which a people creates itself, celebrates, sustains and develops itself and introduces itself to history and humanity, (Karenga, 2000, p.45).

Despite the claim to the contrary, especially by neo-colonialists, the African Societies were well organized into empires and municipalities with indigenous systems of control and administration. To the sociologists and anthropologists, law is a veritable means of social control; Macionis (2000), Miller (2008), Haralambos, Holborn, Chapman and Moore (2013). From the outset, it should be pointed out that all societies are crime-prone, and the basis for the enactment of laws and observance of norms are forms of social control. Macionis (2000), for instance, defines crime as "the violation of criminal laws enacted by a locality, state or the federal government". By way of extenuation, he identifies two distinct elements of a crime: "an act (or in some cases, the failure to do what the law requires) and criminal intent (in legal terminology, means *mens rea*, or guilty mind). He argues further that "intent is a matter of degree, ranging from willful conduct or to negligence. Someone who is negligent does not set out deliberately to hurt anyone but acts (or fails to act) in such a way that harm results", (Macionis, 2000, p. 144).

This jurisprudential analysis is also purveyed in the account of Miller (2008) who identifies two major instruments of social control: norms and law. He states that a norm is "an accepted standard for how people should behave that is usually unwritten and learned unconsciously through socialization". One cannot but be stuck by the appropriateness of this conceptual clarification to the discourse on social control in traditional societies. The examples cited by Miller aptly mirror the concept of justice among the Yoruba. He argues that norms include the expectation that children should follow their parent's advice and that people on queue should be orderly. The enforcement of norms tends to be informed but in traditional societies, the fear of such informal sanctions could be very effective. More often than not, instant judgment was meted on offenders in form of death, banishment or excommunication.

Law, on the other hand, is more formal and binding rule "created through custom or official enactment that defines correct behavior and the punishment for misbehavior", (Miller 2008, P.456). While Miller enthuses that religion provides legitimacy for law, it is expedient to point at the synecdochic interrelationship between law and morality on the one hand and justice and religion on the other. Elegido (2004) agrees that if a law clashes with ideas "which are vigorously held in the community there is a strong likelihood that the law will be ignored or even positively boycotted".

Writers of differing persuasions have spelt out the distinction between morality and law. In modern legal systems, the two are separate entities but under the indigenous African societies, morality formed an integral part of the norms observed by the people. It is instructive to note that Elegido (2004) toes a startlingly different path in drawing the nexus between law and morality. He contends that it is much more exact "to view law and morality as complementary systems". The import of his argument is premised on what he directs the jurists to do: approach the question (of the complementary nature of law and morality) from the sides of law and morality simultaneously. He states further:

If we were to look at the law in isolation from these basic moral norms which underpin it, it would appear to us as a mere system of state control which provides for punishment in certain events. On this basis, the rational attitude towards the law would be that of the "bad man" of Justice Holmes who obeys it only when he calculates that he cannot "get away with it", (Elegido 2004, p.358)

His argument is further ensconced in the existence, in *pari material*, of the following norms, given a scenario that every man is requested to contribute to the general needs of the community and to sustain its needy members.

- a) A moral (norm) which establishes a general duty to contribute to the community.
- b) A (moral) norm which prescribes that laws which "determine" (or specify) the requirements of general moral norms like (a) are also morally binding, and
- c) One or more (legal) norms which prescribe in detail the criteria according to which individuals must be assessed to tax, Elegido (2004 : 35a). The inference from this is that the general moral obligation of a certain individual's contribution "can only become fully 'determinate' through the operation of tax laws which specify in detail the criteria according to the tax liability of each individual is to be computed.

This paper is a modest attempt at exploration of the traditional concept of justice – the vanishing past- among the Yoruba of South Western part of Nigeria. Of course, this is not just a reconstruct of identity for its own sake, but an extrapolation of a continuous and consolidated tradition to ease the lacuna engendered by the disconnection between the indigenous cultures and the modern legal systems in contemporary societies.

## II. PROVERBS

The word "proverb" is derived from the Latin word '*Proverbium*' and, according to the Cambridge Advanced Dictionary of the English language, it is defined as "a simple and concrete saying, popularly known and repeated, that expresses a truth based on common sense or experience". In their attempt at distinguishing between proverbs, idioms or clichés, Zolfaghari and Ameri (2012) contend that a proverb is a short sentence, which is well-known and at times rhythmic, including advice, sage theories and ethnic experiences, comprising simile, metaphor and irony which is well-

known among people for its fluent wording, clarity of expression, simplicity, expansiveness or generality and is used either with or without change”, (Zolfaghari and Ameri 2012, P.36).

Notwithstanding the “multidimensional approaches and varied perspectives” of the studies of proverbs, it is generally agreed that the studies “cut across disciplines such as literature, history, anthropology and linguistics, Odebunmi, Oloyede, and Adetunji (2001), citing Barnes (1994), Mieder (1987), Alster (1993) and Yusuff (2001). For example, Mieder (1987) asserts that a proverb is a short, generally-known “sentence of the folk” (anthropological), while Zolfaghari and Ameri (2012) perceive it as “rhythmic” (linguistic) and comprising simile, metaphor and irony (literature). What is basic in all this is that in paremiology, proverbs are a common phenomenon in all human languages, Ogunjimi and Na’Allah (2005), Adedimeji and Alabi (2011), and Irele (1990).

It should be pointed out that there are widespread disputations as to the utilitarian use of proverbs, with regard to meaning signification. It is commonplace to ascribe the following features to proverbs:

- a short, pithy saying;
- generally known and in use by people of a given community;
- stating or expressing a general truth;
- the truth is based on common sense or experience;
- it is in fixed and memorable form;
- it is handed from generation to generation.

From a linguistic and scholarly searchlight on its sources, interpretation, features, spread and use, it is evident that proverbs, generally, are culture-specific. By this is meant that the structure of a proverb derives mainly from the folk lore of the particular society even though some proverbs may express a universal truth. Whatever constitutes the cultural erudition of a given people may be found to be diametrically opposed in interpretation and acceptable in another society. Even in the same language, there exist counter or “antonymous” proverbs! While the English would say that “one should look before one leaps”, the same English warns that “he who hesitates is lost”.

Thus, in his *Proverbs and Linguistic Meta-criticism: Towards a Re-Reading of Proverbs as Narrative Sublimation in Achebe’s Things Fall Apart*”, Fashina (2009) laments that a great percentage of African proverbs cannot convey effective meaning and sense if translated into a European language. This is because proverbs carry a density of cultural signification system that can be meaningful only within the context of a shared lexico-semantic and contextual field. Even when there are similar forms and identical components between an African proverb and an English one, the contrastive range of cultural, contextual and lexico-semantic field will direct them toward adjacent meanings.

However, this viewpoint seems oblivious of the fact that in the concept of ‘linguistic universals’ there exist ‘tendencies – “statements that may not be true for all languages”, as opposed to “absolute universals”. Even though among the lists of cultural universals is translatability of language, it does not imply, by any known standard, that there exist word-for-word meaning signification in translating one language into another. As a matter of fact, Nkosi (1981) has raised a caveat against such task of discreet application of the “exegetic method” of translation. Proverbs, for instance, are heavily steeped in the tradition of a people. So, how profitable would it be to seek a translation of an African proverb through the prism of English?

Quite conceivably, one does not expect an accurate translation of a rustic African Proverb into the complex, modern form of a European Language. As a matter of fact, Nkosi (1981) opines that African critics “ought to eschew ‘western’ criteria altogether and instead use indigenous critical apparatus”. Not only this, he argues that:

...the relationship between language and national cultures cannot be too strongly emphasized. Like other peoples, black Africans possess a rich and strong heritage in philosophy, ethics, religion and artistic creation, the deepest roots of which are embedded in the rich soil of African Languages. To re-possess that tradition means not only unlocking the caskets of syntax, disentangling metaphysics from poetry and proverb, it also means extracting social philosophy and habits of moral thought from the rhythm, imagery, repetitiousness, sometimes from the very circumlocution of native African speech, (Nkosi 1981, p.9).

Therefore, in this work, an attempt is made to examine Yoruba proverbs denoting the concept of justice from both the jurisprudential and linguistic (Michel Foucaultian’s) Critical Discourse Analysis. In many instances, across Africa, proverbs are in constant use such that they become indispensable aspects of oral communication and become law on their merit. Hence, this is the justification for the study.

Yoruba language is spoken natively in Southwest Nigeria and in some parts of North Central States of Kwara and Kogi. It is also spoken natively in some parts of the Republics of Togo and Benin, West Africa. As a matter of fact, Adeniyi (2004, p.17) captures the pre-eminence of Yoruba as a nation thus:

... the 40 million Yoruba ethnic group in West Africa is larger in population than 35 out of the 47 countries in Asia, larger than 52 out of the 56 countries in Africa, larger than 19 out of the 22 countries in North America, larger than 35 out of the 43 countries in Europe and larger than 13 countries in Oceania. The Yoruba within the present Nigeria multi-nation state is larger than 164 countries and only surpassed by 27 countries in the whole world.

### III. JURISPRUDENCE: CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

The word “jurisprudence” is derived from the Latin term “*juris prudentia*”, which means “the study, knowledge or science of law”, Hart (1982). The term “jurisprudence”, according to Elegido (1994) is also used alternatively as ‘legal theory and/or “philosophy of law”. According to Hart (1982), jurisprudence is “the study and theory of law”. Scholars of the concept are also known as jurists or legal theorists and they “hope to obtain a deeper understanding of the nature of law, of legal reasoning, legal systems and of legal institutions”. By way of historical reconstruction, modern jurisprudence began in the 18th century and was focused on the first principles of the natural law, civil law and the laws of nations.

In order not to create the impression of a jumbled confusion about the concept being a product of modern day philosophy, it is necessary to do a cursory voyage into its historical antecedent. Jurisprudence has its origin in Ancient Rome from the *jus of mos maiorum* (traditional law), a body of oral laws and customs verbally transmitted by “father to son”. Under the Roman Empire, Schools of Law were created and the activity constantly became academic. And in the early 3rd century a relevant literature was produced by some notable groups – including the Proculians and Sabinians. After the 3rd Century, *juris prudentia* became a more bureaucratic activity, with few notable authors. It was during the Eastern Roman Empire (5th Century) that legal studies were once again undertaken in depth, and it is from this cultural movement that Justinian’s corpus *juris civilis* was born.

Contemporary philosophy of law “which deals with general jurisprudence”, addresses problems in two rough groups:

i) Problems internal to law and legal systems;

ii) Problems of law as a particular social institution, as law relates to the larger political and social institutions in which it exists, Hart (1982); Elegido (2000); Shiner (1980); Soper (1982); Hutchinson (1989); Pillai (2016). In a more systematic way, Ashley Dugger, (2006, P.34) in his work, *Schools of Jurisprudence: Theories and Definitions* has pitched tent with the *Black’s Law Dictionary* which sees Jurisprudence as the science of law, namely, the science which has for its functions to ascertain the principles in which legal rules are based “so as not only to classify those rules in their proper order and show the relationship in which they stand to one another but also to settle the manner in which new and doubtful cases should be brought under the appropriate rules”.

