

Journal of Language Teaching and Research

ISSN 1798-4769

Volume 13, Number 1, January 2022

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Unraveling Contradictions: Which Glosses Facilitate Reading Comprehension Among ELLs, and Why?

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Abstract—This critical literature review provides study details for 36 studies examining the effect of glossing for language acquisition among English language learners (ELLs). Useful tables include specificity of participants, gloss types, target vocabulary items and text information about all studies. An analysis of these studies reveals that glossing is an effective means to enhance reading comprehension among ELLs. However, gloss language—whether L1 or English, may depend on learner factors. Other findings include the importance of proximity of gloss to text and the need for glosses that do not require readers to leave the text to access meaning. Considerations such as text genre, text length, targeted items for glossing, number of items to gloss, and gloss presentation are also examined and discussed, including which gloss types may result in trade-offs when glossing is used as a means to promote incidental vocabulary acquisition through independent reading. Several recommendations for further research are offered.

Index Terms—glossing, gloss types, gloss presentation, gloss language, glossing literature review

I. INTRODUCTION

The word *gloss* has its origins in Greek as “language” but was adopted into Latin as “a difficult word to be explained” (Blom, 2017, p. 10). Its origin has given rise to multiple English definitions in use today when applied to language and literacy studies, with *paratext*—textual or visual extras that are not inherently part of the text itself (Genette & Maclean, 1991)—being the common component. Glosses may appear as marginal annotations or may provide definitions for readers (Stewart & Cross, 1991). They are an essential aspect of ancient text analysis and are nearly universal among written languages (Blom, 2017). In English texts, the earliest glosses often provide English translations to Latin words. Thus, although English glossing is sometimes perceived to be a type of conversation between readers and texts that transpires in the margins of a text, its history is replete with examples of its use in providing ease for readers in the form of simplifying difficult words or phrases, especially through translation. Language researchers (e.g., Farvardan & Biria, 2011; Juliana, 2018; Schmitt, 2010; Vela, 2015) have proposed that the glossing of texts assists readers in avoiding incorrect inferencing, thereby leading to greater comprehension. Gardner (2007) demonstrated that adapted definitions better assist reading comprehension than context clues, which are particularly ineffective for second language learners (Kaivanpanah & Alavi, 2008).

The intentional glossing of texts for language teaching is wrought with decisions such as where to place the gloss, whether to include images, which language to use, and how many words to gloss. Other considerations include the impact of electronic glosses and the role of learner proficiency level in making such decisions. To find answers, an EBSCO abstract search using the terms “gloss” and “reading” was conducted. After removing duplicates, 714 peer-reviewed articles, books, and book chapters remained. Articles referencing alternative definitions of gloss (e.g., “gloss over”), book reviews, articles describing marginalia of ancient manuscripts, and articles describing studies in non-English learning contexts were then removed, leaving 387 peer reviewed articles, books, and book chapters from which 127 empirical studies, reviews, and meta-analyses examining reading behavior and glosses were gleaned. The review of literature revealed that glossing is indeed a popular topic for English language research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW INCLUSION CRITERIA

The inclusion criteria for the empirical studies chosen from the original 127 were that the study was peer-reviewed and that it examined glossing for the purpose of English learners’ reading comprehension. After removing studies defining glossing as text annotation by students (See Davaribina et al., 2016; Gunobgunob-Mirasol, 2014; Juliana, 2018; Kazandjian, 2017; Minaabad, 2016; Sarabi, 2012), a study in which only the reading of single glossed items while listening was involved (Çakmak & Erçetin, 2018), a study comparing glosses to learning activities without the use of a control group (e.g., Dehdari & Sadeghghlo, 2018), four studies describing learner behavior in gloss context (Jung & Révész, 2018; Kang et al., 2020; O’Donnell, 2012), a study taking part in a native English language context (Magreehan, 2016), and 78 studies examining glossing solely for vocabulary acquisition—a second popular area of glossing research—36 studies remained. Studies comparing glossing conditions for the sake of vocabulary acquisition alone

often encourage the interruption of text for deeper processing of words encountered. Consequently, the same mechanism that may lead to gains in degrees of vocabulary knowledge of targeted terms may also hinder comprehension of texts, a notion borne out in several studies finding gains in vocabulary acquisition alongside relatively lower comprehension scores or vice versa (e.g., Akbulut, 2007; Çakmak & Erçetin, 2018; Cha, 2007; Cheng & Good, 2009; Dilenschneider, 2017; Hamdi, 2015; Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh, 2014; Yanguas, 2009; Zolfagharijooya, 2013). For this reason, studies of vocabulary acquisition alone were omitted to focus solely on how glosses impact reading comprehension. However, studies examining the impact of glossing on both vocabulary and reading comprehension have been included. For these studies, only reading comprehension findings are reported.