Up to now, we have paid special attention to the clarification of concept (of jurisprudence); we have traced both the early and modern developments of the concept; we shall now proceed to examine the four primary schools of thought in general jurisprudence.

#### Four Primary Schools of Thought in General

1. **Natural law** is the idea that there are rational objective limits to the power of legislative rulers. The foundations of law are accessible through reason and it is from these laws of nature that human created laws gained whatever force they have, (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/jurisprudence>).

2. **Legal Positivism**: By contrast to natural law, holds that there is no necessary connection between law and morality and the force of law comes from some basic social facts. Legal positivists differ on what these facts are, (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/jurisprudence>).

3. **Legal realism** argues that the real world practice of law is what determines what law is; the law has the force that it does because of what legislators, lawyers and judges do with it, (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/jurisprudence>).

4. **Critical Legal Studies** is a younger theory of law that has developed since the 1970’s. It holds that the law is largely contradictory and can be best analyzed as an expression of the policy goals of a dominant social group, (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/jurisprudence>).

From the foregoing, it is apt to highlight the tasks before the legal theorists. Scholars of jurisprudence hope to obtain a deeper understanding of legal reasoning, legal systems, legal institutions, and the role of law in society. However, there is placed a caveat on the general assumption about the subject matter. It warns that the term jurisprudence is “wrongly applied to actual systems of law or to current views of law or to suggestions for its amendment”: therefore the scope of the searchlight would beam only on ascertaining the “principle on which legal rules are based with the intent to classify those rules “in their proper order and showing” the relations in which they stand to one another, and, ultimately to “settle the manner in which new or doubted cases should be brought under the appropriate rules . The whole gamut of the inquiry sees jurisprudence as studying law as a department of knowledge.

#### IV. THEORETICAL PRELIMINARIES

This section briefly presents the theoretical elements that form the basis for the introduction, extrapolation and linguistic analysis of jurisprudential concept of justice among the Yoruba.

##### A. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is about studying and analyzing the use of language. It involves a structural analysis of text “in order to find general, underlying rules of linguistic or communicative function behind the text”, Hodges (2008); Shaw and Barley (2009); Paltridge (2012). It should be pointed out that the term “discourse analysis has been taken up” in a variety of disciplines in the humanities and social sciences, including linguistics, education, sociology, anthropology, social work, cognitive psychology, social psychology, area studies, cultural studies, international relations, to name a few. This, undoubtedly, forms the basis of our choice of discourse analysis as the theoretical basis of this study.



The term “discourse analysis” was first used by the linguist Zelling Harris in his 1952 article entitled “Discourse Analysis”, Kamalu and Osisanwo (2015). According to him, discourse analysis is the method for the analysis of connected speech or writing for continuing descriptive linguistics beyond the limit of a simple sentence at a time, Kamalu and Osisanwo (2015). In what appears to be a more simplified approach, Brown and Yule (1983), Cook (1989), and Georgalon (2007) contend that “discourse” is language in use. The term “discourse” first appeared in French language in 1503 and it was culled from the Latin word “discourses” Abdullahi Idiagbon (2013), citing Baylor and Fabre (1990). According to the Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (3rd Edition), “discourse” means:

- i. Communication in speech or writing;
- ii. A speech or piece of writing about a particular, usually serious subject.

The Encarta English Dictionary captures it in these words:

- i. Serious speech or piece of writing (about a topic)
- ii. Serious discussion about something between people or group;
- iii. (Linguistic language) language, especially the type of language used in a particular context or subject e.g. political discourse,
- iv. (Linguistics): major unit of language, especially which is longer than the sentence.

The object of discourse analysis (discourse, writing, conversation, communicative event) are variously defined in terms of the coherent sequence of sentences, propositions, speech or turns-at -talk

This, it seems, explains the basis of Wood’s (2006) figurative description of and prescription for discourse analysis:

...may focus on any aspect of linguistics behavior, from the study of pronunciation, through word choice, sentence structure and semantic representation, to the pragmatic analysis of how we organize speech and context (Wood 2006, p. X).

It should be pointed out, from the outset, that the ascription of diverse meanings to the term “discourse” analysis” has been largely due to the multifarious disciplines associated with it. There are wide-ranging disputations regarding the meaning and scope of discourse. To begin with, Brown and Yule (1983) assert that it is the analysis of “language in use”, which cannot be separated from “the purposes and functions of language in human life. In the reckoning of the duo the concept is seen in relation to “social life”

In this wise, it is the contention of Ogunsiji and Aboh (2011) that most linguists have accepted Brown and Yule’s (1983) description of “discourse” either as a complex of linguistic form larger than the single sentence (a text) or as “language in use”, i.e. the linguistic structures usually used by people when they interact. Combining empirical vigorousness with theoretical insights, the terms “discourse” and “discourse analysis” seems to have gained more than marginal status in connoting “scholastic activity, spoken interaction, written text grammar and lexis beyond the confines of the sentence and intonation, Widdowson (2007). Whether or not one shares the viewpoint of Widdowson (2007) that discourse analysis is much more concerned with language in use rather than the more socio-political incline discipline, it is easy to infer from the avalanche of opinions that the concept is ensconced in variegated disciplines.

This matter- of- fact proposition is gleaned from the submission of Shaw and Barley (2008, p.45):

...discourse analysis is the study of social life, understood through analysis of language in its widest sense (including face-to-face talk, non-verbal interactions, images, symbols and documents. It offers way of investigating meaning, whether in conversation or culture. Discourse analytical studies encompass a broad range of theories, topics, and analytical approaches for explaining language in use.

It is also pertinent to consider the author’s essay on different approaches to discourse analysis and language in use. These approaches are itemized below:

- i. Socio linguistic Discourse Analysis
- ii. Discourse psychological approach
- iii. Foucaultian approach (language and ideology in society).

iv. Analytical approach (deconstruction or unraveling taking for granted assumptions, understand what the assumptions mean in the society).

These, put together, are in consonance with Partridge’s (2008) philosophical assumptions that underpin most of the approaches to discourse analysis. He considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used. He also beams his searchlight on the fact that discourse analysis considers the way that the use of language presents different views of the world and understandings.

### *B. Critical Discourse Analysis*

Michael Foucault’s Critical Discourse Analysis involves the study of language and ideology in society. The main theme of the theory is the perception of the role of language demonstrating how and why the language use sets limits on what it is (and is not) possible to think, say or do. As such, it becomes evident that the scope of this paper, in rather practical terms, is captured in the main tenets of Critical

Discourse Analysis, as espoused by Fairclough and Wodak (1997). The main thrusts of the tenets are as follows:

- i. Critical discourse analysis addresses social problems.
- ii. Power relations are discursive.
- iii. Discourse constitutes society and culture.
- iv. Discourse does ideological work.

v. Discourse analysis is both interpretative and explanatory.

vi. Discourse is a form of social action.

Of particular relevance is the subsumption of “mind control” as an integral part of critical discourse analysis involving more than just acquiring beliefs about the world through discourse and communication. Van Dijk (1973) notes that if controlling discourse is a major form of power, controlling people’s minds is the other fundamental way to reproduce dominance and hegemony”. In what appears to be a stringent appraisal of the applicability of Critical Discourse Analysis to communication, Van Dijk (1973) suggests ways that power and dominance are involved in mind control. First, he suggests that recipients tend to accept beliefs, knowledge and opinions through discourse from what they see as authoritative, trustworthy or credible sources. Second, he continues, in some situations participants are obliged to be recipients of discourse e.g. education and in many job situations. Third, Van Dijk (1973) reasons that in many in situations there are no media that may provide information from which alternative beliefs may be derived. Finally, he argues that recipients may not have the knowledge and belief needed to challenge the discourses or information they are exposed to. All these viewpoints would provide the methodological preliminaries for the analysis of Yoruba concept of Justice.

## V. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section involves the analysis and discussions of the concept of justice among the Yoruba using critical discourse analysis involving power and control.

### 1. *Agb’ejo enikan da, agba osika ni*

(Gloss: it is unethical to adjudicate on a matter without having heard from both sides). This proverb, ostensibly, is on all four with the legal maxim “*audi alterem partem*”, that is, “hear the other side”.

Thus, among the Yoruba, no matter how finely-wrought an argument is, the adjudicators must still listen to the evidence of the other side. This is with a view to having a balanced view of matter for adjudication- in conformity to the principle of fair-hearing.

### 2. *Afenilaya o je’bi, aya yin ni ki e kilo fun.*

(Gloss: One who commits adultery with one’s wife is not as guilty as one’s wife). This is akin to an unwritten code that tilts the scale of justice against an adulterous wife, and not against the man with whom she commits the act. The “legal” reasoning is hinged on the fact that the act of adultery is committed consensually with the wife, where no rape is pleaded.

### 3. *Ejo kii se ejọ eni ka ma moo da*

(Gloss: A matter of which one is familiar with is easy to adjudicate upon). In essence, the proverb stipulates that for a matter to be properly adjudicated upon, the adjudicator must be familiar with all the materials facts in the case.

### 4. *A kii fi egbo se egbo ile.*

(Gloss: One must not be partial in adjudication) Perhaps the most cardinal in Yoruba jurisprudence, this proverb, in consonance with the English legal maxim of fair-hearing, irrespective of whosoever ox is gored, stipulates that even one’s household must not be spared of the “sword of justice”.

### 5. *Igba ti a ba fi winka la o fi san-an*

(Gloss: The punishment for any evil deed should be commensurate with the gravity of the offence). On the scale of justice, the Yoruba proverb stipulates an equal modicum of punishment as the offence committed.

### 6. *Eni to ba mo ebi re l’ebi kii pe l’ori ikunle.*

(Gloss: Admission of guilt abrogates adjudication) It is the position of this school of thought, expressed proverbially, that, quite as obtainable in modern English jurisprudence, there should be room for “summary trial” when the accused person admits guilt. He may be punished or discharged and acquitted.

### 7. *A kii ti kootu bo ka s’ore*

(Gloss: When the parties insist on having a matter decided in court, bitter rivalry becomes the resultant effect of such adjudication). This, in essence, encourages what in today’s jurisprudence is called “Alternative Dispute Resolution or out-of-court-settlement

### 8. *Ara ile re re e d’aran, o ni ko kan o, nibo lo fi ti akoba si?*

(Gloss: Your neighbor committed an offence and you insist it is not your business, why haven’t you thought of the possibility of being roped in?) This is a clarion call for vigilance and exposition of criminality for the general good of the society.

### 9. *Ibi a wi si ko laa ku si*

(Gloss: Expressing or barring one’s mind cannot lead to instant death). This proverb is, yet again, a testimonial evidence of Yoruba commitment to the principle of fair- hearing. Whether as an accused person or a witness, it is incumbent upon the system of administration of justice to allow parties to express their minds freely or without hindrance.

### 10. *Bi ika ba r’ojo, ika ko ni yoo da*

(Gloss: The act of a wicked person will not be determined or adjudicated upon by yet another wicked judge).

This proverb is an injunction upon judges to be “blindfolded” against partisanship, kinship or nepotistic tendencies.

## VI. CONCLUSION

From the discussions above it can be reasonably (and therefore safely) concluded that language as a social phenomenon is closely tied up with the social structure and value systems of the society, especially when such use of language becomes so canonized to become the law. A jurisprudential analysis of proverbs among the Yoruba has also revealed that whether such proverbs are used in adjudication or in social intercourse, the effect is both didactic and legendary. This, in essence, makes the scholarly inquiry ensconced in Foucaultian's Critical Discourse Analysis. The precept highlights the use of proverbs within the scope of power relations, ideology and a form of social control. Therefore, it is hoped that this inquiry will open fresh vistas into linguistic research on African languages.

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**Wasiu Ademola OYEDOKUN-ALLI** is Associate Professor of English & Applied Linguistics and currently the Acting Director, Directorate of General Studies. Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria. He was also the pioneer Head, Department of English, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Nigeria and a Recipient of 2014 Award of the European Centre for Research and Development. He holds a doctorate degree from the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria, in the year 2010. He also studied Law at the University of Ibadan, Nigeria, 2002-2007 and was called to the Nigerian Bar in the year 2008, having passed the Bar Finals the same year. He was, at different times, Adjunct Senior Lecturer at Afe Babalola University, Ado-Ekiti, Nigeria and Kings University, Ode-Omu, Nigeria. Dr. (Barr.) Oyedokun-Alli has authored many textbooks in English, Linguistics, and Communication Skills and has also published in many high- impact journals, indexed in SCOPUS, MLA, IBSS etc.. His Research interests are in Sociolinguistics, Applied Linguistics, Discourse Analysis and Forensic Linguistics. He is a Member, Linguistic Association of Nigeria; Member, Reading Association of Nigeria; Member, Association For the Promotion of Nigerian Languages and Cultures; Member, Association for the Promotion of Development Studies; Member, International Language and Law Association; Member, Nigerian Bar Association, among others.

# The Metaphorical Interpretation of English and Chinese Body-part Idioms Based on Relevance Theory

Fangfang Di  
Shanxi Normal University, China

**Abstract**—As a special language coding way and language phenomenon, metaphor is an important form when humans use language in communication. However, metaphorical mappings are not arbitrary. They are based on our physical experience of the world around us. Idioms are the crystallization of human language and culture and play an important role in human communication. The idiomatic meaning is not simply the sum of the lexical meanings, but often the metaphorical meaning extended from the literal meaning. The paper is based on the relevance theory proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1995), adopts the methods of comparative analysis and text analysis, and takes the idioms of “body metaphor” contained in English and Chinese as the main research object to explore the following questions: 1. What is the interpretation model of the “body-part metaphors” in idioms? 2. In English and Chinese idioms, what are the similarities and differences in the use and interpretation of body-part metaphors? Firstly, the idioms of body-part metaphor are classified based on their projection types, then analyzing the projection methods of each type. Finally, through the new reasoning model guided by relevance theory to analyze the reasoning process of body-part metaphor in English and Chinese idioms, exploring the importance of cognitive context in the interpretation of body-part idioms.

**Index Terms**—Relevance Theory, conceptual metaphor, body-part idioms

## I. INTRODUCTION

Cognitive pragmatics, which emerged in the 1980s, is a subject that explains the use of speech in dynamic contexts based on the perspective of cognition. Pragmatics is related to cognition in both theoretical construction and practical analysis. It is necessary to reveal the output and understanding in verbal communication from the cognitive aspect. Sperber and Wilson (1995) have pointed out that pragmatics cannot be separated from the cognitive basis. Human's verbal communication can not be explained by a simple codes-decoding model. And the interpretation of discourse requires the communicator to truly understand the communicative intention behind the discourse with the help of reasoning in a specific context.

As a special way of language coding and language phenomenon, metaphor is an important form of the use of human language in communication. The early discussion on metaphor can be traced back to Aristotle, whose relevant theories have exerted such a profound influence that metaphor has long been regarded as a means of rhetoric and an important topic of rhetoric. In the 20th century, with the “linguistic turn” of Western philosophy, semantics aimed at exploring the meaning of language came into being. However, semantics cannot give a reasonable and satisfactory explanation of the meaning of metaphorical language in actual use, because the theoretical orientation of semantics isolated the use of metaphor from the context. To solve this problem, a pragmatic turn has taken place in the field of philosophy. That is, to study the use of language in a dynamic context. Compared with semantics, pragmatics has more explanatory power for the phenomenon of metaphorical language. In daily language communication, in order to realize communication activities, information receivers or listeners must decode and construe the language forms represented by metaphorical means according to the context if they want to recognize and understand the speaker's metaphorical utterance intention. But why does the listener or reader recognize and understand the metaphorical expression? This involves the cognitive perspective, so it is necessary to study metaphor in cognitive pragmatics.

In 1980, Lakoff and Johnson published *Metaphors we Live By*, which brought the study of metaphor into the cognitive stage. However, the study on the use of metaphor from a cognitive perspective only considers metaphor as a way for people to perceive and understand the world. It focuses on the mapping from the target domain to the source domain. Therefore, from the cognitive perspective of metaphor construction, although people can recognize and understand metaphorical discourse in a static state, they cannot analyze the real intention behind it. In 1986, Sperber and Wilson put forward a theory that deals with the relevance of communication and cognition, namely relevance theory. Relevance theory holds that the process of verbal communication is a process of expression and reasoning, and the key to successful communication is whether the speaker and the listener can find the optimal correlation. This theory can effectively explain the metaphorical phenomenon in language. The understanding of metaphor is the process of searching for similarity and, in essence, the process of searching for its optimal relevance. Relevance theory takes metaphor as ordinary discourse, which provides a new perspective for the interpretation of metaphor. In 2012, Wilson

and Carston made a new interpretation of metaphor within the framework of relevance theory, which incorporated various pragmatic phenomena into a unified paradigm of lexical pragmatics based on ad hoc concepts. In other words, to understand metaphor, the listener needs to expand or narrow the coding concepts, then constructing ad hoc concepts. The ad hoc concept construction strengthens the analysis of metaphor under relevance theory.

Idioms are the crystallization of human language and culture. They are ubiquitous in language and play an important role in human communication. For English learners, whether they can use idioms fluently is often regarded as one of the important standards to measure their authentic degree of foreign language. However, idioms and their recognition in context are often the weak of learners' learning. The idiomatic meaning is not a simple sum of the lexical meaning, but a metaphorical meaning derived from the literal meaning. The expressiveness of idioms lies in the accurate transmission of their deep metaphorical meaning. According to the theory of "body experience", the body organ is an important way for humans to experience and understand the world, and it is the basis of conceptualization and cognition. The metaphor of human body has also become an important way for human beings to form and express abstract concepts. As human organs, their metaphorization will also effectively reflect the way that human form and express concepts. Therefore, studying body-part metaphors in idioms and their cognitive interpretation in context is of great significance to the success of communication.

First of all, this paper collects 423 English idioms and 312 Chinese idioms related to body parts from authoritative dictionaries and corpus. The Chinese dictionaries are Xinhua Idiom Dictionary (2013), The Great Chinese Dictionary (2010), Modern Chinese Dictionary (2016), and the English dictionaries include a Dictionary of Contemporary English Idiom (2000), Collins English Dictionary (2018), The Oxford English Dictionary (1989). The paper will analyze each idiom to explore its metaphorical meaning. Secondly, combining different social and cultural contexts, the paper will analyze English and Chinese texts that including these idioms. The texts are drawn from two corpora: CCL (Center For Chinese Linguistics PKU, [http://ccl.pku.edu.cn:8080/ccl\\_corpus/](http://ccl.pku.edu.cn:8080/ccl_corpus/)) and COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English, <https://corpus.byu.edu/coca/>). The linguistic data of the two corpora cover a wide range, such as newspaper, literature, translation, spoken language, historical biography, online language and so on.

This paper has certain theoretical and practical significance. On the theoretical level, constructing the interpretation model of metaphorical cognitive discourse in human idioms under the guidance of relevance, and then deepening the cognitive-pragmatic research. The powerful explanatory power of relevance theory on metaphorical discourse is further strengthened, and the research scope of relevance theory is expanded. At the application level, it is hoped that the analysis of the understanding mechanism of human metaphor in idioms can help people better understand metaphorical idioms in discourse, provide a reference for second language acquisition learners to learn idioms, and also provide some help for the interpretation of Chinese and Western cultures.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Most foreign researchers study body metaphors from the cultural, semantic and cognitive aspects. Landa (1996) compares body metaphors between English and Spanish, exploring the semantic features of body spatial metaphors. Ning Yu (2000) compared the metaphorical usage of "finger" and "palm" between English and Chinese. Mette Kansa (2002) compared the mapping problems of body metaphors between Thai and English.

There is also much research on this topic going on in China in past years, especially focusing on cognitive metaphors. Chen Shuting (2020) discussed the relationship between conceptual metaphor and culture by comparing the body metaphor between Chinese and English. Wang Tiemei (2020) compared and analyzed body metaphors between English and Chinese based on the body words of bone, blood, tongue and so on.

There are numerous achievements about body idioms both aboard and home, and they are studied from different perspectives. But rare researchers analyze the body idioms from the cognitive and pragmatic perspective. Under the guidance of cognitive pragmatics, the purpose of the paper is to analyze idiomatic pragmatic inference of human organs in English and Chinese, from the perspective of relevance-theory.

## III. THEORETICAL BASIS

### A. Conceptual Metaphor

The Conceptual Metaphor Theory was put forward by Lakoff and Johnson in 1980, has become an important theory in cognitive linguistics. Lakoff (1993) claimed systematically the theory in his article *Contemporary metaphor theory*. The theory points out Metaphor is a systematic mapping from a specific conceptual domain to an abstract one. In cognitive linguistics, "domain" is a cognitive context for characterizing a semantic unit or concept. The theory is related to not language expression but the way of thinking.

The concrete conceptual domain refers to the source domain, such as the words about buildings. The abstract conceptual domain is called the target domain, such as theories. As the following examples:

- a. *We need to buttress the theory with a solid argument.*
- b. *The foundation of the theory is shaky.*
- c. *The argument collapsed.*

In these examples, Lakoff thought "buttress, foundation, shaky, collapsed" was used originally for describing the

building, but now used to describe theories. Therefore, theories are regarded as buildings, that is THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS. Lakoff suggested that a concept like this is common in human conceptual systems, and metaphor is a question of conceptual level. Thus he called metaphor as Conceptual Metaphor. Metaphor is a problem at the conceptual level, so he calls it conceptual metaphor.

The core content of conceptual metaphor theory can be summarized into the following eight aspects.

(1) Metaphor is a cognitive means

"Metaphor is the main mechanism we use to understand abstract concepts and make abstract inferences." "Metaphors allow us to understand things that are relatively abstract or lack of internal structure in terms of more concrete, highly organized things."

(2) The essence of metaphor is conceptual

"Metaphor is fundamentally conceptual, not linguistic." "Metaphorical language is a surface manifestation of metaphorical thinking." Therefore, Lakoff called it conceptual metaphor.

(3) Metaphor is a systematic mapping across conceptual domains

"Metaphor is a mapping across conceptual domains." "The mapping is asymmetric, it's partial." "Each mapping is a fixed set of ontological correspondences between the entities of the source domain and the target domain." Once those fixed correspondences are activated, the mapping can project the inference patterns in the source domain onto those in the target domain. Therefore, conceptual metaphors are cross-domain mappings.

(4) Mapping follows the constant principle

"Metaphor mapping follows the principle of constancy: the image schema structure of the source domain is projected to the target domain through a manner of consistent with the internal structure of the target domain." Therefore, conceptual metaphor is the unidirectional effect of the source domain for the target domain.

(5) The basis of mapping is the experience of the human body

"Mapping is not arbitrary, it is rooted in the human body, in the everyday experience and knowledge." This is also the important reason why Lakoff put conceptual metaphor theory in the field of cognitive linguistics.

(6) The essence of the conceptual system is metaphorical

"Conceptual systems contain thousands of conventional metaphorical mapping, the conceptual system comprised of these mappings has highly organized subsystem." Therefore, conceptual metaphor is an integral part of the conceptual system and an important part of our knowledge system.

(7) The use of conceptual metaphor is subconscious

Most conventional conceptual metaphor systems are unconscious, automatic and effortless, just like our language system and the rest of our conceptual system.

(8) Conceptual metaphor is common to all human beings

The universality of metaphor mapping is special; some seem to be universal, others are widespread, and still others seem to be sort of culture-specific.

## B. Relevance Theory

### 1. Relevance

The Relevance Theory was put forward by Dan Sperber and Deidre Wilson in their book "*Relevance: Communication and Cognition*". The theory aims to describe and explain communication behavior from the cognitive perspective and explore the general principles of human cognition and communication. Relevance Theory explores the internal mechanism of communication from the perspective of cognition, involving many disciplines such as philosophy of language, psycholinguistics, cognitive science and pragmatics.

Relevance theory is a relatively important and new theory in linguistics, which tries to solve philosophical problems related to human communication and explain cognitive problems in the process of understanding discourse (Wilson, 2000). Levinson (1989) once reviewed the theory as bold and controversial because "the author attempts to shift the focus of pragmatic study from the usage to cognition". Relevance theory opens up a new field for pragmatic research and provides a new theoretical perspective for cognitive psychology. Using relevance theory, we can make a convincing explanation of the mechanism and characteristics of human mental activities, so as to reveal the internal rationale of human brain activities (Chen Xinren, 1998). Relevance theory has entered the mature stage, showing strong explanatory power in the fields of pragmatics, rhetoric, communication, cognitive psychology and philosophy of language (Sperber & Wilson, 1998), especially for figurative language, this theory can be regarded as a promising theoretical framework to explain the effects of figurative language (Gibbs & Tendale, 2006).

Relevance theory is based on the principle of relevance. Relevance theory is a part of the basic theories of cognitive pragmatics, which involves cognition and communication. The main reason why both parties can communicate smoothly and understand the implication of each other's words lies in a cognitive model of seeking relevance. By finding the optimal correlation through the discourse and the contextual assumption, communicators can infer the contextual implication in accordance with the optimal contextual assumption and obtain the contextual effects, thus achieving successful communication and achieving communicative goals.

### 2. Cognitive principle and the communicative principle of relevance

The definition can also be explained that: under the same conditions, if the influence exerted by the cognitive effects was much stronger, the optimal relevance of the information input in communication would be attained; under the same

conditions if the processing effort made by communicators was much less, the optimal relevance of the information input in communication would also be attained. Based on this definition, we define relevance as a process of inputting a vast amount of information into the human cognitive mechanism. In general, it is analyzed in accordance with the definitions of cognitive effect and processing effort. (Clark, 2012). When an utterance is generated in a specific context, in which some available assumptions would arise, the speaker modifies and recognizes these assumptions at the same time; and then the utterance may produce some cognitive effects. So-called contextual effect and processing effort serve as two central factors influencing relevance.

### C. The Metaphorical Interpretation Based on Relevance Theory

For metaphor, the common cognition is to use one concrete thing to understand another one, which is also the interpretation of metaphor under conceptual metaphor. However, metaphor involves metaphorical intention, which needs to be explored by combining it with pragmatics. Relevance theory shows its extensive power to explain metaphor.

Relevance theory distinguishes the explicit meaning from the implicit meaning that is derived from the explicit meaning. The listener or reader needs to make a series of contextual assumptions based on the known knowledge and contextual information and finally deduce the implied conclusion. Carston (2012) makes a new interpretation of metaphor. They believe that to understand metaphorical discourse, it is necessary to make appropriate adjustments to the concept of metaphorical words, to construct corresponding ad hoc concepts, which will expand or shrink the original concept. That is to say, the listener or reader needs to retrieve relevant encyclopedic knowledge in the cognitive context, and then make a series of assumptions, according to the principle of optimal relevance, combined with the current context, select the most relevant hypothesis, to construct the ad hoc concept of this metaphor. The ad hoc concept may be the extension or contraction of the semantic scope of the encoding concept, or it may not coincide with the semantics of the encoding concept. The relevance theory uses the ad hoc concept constructions to explain metaphor. The expanded or narrowed temporary concepts are only the result of cognitive processing. The new interpretation does not give a detailed explanation of the immediate processing process when people understand metaphor. In addition, psycholinguistic experiments show that people do not need to use the literal meaning to understand the meaning of metaphor, nor do they compare whether two concepts are enlarged or narrowed. Therefore, the “ad hoc concept” is just a theoretical analysis tool for linguists, and cannot show the real process of metaphor understanding of communicators.

According to the above analysis, this paper constructs the discourse interpretation model of body-part metaphor in idioms under relevance theory, the express information—contextual assumption—ad hoc construction—understanding discourse. That is to say, through the express information coding the content of concept, content. According to the logical information, encyclopedic knowledge, word information, listeners or readers can make contextual assumptions. And then combining with the cognitive context to adjust the coding concepts, thus making an understanding for metaphorical expressions.

## IV. THE ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Lu Weizhong (2003) divided metaphorical projection of body parts into the projection from the human body domain to the non-human body domain, including the concrete domain and abstract domain. Projection from non-human domain to the human domain, including color domain, spatial domain, number domain and other non-human domains. The final is the projection between two body parts. Besides these types, it is common that the relation of two body parts project to the relation of matters. This paper will classify the collected English and Chinese idioms according to the classification. Wang Caili (2002) divided the metaphorical projection methods of the human body into three types, which are based on position, structure and function. But some metaphorical projections are found making projections through emotional cognition and Conventional knowledge. The paper will analyze the main projection modes of each type of idiom. Then some metaphorical idioms are selected to analyze their interpretation patterns in context.

### A. The Conceptual Metaphor of Body-part Idioms in English and Chinese

Whether in English or Chinese, the projections from the body-part domain to the concrete domain are mainly based on position and structure projection. The human conceptual domain was first used to refer to specific objects or something similar. The head of a mountain, the waist of a mountain and the foot of a mountain in English, and “山头”, “山腰” and “山脚” in Chinese, all use the head, waist and foot to name the top, middle and bottom of mountains. Although English and Chinese are different, people understand and recognize the external features of other things in the same way. That is, metaphorized human body makes the understanding between different languages possible. However, it is difficult for many other expressions, such as *a tongue of land*, *a finger of land*, *a slip of the tongue*, *an arm of the sea*, to be found in Chinese. This shows that English takes the sea as its target domain, while Chinese takes mountains as its target domain. This is because the natural and geographical environment has a profound influence on the formation of metaphorical thinking. Many parts of China are inland and China is a country with many mountains. The Chinese language almost uses all different body parts to represent the different positions and shapes of mountains. Britain is an island country surrounded by the sea, and its navigation industry once took the lead in history. Since ancient times, The British people have been fond of sailing, and they know the world, explore the world and carry out territorial expansion using sailing. They have deep feelings for the sea, so they observe the sea very carefully.



In English and Chinese idioms, there are also a large number of projections based on similar functions, such as *the heart of a story* in English. In Chinese, *bed leg*, *table leg*, etc. This kind of metaphor is relatively easy to understand because of the great similarity in everyone perceives their bodies. However, in the projection from the human body domain to the abstract domain, in addition to the projection based on the similarity of shape, structure and function, many expressions rely on human organs to realize emotional cognition. The most commonly used body parts are “eyes” and “heart”. As emotional animals, human beings often express their rich inner feelings with the help of their eyes. Different eyes express different feelings and inner feelings. For example, when people are angry, they tend to open their eyes wide, and when they are in love, they often have tender eyes. Therefore, both English and Chinese use “eye” to express “emotion”, such as “*cast sheep’s eyes*”, “*make eyes at someone*” in English, and “媚眼”, “飞眼”, “眉来眼去” in Chinese. However, people from different cultural backgrounds observe and understand things from different perspectives. Therefore, there are subtle differences between Chinese and English in expressing emotions with the help of body metaphors. For example, when facing the emotional fact of anger, Chinese people may have “*大动肝火*”, “*七窍生烟*”. But in English, they use ears, like someone is pouring out of his ears. English has the conceptual metaphor of eyes move in joy. In Chinese, the conceptual metaphor of joy is not only reflected in the movement of the eyes, but also the eyebrows. Such as “*眉开眼笑*”, “*舒眉展眼*”, “*喜眉笑眼*”. In Chinese, eyebrows are also important tools to express inner activities, such as “*眉来眼去*”, “*眉目传情*”, “*愁眉苦脸*” and so on.

Many non-human domains, including spatial domain and color domain, are projected into the human domain to achieve metaphorical expression. Cognitive linguistics holds that spatial metaphors play a particularly important role in the formation and expression of human concepts. Most abstract concepts are understood and expressed through spatial metaphors (Lan Chun, 1999). In Chinese, “heart” can be regarded as three levels of spatial concepts. They are one-dimensional space, two-dimensional space and three-dimensional space. In one dimensional space, “heart” is regarded as a straight line, the expressions include “*一条心*”, “*寸心*”, “*细心*”, “*心路*”, “*心弦*”, “*语重心长*” and so on. In two-dimensional space, “heart” is regarded as a plat, such as “*一片心*”, “*心叶*”, “*心地*”, “*心田*”, “*心坎*”, “*心潮*”, “*心海*” and so on. In three-dimensional space, “heart” is regarded as space, such as “*心房*”, “*心窝*”, “*心窍*” and so on. In contrast, the spatial metaphorical forms of “heart” are relatively rare in English, such as with a light heart, with a heavy heart, with half a heart, pull one’s leg, etc. Color is an important cognitive object and category for human beings. After people get familiar with and grasp the basic types and characteristics of color, they then project it to the cognition and expression of other things. Among them, the human body word is one of the important projection targets of color words. Different languages give the color its cultural meaning, such as “*黑心*”, “*黑手*”, “*红心*”, “*赤心*”, “*赤胆忠心*” in Chinese. The most representative are the names of facial makeup in Peking Opera, such as “*白脸*” symbolizes the villain, “*红脸*” refers to the positive figure, and “*黑脸*” refers to the upright figure. In English, there are blue-beard, red neck, green fingers and so on.

Metaphorical cognition of body parts is also reflected in the projection between two conceptual domains of the human body, focusing on the similarity of position, structure and function. One of the two body parts is the central word and serves as the target domain. The other is the modifier, which acts as the source domain. However, this type of projection is mostly seen in Chinese, such as “*心眼*”, “*唇齿相依*”, “*唇枪舌剑*”, “*头重脚轻*”, “*赤胆忠心*”, “*心口如一*” and so on, but this kind of projection is seldom seen in English.

In general, the body-part domain project into a specific domain is relatively easy to understand, because they are mostly based on the projection of position. After all, every nation has similar cognition for the position of body parts. However, for some projections based on function, emotional cognition and conventional knowledge, different nationalities have different cognitive focus, which requires a certain social-cultural background as a foundation. Therefore, it is important for people to use relevance theory to understand the body-part metaphor in English and Chinese idioms.

#### B. The Pragmatic Reasoning of Body-part Idioms in English and Chinese

Driven by relevance, relevance theory holds that the process of verbal communication is an explicit—inferential process. The main reason why both parties of communication can recognize and understand the explicit and implied content of the other party’s discourse and cooperate well in communication is that there is an optimal cognitive model of relevance. This theory can effectively explain the metaphorical phenomenon in language. Relevance theory takes metaphor as ordinary discourse and explains its relevance, which provides a new perspective for the interpretation of metaphor.

In 2012, Carston made a new interpretation of metaphor within the framework of relevance theory, which incorporated various pragmatic phenomena into a unified paradigm of lexical pragmatics based on ad hoc concepts. In other words, to understand metaphor, the listener needs to construct corresponding ad hoc concepts by expanding or contracting the coding concepts. The construction of the ad hoc concept strengthens the analysis of metaphor under relevance theory. Constructing the interpretation model of metaphorical discourse based on the ostensive-inferential model of relevance theory. The model can be shown as: expressing information—supposing context—constructing ad hoc concept—understanding discourse. That is to say, through expressing information coding concept, according to the logical information, encyclopedic knowledge, word information making contextual assumptions. Then combining

with the situation to extend or narrow concept, constructing the ad hoc concepts, thus understanding the expression. It is feasible to analyze the interpretation and reasoning process of human metaphorical idioms with linguistic data. The examples in context are as follows:

Example one: Janet was *like a bear with a sore head* when she found out she had missed her connecting flight.

In this example, the speaker uses the idiom *like a bear with a sore head*. The communicator may have the following contextual assumptions:

- (1) The speaker is making an assertion.
- (2) There is a person named Janet.
- (3) Janet is like a bear with a headache.
- (4) Headaches can make people irritable and in a bad mood.
- (5) Janet has a flight to catch.
- (6) Janet showed a certain negative emotion when she knew she had missed her flight.

Based on the encoded conceptual content "*like a bear with a sore head*", the listener concludes the semantic meaning, that is "*Janet is like a bear with a headache*", which does not satisfy the listener's expectation of relevance. Because it can not determine the truth-value of the corresponding proposition, and can not help complete the interpretation of discourse. To meet the associated expectation, according to 4) and 6), the contextual assumption that was obtained from the encyclopedic knowledge and context, the hearer or reader knows Janet has close contact with some negative effects. Guided by the principles of optimal relevance, the hearer selects contextual assumptions to handle coding concepts, and then constructing the ad hoc concept "*like a bear with a terrible temper*."

Example two: 先是爸爸声严厉色的一顿教育批评,把孩子吼的直抹眼泪,也不敢哭出声。一看孩子眼泪也流了,肯定有所思有所悟吧!也别太极端了,毕竟怕孩子太小受不了,这时候妈妈再上前抚慰,面对这颗巴掌后的强塞的糖,孩子从恐惧不安的情绪里抽离,慢慢平静下来。夫妇二人都觉得这种“一个唱红脸一个唱白脸”的方法很“平衡”,家里既有一个能唬住孩子的人,也有一个能照顾孩子情绪的人。

In this example, there is the idiom “一个唱红脸一个唱白脸”, which means “one plays the role of a red face and one plays the role of a white face in the Peking Opera stage”. According to express information, encyclopedic knowledge and situational information, the reader will assume the following cognitive context:

- (1) The author is an adult.
- (2) This is an assertion.
- (3) This idiom involves in two people, one with a red face and one with a white face.
- (4) Red face and white face have opposite meanings.
- (5) Father is a good cop, the mother is a bad cop.
- (6) A person is strict and another person is gentle.
- (7) The red face looks strict, while the white face looks mild.

Similarly, only according to the coding concept “一个唱红脸一个唱白脸,” concluding the context 3). It is difficult to know its implied meaning. So to satisfy the relevant expectation, the reader considers encyclopedic knowledge and contacts situational context information, extracting 4) 5) 6), to know that there are near contact, between “红脸” and “strict”, “白脸” and “mild”. Thus the reader enriches the content of the encoded concept, constructing the ad hoc concepts of red face and black face. That is, one plays a strict role, the other plays a mild role. Then the interpretation is completed. This expression is related to the art of facial makeup in Chinese drama. The red face symbolizes loyalty, courage and determination, while the white face symbolizes evil and sinister. “Red face” is thus promoted to refer to positive characters, while “white face” symbolizes treacherous villains. According to the similarity of the roles, they are projected into family life to realize its overall metaphorical meaning “in life, one person plays a positive role and the other person plays a negative role”. In the metaphorization of human words, the meaning of the new words is far from the literal meaning, presenting a rich and colorful cultural symbolic meaning.

Provided that one cannot understand the culture behind idioms, according to conceptual metaphor, it is difficult to understand the idioms. Thus the metaphorical interpretation model guided by relevance theory is required to help communicators complete the reasoning of idioms.

## V. CONCLUSION

Whether in English or Chinese, the projections from the body-part domain to the concrete domain are mainly based on position and structure projection. This is because people have similar cognition for their body structures. For the projections from body-part domain to abstract domain, most projections are based on the similarities of function. English and Chinese have different focus of body-part functions, so they may intend to use different body parts to project the same abstract domain. For instance, English uses the eye to express joy, while Chinese also uses eyebrows to express joy. To express anger, English uses ears, while Chinese uses liver.

Many non-human domains, including spatial domain and color domain, are projected into the human domain to achieve metaphorical expression. In addition to the projections based on function, most of them are projected through emotional cognition and conventional knowledge. In Chinese, “heart” can be regarded as three levels of spatial concepts. They are one-dimensional space, two-dimensional space and three-dimensional space. However, the spatial

metaphorical forms of “heart” are relatively rare in English. Both English and Chinese project color domain into body-part domain, but they have different cognitions for the characteristics of color. Thus they give color their cultural meaning. Metaphorical cognition of body parts is also reflected in the projection between two conceptual domains of the human body, focusing on the similarity of position, structure and function. However, this type of projection is mostly seen in Chinese, and they are seldom seen in English.

Every language has its deep cultural background and historical origins. Idioms are the crystallization of human language and culture. They are ubiquitous in language and play an important role in human communication. Idioms have their particular cultural connotation, which makes them difficult to be understood. Thus due to cultural differences, there is a certain limitation to interpret idioms through conceptual metaphor. The new model based on the ostensive-inferential model has given a full explanation of the interpretation process of the metaphor in body-part idioms in both English and Chinese. Therefore, it is necessary for people to use relevance theory to understand the body-part metaphor in English and Chinese idioms. Although the reasoning model cannot fully eliminate the cultural differences in idioms, it can mitigate the differences.

When the hearer notices the metaphorical expressions in idioms, the hearer is certain to search in the encyclopedic knowledge to build contextual assumptions and try to distinguish the resemblances between the two to infer the implicatures carried by the metaphorical expressions and then constructing the ad hoc concepts. Within the framework of relevance theory, the paper finds that metaphors can be employed as an ostensive stimulus at the same time bearing implicated information for the hearer to achieve the optimal relevance as the metaphorical expressions in body-part idioms have expected. As an ostensive stimulus, metaphor can attract the hearer's attention in hopes of guiding him or her to achieve optimal relevance. Then he or she is encouraged to see the resemblance between the two thus helping to understand the metaphorical meaning of the idioms.

However, there are still some limitations. First, there are some limitations in data collection indeed. Restricted by time and energy, the paper only chooses a small number of representative examples of body-part idioms in both English and Chinese, so these data are not perfect and adequate. Second, because of the choice of the corpus, it was found that some idioms did not find corresponding frequency and examples in the process of sorting the corpus. Thus, a more comprehensive language resource and knowledge are needed in the process of future research.

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**Fangfang Di** was born in Linfen, China in 1994. She is currently a graduate student in the School of Foreign Languages, Shanxi Normal University, Shanxi, China. Her research interests include cognitive linguistics and pragmatics.

# How Much of the FUTURE Is BEHIND in Arabic? A View on the Arabic Culture and Embodiment

Maisarah M. Almirabi

Department of English, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah, Saudi Arabia

**Abstract**—In the present study, the Arabic metaphorical expressions associated with the conceptual metaphors TIME IS SPACE and THE FUTURE IS BEHIND were analyzed. The analyzed tokens were searched for online. In addition, native speakers of Hijazi-Saudi Arabic confirmed the natural usage of the tokens in their dialect. The productivity of placing the FUTURE in front of the EGO and the unproductivity of placing it behind indicates the FUTURE in front of the EGO as the norm. Based on the metaphorical elements found in the tokens considered, a bidimensional conceptual location of objects on the JOURNEY OF TIME was proposed to include the front location or the elsewhere location. The elsewhere location was referred to as behind, extending the meaning of ‘behind’ to include all locations that are not front. This bidimensionality is represented by the conceptual metaphors FOCUS IS FRONT and PERIPHERY IS BEHIND. Examples associated with these conceptual metaphors were associated with the experiential embodiment. In previous research, the direction of writing and how much weight is given to cultural values have claimed to influence the placement of the FUTURE in Arabic as pre-set reasons. This study is significant because it is done without pre-set reasons for metaphor usage, resulting in none-steered findings. Also, this study opens a window to the metaphorical system of the Hijazi-Saudi Arabic, a variety of Arabic whose metaphorical system is understudied. This study invites considering the placement of the FUTURE in other languages and cultures.

**Index Terms**—metaphors, conceptual metaphor theory, cognitive linguistics, Hijazi Saudi, Arabic, future is behind

## I. INTRODUCTION

A language is a system for communicating and sharing ideas. Some of these ideas are abstract and do not have readily available names, nor are they related to conceptual structures. This necessitates language users to find alternative references and conceptual structures to communicate about such abstract entities. Lakoff and Johnson (2003) listed three metaphor functions: ontological, structural, and orientational. When the metaphor concretizes abstract concepts, it has an ontological function. When it gives a complex structure to the concept, it has a structural function. And when the metaphor contributes to the coherence of some concepts, it has an orientational function. The ontological function is in effect when providing a reference to TIME, as in sentences 1 and 2.

1. Thank you for your time.
2. Can you spare a minute?

Notice how the concepts of TIME are concretized as a possession and a commodity in examples 1 and 2, respectively. Such ontological metaphors allow us to talk about the abstract concept of TIME, which cannot otherwise be discussed due to its abstract nature. Sentences 3 and 4 are examples of structural metaphors.

3. A bright future is waiting for you. (Indicating the result of hard work, for example)
4. We need to go our separate ways. (In the context of ending a personal relationship)

The metaphors LIFE IS A JOURNEY and LOVE IS A JOURNEY are examples of mapping the structure of one thing or entity to another. Consider examples 3 and 4. The conceptual metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY demonstrates how living is like traveling, as the PAST, PRESENT, and FUTURE are passed by, situated at, or targeted stations, respectively.

Arabic time terms represent fossilized conceptualization of the metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY. The PAST, PRESENT, and FUTURE expressions in Arabic literally mean *passed by*, *situated at*, and *headed toward (station or direction)*, respectively. The root of the word for past /maDi/ means “passed thing or person”. The word for the present /HaDir/ means “attender”, while the word for future, /mustaqbal/, means “headed toward”.

Life is explained as a continuum consisting of three events: the past, present, and future (Meriam-Webster Dictionary, retrieved 10/7/19). This continuum is logically parallel to the conceptualized JOURNEY of LIFE. Life is the period of existence; hence, it is a time experienced individually by someone. The fact that humans experience life makes it a fertile ground for experiential embodiment.

According to Lakoff (1993), the passage of time within the JOURNEY metaphor can be conceptualized in two ways. Time passing is concretized as motion within the conceptual metaphor TIME PASSING IS MOTION. As Lakoff (1993)

described, this conceptual metaphor has two special cases: TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT and TIME PASSING IS MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE. Lakoff (1993) provides the example “time is flying by” for the conceptual metaphor TIME IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT, and the example “I’ll be there in a minute” for the conceptual metaphor TIME PASSING IS MOTION OVER A LANDSCAPE (Lakoff 1993, p. 14). Linking the attribute of flying to TIME indicates TIME itself is a moving object. On the other hand, implying that a point in time is where one is situated concretizes time as a landscape in which locations are points in time. These ways of concretizing time conceptualize the direction the EGO is heading toward is in front and not behind. This is one way of conceptualizing time in language.

Another version of direction in the JOURNEY OF LIFE was found to exist. Lakoff and Johnson (2003) explained some apparent contradictions in the organization of front-back metaphors. They provided examples such as “We’re looking ahead to the following weeks” (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 42). In this example, the FUTURE is in front of, *ahead*, and behind, *following* the speaker. The authors explained that there were two types of front-back orientation, namely motion-sourced and canonical. Motion-sourced orientation is acquired by objects due to their motion. This is based on the front and back of humans, animals, and vehicles, as motion occurs when the front of the human or animal body or vehicle is heading forward. However, the canonical orientation is related to the existing or designated front and back of the human, animal, or vehicle. This means that a reversing car retains its canonical front, although the motion-sourced orientation while reversing is the opposite (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). An example of motion-sourced orientation is a rock thrown through the air, which then hits and breaks a windshield. To explain the windshield-breaking incident, we may describe that as “the rock has a pointy front, which caused a bullseye break in the windshield”, for example. Notice how this front is based on the motion of the rock.

The peculiarity of human bodies has been a significant influence on the generation of conceptual metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999). Núñez (1999) used the TIME IS SPACE metaphor to support the idea that our brains and bodily peculiarities are important in structuring conceptual metaphors. Núñez claimed that bodily orientation and actions are factors in making the concept of ‘time flow’ possible. Two types of embodiment play significant roles in producing time metaphors which are.

- The experiential embodiment (to indicate how the repeated experience produces a conceptual structure that can be lent to less concretized concepts).
- The ego presence/locus embodiment (to indicate the location of concepts relative to the location of the ego).

The connection between these types of embodiment and time metaphors will be explained later in the present study.

The current study answers the following questions:

1. How do Arabic speakers concretize TIME concepts?
2. Which of the embodiment types are used in Arabic?
3. How culturally specific are time expressions in Arabic?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The discussion of the conceptualization of time has a long history. Time has been claimed to be unreal as, linguistically, it involves talking about something that is not time per se, such as space as a source domain (McTaggart, 1908). More recently, spatial experience has been claimed to influence temporal conceptualizations (e.g., Boroditsky, 2000; Boroditsky & Ramscar, 2002; Gentner et al., 2002; Kranjec, 2006; Núñez et al., 2006). In different cultures around the world, time was proposed to be conceptually represented in different ways. People of Pormpuraaw, an Australian aboriginal community, conceptualize time as flowing toward the position of the EGO using an orientation that is relative to the movement of the sun. In this conceptual structure, the direction toward which the EGO is facing determines the direction of TIME. The TIME approaches from the right, the left, toward, and away, corresponding to the EGO facing north, south, east, and west, respectively. The Pormpuraaw’s structuring of time is a result of experiential embodiment in which the daily experience of the movement of the sun plays an interesting role in the production of the metaphor TIME IS SPACE.

In another study, an allocentric conception of time was found in a socially isolated group living in the Yupno valley of Papua New Guinea. Members of this group pointed uphill to indicate the FUTURE and downhill to indicate the PAST (Núñez et al., 2012). The metaphorical motivation for the speakers in the Yupno valley was environmentally based, as the group structured TIME based on the vertical orientation relative to a hill (uphill/downhill) (Núñez et al., 2012). The speakers of Yupno conceptualized a world that was historically associated with their native place of settlement. This world was associated with their homes (referring to land and building). When away from their homeland, they could only use the vertical orientation inside their home buildings, reflecting the association between the building and land based on the HOME concept (Núñez et al., 2012). This implies a metonymy of location in which the homeland is represented by a “home” building. Natural surroundings such as the sun and a hill can be used to form a conceptual structure. Using the sun is available for every culture since every human being, in normal and common situations, experiences the sun. However, using a certain hill is only available for the people who have been experiencing the hill. Generally, different landmarks are experienced in different cultures worldwide, which make them available to be utilized in the respective cultures. Cultural specificity will be further discussed in association with the tokens analyzed in the present study.

De la Fuente et al. (2014) proposed the temporal focus hypothesis (TFH), which brings the mentally focused things in front. They applied this hypothesis to Moroccan Arabic and Spanish participants. They found that Moroccans focused more on past events than all participating Spaniards. They also found that elder Spaniards focused more on past events than young Spaniards. They claim that focusing more on past events indicates giving more importance to past events (traditions) than future events (progress). Callizo-Romero et al. (2020) replicated the test of the TFH on more groups of participants that represent larger diversity. Similar to De la Fuente et al. (2014), they concluded that past events could either attract or distract focus depending on how participants regard the implications of these events. In addition, personal and societal attitudes were concluded to project onto the time of focus. These studies propose some interesting results; however, their methodology did not give sufficient space to explore other reasons for temporal focus. Reasons for temporal focus are expected to be more abundant in naturally and spontaneous mental products such as language and gestures.

The direction of writing was proposed to affect the conceptualization of time. More specifically, the flow of events within the TIME IS SPACE metaphor was found to be associated with the direction of writing. The flow of event direction matched the direction of writing when testing speakers of Arabic, Hebrew, English, Spanish, and Italian (Chatterjee, Maher, Gonzalez-Rothi, & Heilman, 1995; Maher, Chatterjee, Gonzalez-Rothi, & Heilman, 1995, Santiago et al. 2007, Maas & Russo, 2003, and others). English and Mandarin speakers use front/back and up/down metaphors to refer to time, but Mandarin speakers are more likely to think about time vertically than are English speakers (Boroditsky, 2001; Boroditsky, Fuhrman, & McCormick, 2011). Although matching the direction of writing with recognizing the flow of temporal events produces interesting results, it is based on unnatural stimuli. It is important to mention that excluding natural representations of mental processes such as language and gestures disregards time spatialization patterns, including where to locate the FUTURE and on what axis. In addition, such a test limits the scope of the investigation to the effect of frequently experienced patterns of writing direction only.

Finding expressions that don't reflect the direction of writing cannot be accounted for without analyzing natural data and matching analysis findings to context. In the present study, reasons for situating TIME in relevance to the EGO were proposed based on what language users choose to use before collecting data in naturally produced linguistic elements. The present study focused on the Hijazi-Saudi Arabic, and the analyzed tokens were linked to the cultural context of its speakers.

The FUTURE is conceptualized as being behind the EGO utilizing the conceptual metaphor UNKNOWN IS BEHIND (Dahl, 1995, Núñez & Sweetser, 2006, Sullivan & Bui, 2016). Dahl (1995) stated that Malagasy speakers attribute this to the fact that the FUTURE is unknown in connection with the concept that what is not seen is unknown. This is logically explained by not having eyes in the back of our human heads; hence, we cannot see what is behind us. On the other hand, Malagasy speakers conceptualize the past and present as being in front of them since both the past and the present are known, and what is known should be visible. Dahl (1995, p. 199) also claimed that a sentence such as “*arahaba fa tratry nytaona* (congratulations, for being reached by the year)” was evidence that people did not reach the year, but that the year approached the person from behind. This concept is similar to Lakoff's (1993) conceptual metaphor TIME PASSING IS MOTION OF AN OBJECT, in which the moving object is the year. Dahl (1995) proposed that Malagasy speakers use three ways to conceptualize time. Time is conceptualized as linear, cyclical, and event-related. The linear TIME is future-oriented, the cyclical is past-oriented, and the event-related is present-oriented. In the present study, it is proposed that time is linear as travelers commute on a timeline. However, different events along the way interfere with this travel progress and impose unplanned changes to the trip. This will be picked up later when considering the turning around of TRAVELERS to face other TRAVELERS on their respective JOURNEYS. Those journeys happen to share the same conceptual trajectory or crossing point of trajectories.

The FUTURE is also conceptualized behind in Aymara and Vietnamese cultures based on the same concept – that it is unknown, and what is unknown must be behind us (Núñez and Sweetser 2006, Sullivan and Bui 2016). Núñez and Sweetser (2006) explained that metaphorical gestures should be coupled with speech gestures to obtain the full picture of the placement of the EGO within the conceptual metaphor. When analyzing metaphoric gestures, Sullivan and Bui (2016) found that Vietnamese speakers conceptualized the FUTURE as approaching from behind, passing them, becoming the past, and continuing. Although considering gestures in analyzing time metaphors is important, they will not be considered since the data analyzed was produced before the study, resulting in a lack thereof.

### III. METHODOLOGY

Of the results, the first 100 tokens of those originally posted and not intended for research were considered.

In the current study, the author collected data from online sources via the Google search engine. This domain contains naturally occurring discourse not usually constructed for research purposes (see Silverman, 2013). Key expressions that represent the TIME IS A JOURNEY metaphor were searched for. These expressions include the Arabic word that refers to the *future* ‘مستقبل’ together with an Arabic action verb indicating a TRIP movement, such as ‘راح’ *go* and ‘جا’ *come* and/or prepositions indicating location, ‘قدام’ *in front of* and ‘ورا’ *behind*, within a TRIP. Every search resulted in a minimum of 168 results. The first 100 results of each key expression posted for non-research purposes were analyzed using the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP), described in the next section. Considering

only the first 100 tokens puts a threshold on the number of tokens, as some searches resulted in several hundred results. The genre of the tokens was determined via the linguistic and website contexts.

The MIP goes as following:

1. Read the entire text–discourse to establish a general understanding of the meaning.
2. Determine the lexical units in the text–discourse
3. (a) For each lexical unit in the text, establish its meaning in context, that is, how it applies to an entity, relation, or attribute in the situation evoked by the text (contextual meaning). Take into account what comes before and after the lexical unit.

(b) For each lexical unit, determine if it has a more basic contemporary meaning in other contexts than the one in the given context. For our purposes, basic meanings tend to be

- More concrete; what they evoke is easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell, and taste.
- Related to bodily action.
- More precise (as opposed to vague)
- Historically older.

Basic meanings are not necessarily the most frequent meanings of the lexical unit.

(c) If the lexical unit has a more basic current–contemporary meaning in other contexts than the given context, decide whether the contextual meaning contrasts with the basic meaning but can be understood in comparison with it.

4. If yes, mark the lexical unit as metaphorical. (Pragglejaz Group 2007, p. 3)

The embodiment and cultural specificity of metaphors and metaphorical patterns were also considered, and conceptual associations were proposed.

Only one example of each key expression was listed below. The transcription convention used in transcribing Arabic examples was provided in the appendix.

When a word or expression referred to a concept, all letters were capitalized.

#### IV. ANALYSIS

TIME is conceptualized as having the structure of a JOURNEY in Arabic. This JOURNEY includes a TRAVELER and some other people not included in this JOURNEY. Consider examples 5 and 6:

5. رايح اكلم أمي بكره

raijh	akal:im	um:i	bujkrah	
going-1 <sup>st</sup> SG	talk	mother	tomorrow	

I will talk to my mother tomorrow.

6. كان رايح يقولك لكن بطل

kanraijh	jigul:ak	lakin	baT:al	
was	going-2 <sup>nd</sup> SGtell-INT-2 <sup>nd</sup> SG	but	changed mind-3 <sup>rd</sup> SG	

He was planning to tell you but changed his mind.

7. رايح ارسل له الرسالة لمن أفضى

raijh	arsil lah	ar:isalah	lam:an	afDa
going-1 <sup>st</sup> SG	send to-3 <sup>rd</sup> SG	DEF-message	when	free-1 <sup>st</sup> SG

I will send the message when I am free.

8. رايح اذكرك انك غلطان

raijh	ačak:irak	in:ak	kalTan	
going-1 <sup>st</sup> SG	1 <sup>st</sup> SG-remind-TR-2 <sup>nd</sup> SG	that-2 <sup>nd</sup> SG	wrong-2 <sup>nd</sup> SG	

I will remind you that you were wrong.

Examples 5 to 8 view the EGO as traveling on a JOURNEY OF LIFE by including the word رايح [raj:h] “going”, which literally means “going from one physical point to another”. However, in example 5, a conversation is conducted telephonically; the act of going is used to imply the figurative sense of going on a JOURNEY in time. Similarly, examples 6, 7, and 8 include the metaphorical GOING into the FUTURE to perform the actions of telling, sending a message, and reminding, respectively. Notice that there is no need for physically going on a JOURNEY when planning to say something, send a message, or remind someone about something. Although examples 5 through 8 do not explicitly connote going from one location to another, going to another location could be part of the action. This is particularly the case when the person with whom one interacts is not close or there are no portable means of communication. However, other verbs do not imply a physical commute to perform the actions, as they are accomplished mentally. Consider examples 9 and 10:

9. رايح افكر في الموضوع

raijh	afak:ir	fi	almawDu:ʕ
going-1 <sup>st</sup> SG	think-1 <sup>st</sup> SG in	DEF-subject	

I will think about this.

10. أنا رايح أقرر في الوقت المناسب

raijh	aqar:ir	fi	alwaqt	almunasib
going-1 <sup>st</sup> SG	decide-1 <sup>st</sup> SG	in	DEF-time	appropriate

I will decide at the right time.

Notice how thinking and deciding are usually done mentally without traveling physically. In examples 9 and 10, the person attempting to think and decide expresses this via the metaphorical use of “going”, although they are not physically going into the FUTURE, but doing so conceptually in the JOURNEY OF LIFE.

Note the similarity to the English modal verb ‘be going to’ concerning going into the FUTURE. Consider examples 11-14, taken from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).

11. I am going to consider my options later.

12. I’m going to prove to you that I can make it.

13. I am going to show them they’re wrong.

14. I think she’s actually going to miss you.

In examples 11-14, considering, proving, showing, and missing do not require physical travel. This “going”, as indicated by the function of the modal verb, is into the FUTURE, which indicates the metaphorical concept of the LIFE IS A JOURNEY metaphor. Conceptualizing LIFE or TIME as a concrete concept such as a JOURNEY allows for talking about LIFE or TIME, although the intangibility due to their abstract nature disallows talking about them otherwise. The conceptual structure of a JOURNEY is projected onto the abstract concepts of TIME and LIFE. This allows the use of distance, orientation, and TRAVELERS as properties of TIME and LIFE within this JOURNEY.

The orientation of the JOURNEY OF LIFE in Arabic is in front of the EGO. Consider examples 15 and 16:

15. الوعد قدام والحي ببشوف

alwaʕ qed:am walħaj biʕuf  
DEF-promise ahead and-DEF-alive FUT-see

The promise is ahead, and the living ones will see.

16. استمري قدامك مستقبل باهر

istamir:i qud:amik mustaqbel bahir  
continue-1<sup>st</sup>SG-FEM in front of-1<sup>st</sup>SG-FEM future-IN amazing

Keep on doing this. A bright future is in front of you.

Examples 15 and 16 view the first person as traveling toward the FUTURE, which is a direction in front of them, by using the word قدامنا [qud:amana] ‘in front of-1<sup>st</sup>PL’, which indicates the physical frontwards orientation. This was found productive because the FUTURE concept (example 16) and anything related to, planned for, or going to happen in the future (example 15) can be located in front of the EGO.

Expressing the FUTURE is behind the Ego is found in Arabic. Consider examples 17-19:

17. تعليق ايش انت وهو يلا ع الدوام ورانا مستقبل

taʕliq e:ʃ inta wuhuwa wehija jal:a  
suspension what you-SG-MASC and-he and-she come on

ʕa ad:awam warana mustaqbəl

on work behind-1<sup>st</sup>PL future

What kind of suspension are you talking about? Off you go to work, you guys.

18. يلا بابا انت وياه نرجع نذاكر ورانا مستقبل مو فاضين لكم

jal:a baba inta wijah nirʕaʕ-1<sup>st</sup>PL ni ʕakir  
Come on daddy you-SG-MASC and-him we go back study

warana mustaqbəl mu faDin lakum

behind-1<sup>st</sup>PL future not free for you

Let’s go back to studying, dudes, you and him. Our future awaits, so we are not free.

19. بنات هيا بنا نترك الدراسة ، ورانا مستقبل وعيال

banat hija bina nitrukad:irasa warana mustaqbal  
girls-VOC let’s leave studying behind-1<sup>st</sup> future

weʕjal

and-children (to bear and rear)

You girls, let’s drop out of school. We are responsible for our future and our future children.

Example 17 shows the FUTURE as being behind people who were wondering if their jobs would be suspended due to claims of bad weather conditions. Conceptualizing the FUTURE work as being behind us indicates “work” is the means of achieving future responsibility. Example 18 describes a group of people stopping to rest while on a JOURNEY of study and heading into the FUTURE. This group probably met another group while resting, as indicated by the phrase فاضين لكم [mu faDin lakum] “(we are) not free from you(r nonsense)”. This “stop” distracts from the on-going JOURNEY in which the direction is the future goal, indicated by the phrase نذاكر [nirʕaʕ-1<sup>st</sup>PL ni ʕakir] “we go back studying”. In addition, STUDYING is construed as the process of attaining the goal of this JOURNEY, namely the FUTURE. Example 19 describes a group of girls embarking on a JOURNEY “of studying” and suggests leaving this path and embarking on another “of raising kids”. This is the (new) way of heading toward the FUTURE, with new responsibilities and different future results, thus switching between worlds in Wierzbicka’s (1973) terms<sup>1</sup>. This

<sup>1</sup> The term “trip” is used to express the concept of ‘worlds’ introduced by Wierzbicka (1973) to emphasize the specific metaphor TIME IS SPACE.



conceptual “trip switch” is also evidence of the many conceptual TRIPS in the JOURNEY OF LIFE. The future destination, which involves raising children, is behind the EGO when expressing what needs to be done when conversing with people in the second person. Thus, examples 17-19 indicate TRAVELERS stopping to express their feelings about heading toward the FUTURE and then returning to proceed along the JOURNEY. This TRIP is construed as a responsibility. However, due to being distracted from the future responsibilities by conceptually turning around and talking to people who are not embarking on this specific TRIP, the FUTURE becomes behind the EGO due to this turning around. This is a distracting orientation. Notice how the future-result responsibility is located in the past/posterior position due to the distractions in these examples.

There is an orientational complexity in Arabic, referred to as parallel TRIPS on the JOURNEY OF LIFE, similar to the WORLDS concept introduced by Wierzbicka (1973). The “trip” and “journey” terms indicate the TRIP being part of the JOURNEY. On one of the TRIPS, the EGO and TIME are TRAVELERS. This is in line with the concepts of front-back orientations being canonical when the traveler is the EGO, or motion-sourced when the traveler is TIME (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). In the TRIP in which the EGO is the traveler, the EGO goes forward while facing the direction of the FUTURE; reconsider examples 5-10. This supports the idea that, while on the TRIP, TIME is moving toward the EGO when TIME is the traveler. Consider examples 20 and 21:

20. الموعد كان 13 فبراير بس سمعت ان الموعد اتقدم الى اليوم 11

almawʕid kan 13 fibrajar bas simiʕt in:a almawʕid

DEF-date was 13 February but heard-1<sup>st</sup>SG that DEF-date

itgad:əm ila aljom 11

moved forward to today 11

I heard they rescheduled the date to be on 11 February, today, instead of the 13<sup>th</sup>.

21. لا بس الموعد اتأخر شوية .. لعله يكون الشنب أكبر وقتها

La bas almawʕid itʔax:ər ʃuwajjah laʕal:ah jikun aʕ:anəb

No but DEF-date pushed back a little it-probably be DEF-mustache

akbər waqtaha

big-COMP then

No, but the date was pushed back a little bit. This is good since the mustache will be bigger then.

The canonical orientation in which the EGO is the traveler is already conceptually implicit in the normal situation of the JOURNEY metaphor in the mind of the speaker. The other orientation, in which TIME is the traveler, is denoted by the words أتقدم [itgad:əm] “advanced” and أتأخر [itʔax:ər] “postponed”. These two verbs indicate the dimensions in the JOURNEY trajectory along which TIME can travel, that is, forwards and backward. Referring to a previous date and the growth of the mustache implies these dimensions in Examples 20 and 21, respectively. Lakoff and Johnson’s (2003, p. 42) example, “We’re looking ahead to the following weeks”, shows the FUTURE in a similar way to Examples 20 and 21. Setting a conceptual scene helps conceptualize the FUTURE WEEKS as “following”. In this scenario, the TIME represented by the FUTURE WEEKS is heading toward the EGO. This indicates that the EGO and TIME are traveling on separate TRIPS heading toward opposing directions. Consider Figure 1:

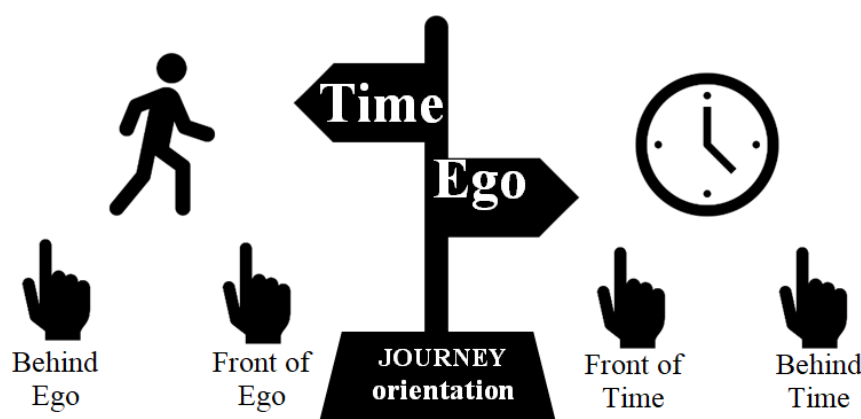


Diagram (1)

Notice how the concept of TIME IS A TRAVELER ON A JOURNEY embodies time as being a traveling human, albeit with a motion-sourced fore and aft. This indicates the partial projection of human features onto time.

## V. DISCUSSION

Different cultures around the world utilize different conceptual structures to concretize time-related concepts. The sun, a natural monument, and the direction of writing are examples of source domains affecting conceptualizing time-related concepts (Dahl, 1995; Núñez & Sweetser, 2006; Sullivan & Bui, 2016).

Aymara, Malagasy, and Vietnamese people were found to use the behind-EGO location of the FUTURE concept. The metaphor KNOWING IS SEEING was claimed to be the source of structuring the FUTURE as behind, since the FUTURE is unknown, we see known things, and human eyes only view what is in front.

In the present study, different types of embodiment were found associated with time metaphors used by speakers of Hijazi-Saudi Arabic. In association with the metaphor, TIME IS SPACE, the experiential and ego presence/locus embodiment types were found. Metaphorical embodiment is at work when the conceptual embodiment results from experiencing a physical location and when the EGO is conceptually located within the space of time. It is logical that embodiment is universally available when not associated with culturally specific concepts, such as being in a specific culture or region. An example of this is when embodiment results from routine experiences or a general location in relation to common objects or concepts. A more specific example is the conceptual movement from inactive to active mental states. This is represented by a derivative of “going” when no physical going is taking place. This universality emanated from the relationship of these concepts to the peculiarities of the human mental experience to which all humans have access.

With regard to the FUTURE IS BEHIND metaphor, while traveling along the JOURNEY OF TIME, it is common that the FUTURE is in front of us. However, when talking to other people, we cannot help being distracted from the direction of the JOURNEY and turn around to face our interlocutors instead of the FUTURE. The conversation explains something about the journey destination, which has now become behind us due to this turning. Turning can be associated with our human body’s peculiarities, which makes the turning maneuver possible, and the experiential embodiment since we tend to turn to focus on what attracts our attention. These different structural parts of the metaphor, including other TRAVELERS and the turning to face them, are the metaphorical relational and multi-dimensional status discussed by Gentner et al. (2002) and Feist and Duffy (2020).

Arabic metaphors placing the FUTURE in FRONT OF EGO, such as examples 15 and 16, were abundant in Arabic. However, a few Arabic metaphors were found to place the FUTURE behind EGO. Two metaphors were associated with this placement of the FUTURE in Arabic, namely KNOWING IS SEEING and RESPONSIBILITY IS BEHIND. The metaphor KNOWING IS SEEING has been found in other studies, but the metaphor RESPONSIBILITY IS BEHIND has not. As the simple meaning of the metaphor KNOWING IS SEEING is used in structuring the metaphor, the FUTURE IS BEHIND in Arabic, other components contributed to the schema of the metaphor. One of the components is the social aspect in which the first and second grammatical persons in the sentence represent the concept of people traveling along their respective JOURNEYS. When the first person wants to express a thought, they turn to face the second person, another component of the metaphor schema. This turning of the conceptual human body situates the FUTURE as being behind. Note that this turning does not need to be 180° rotation but is usually partial turning. This is because the location of the second person is not necessarily behind that of the first person. The direction of the EGO in this metaphor is bi-dimensionally based. One of the dimensions is the focus dimension, and the other is the periphery. This is the focus on the destination in the JOURNEY. The front is focused on, and everything else is behind on the periphery. This focus is stated in the OED definition of the word “focus”: “e. .... the point or area upon which an eye, camera, etc., is focused at a particular time.” (OED Online, 25 October 2020). The conceptual metaphors that represent these concepts are FOCUS IS FRONT, and PERIPHERY IS BEHIND. This bidimensional basis matches the human focus on seeing, in which objects are either seen or unseen. As the first and second persons travel on their respective JOURNEYS, they must turn clockwise or counter-clockwise to face the other person’s location to focus on that person. This turning places the FUTURE, the journey destination, on the periphery, as represented by being BEHIND in the metaphor.

The metaphors FOCUS IS FRONT and PERIPHERY IS BEHIND include the metaphor RESPONSIBILITY IS BEHIND. According to the OED, ‘focus’ also means “b. The sustained or intense concentration of interest and attention on a particular thing ....” (OED Online, 25 October 2020). As responsibility requires sustained application of interest and attention, the lack thereof indicates a lack of focus. In other words, when interest is not sustained and attention is not paid to responsibility, there is no focus. An example of this is 19 above, in which the responsibility for bearing and raising children was expressed as being behind the first-person plural “girls”. The metaphor RESPONSIBILITY IS in FRONT when it is being FOCUSED on, and is BEHIND when it is in the PERIPHERY. This figurative FOCUS is an abstract concept, conceptualized mentally, and used to structure another abstract concept to indicate paying interest and attention. This is in line with Matlock et al. (2011) and Sullivan and Barth’s (2012) claims about using abstract concepts to concretize other abstract concepts.

## VI. CONCLUSION

In the present study, naturally produced metaphors were analyzed. What makes this study significant is the consideration of full linguistic context, embodiment, and cultural aspects of an understudied variety of Arabic, i.e., Hijazi-Saudi Arabic.

Arabic online tokens represent both metaphors THE FUTURE IS IN FRONT and THE FUTURE IS BEHIND. The latter of which was less productive. The metaphor THE FUTURE IS BEHIND was found associated with responsibility. Another association for placing the FUTURE behind the EGO was structuring a conceptual schema in which the EGO is turning. This turn makes the location of the FUTURE temporarily behind the EGO.

Two types of cultural specificity in metaphors were implicit in the tokens associated with the metaphor TIME IS SPACE in previous studies. One of these types is the passive availability of metaphors, henceforth available cultural specificity. The other type was when the metaphor is not accessible to other cultures therefore not used, henceforth unavailable cultural specificity. An example of the available cultural specificity is using the sun's movement to indicate the conceptual direction of the flow of time. The sun is available to all human beings; hence, it can be utilized by everyone. An example of unavailable cultural specificity is when a natural landmark is used by the people who live or have lived in a place where this landmark existed.

The metaphor pair FOCUS IS FRONT and PERIPHERY IS BEHIND is only known to be found in Arabic. Nonetheless, these metaphors' cultural specificity is available because the human body can be utilized in structuring such metaphors. The turning feature of the human body when shifting the focus from one direction to the other is another reason for this cultural specificity. Using these metaphors is not associated exclusively with culturally specific concepts that cannot be used by people of cultures other than Arabic, unlike a certain natural monument, for example. When associating time concepts with embodiment, the resulting metaphor is expected to be universal, as humans share the same experience of TIME and body peculiarities. However, once a cultural component is added, the TIME IS SPACE metaphor becomes specific to the source culture of this component.

The approach of qualitatively considering linguistic data as representations of mental conceptualization of abstract concepts has been adopted in previous research such as (Lakoff and Johnson 1999/2003, Núñez and Sweetser 2006, Sullivan and Bui 2016). In the present study, linguistic metaphors that were produced naturally in language were analyzed. Context is utilized to understand the logic behind using these metaphors. The limitation of the present study is that it does not control factors such as the age and gender of the language producers. Another limitation is that vessels of mental representations other than language, such as gestures, are not accessible when data is already written. The reason for not considering such factors and vessels is that the data analyzed was naturally produced before doing the research. This study paves the way for research on metaphors of the understudied language, i.e., Hijazi-Saudi Arabic.

#### APPENDIX. TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

##### Consonants

Arabic Letter	Sound Symbol	Arabic Letter	Sound Symbol
ء	ʔ	ض	D
ب	b	ط	T
ت	t	ظ	Z
ث	θ	ع	ʕ
ج	ʒ	غ	ɣ
ح	ħ	ف	f
خ	χ	ق	q
د	d	ك	k
ذ	ð	ل	l
ر	r	م	m
ز	z	ن	n
س	s	ه	h
ش	ʃ	و	w
ص	S	ي	j

##### Vowel Chart

i		u
e	ə	o
a		

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**Maisarah M. Almirabi** obtained his Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at Ball State University in Muncie, Indiana, USA in 2019. He obtained his master's degree in Linguistics at the University of New Mexico in Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA in 2013. He obtained his bachelor's degree in the English Language at Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah, Saudi Arabia, in 2009.

He is currently an assistant professor and the Chairperson of the Department of English at Umm Al-Qura University (the main branch) in Makkah, Saudi Arabia. His research focuses on cognitive linguistics, Conceptual Metaphor Theory, pragmatics, and language documentation and revitalization. Further information can be found at: <https://uqu.edu.sa/Profile/mmmirabi>.

Dr. Almirabi is currently the convener of the Curriculum and Study Plan, and the Quality and Accreditation Committees in the Department of English and a member on the Curriculum and Study Plan Committee in the College of Social Sciences at Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah, Saudi Arabia.

# Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

## Aims and Scope

Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

- Language teaching methodologies
- Pedagogical techniques
- Teaching and curricular practices
- Curriculum development and teaching methods
- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills
- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

## Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - o Submission of extended version
  - o Notification of acceptance
  - o Final submission due
  - o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at <http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/>

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