Six meta-analyses and three extant literature reviews were located. Unfortunately, several are dated (e.g., Abraham, 2008; Davis, 1989; Taylor, 2002; Taylor 2006), and several are confined to only one aspect of glossing research. For instance, Kim et al.'s (2020) review only includes studies of reading comprehension when vocabulary learning is included, whereas Taylor (2020), Taylor (2014), and Wang (2020) examine literature with a focus only on glosses incorporating technology. The findings in these analyses are certainly useful. However, being narrow in scope, they cannot generalize beyond their scope about how gloss locations, gloss languages, and gloss types may interact to affect reading comprehension. Moreover, extant reviews often lack criticality and are far from comprehensive, whereas my critical review examines 36 studies.

These empirical studies are arranged by foci: those reporting on the general efficacy of glosses, gloss location comparison studies, studies comparing the language of gloss—whether L1 or English—and glosses comparing gloss types. Table 1 relays information about study foci.

TABLE 1
STUDY FOCI

Study	Focus
AbuSeileek (2008)	Gloss Location Comparison
Akbulut (2007)	Gloss Type Comparison
Al Ghafli (2011)	Gloss Type Comparison
Alharbi (2018)	Gloss Language Comparison
Arpaci (2016)	Gloss Language Comparison
Azari et al. (2012)	Gloss Language Comparison
Babaie Shalmani & Razmjopo (2015)	Gloss Type Comparison
Babaie Shalmani & Sabet (2010)	Gloss Type Comparison
Cha (2007)	General Gloss Efficacy
Chen & Yen (2013)	Gloss Location Comparison
Cheng & Good (2009)	Gloss Location and Language Comparison
Dilenschneider (2017)	Gloss Type Comparison
Elekaei et al. (2015)	Gloss Location Comparison
Fahimipour & Hashemian (2013)	Gloss Language Comparison
Farvardin & Biria (2011)	Gloss Language and Type Comparison
Hamdi (2015)	Gloss Type Comparison
Hashemian & Fadaei (2013)	Gloss Language Comparison
Jenpattarakul (2012)	General Gloss Efficacy
Karbalaei & Zare (2019)	Gloss Type Comparison
Karimvand (2019)	Gloss Type Comparison
Karimvand (2020)	Gloss Type Comparison
Ko (2005)	Gloss Language Comparison
Kongtawee & Sappapan (2018)	Gloss Language Comparison
Lee et al. 2016	Gloss Type Comparison
Levine et al. (2004)	Gloss Type Comparison
Majuddin (2014)	Gloss Density
Marefat et al. (2016)	Gloss Location Comparison
Marzban (2011)	Gloss Type Comparison
Melhi, 2014	General gloss efficacy
Sadeghi & Ahmadi (2012)	Gloss Type Comparison
Sadeghi et al. (2017)	Gloss Type Comparison
Salimi & Elham Sadat (2019)	Gloss Language Comparison
Türk & Erçetin (2014)	Gloss Type Comparison
Wang & Lee (2021)	Gloss Type Comparison
Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh (2014)	Gloss Type Comparison
Zolfagharijooya (2013)	Effect of Word Class on General Gloss Efficacy

III. STUDIES REVIEWED

A. *Studies of General Glosses Efficacy*

Nearly all studies examined here have found some benefit of glossing to enhance English language learners' reading comprehension. For instance, Türk and Erçetin (2014) and Akbulut (2007) found positive correlations between participants' choice to use available glosses and reading comprehension scores. With few exceptions, gloss studies that include a no-gloss control group (e.g., AbuSeileek, 2008; Alharbi, 2018; Apraci, 2016; Azari, 2013; Azari et al., 2012; Babaei Shalmani & Razmjopo, 2015; Çakmak & Erçetin, 2018; Cha, 2007; Chen & Yen, 2013; Dilenschneider, 2017;

Karbalaei & Zare, 2019; Karimvand, 2019; Karimvand, 2020; Ko, 2005; Lee et al. 2015; Majuddin, 2014; Melhi, 2014; Sadeghi & Ahmadi, 2012; Sadeghi et al., 2017; Salimi & Elham Sadat, 2019; Varol & Erçetin, 2016; Yanguas, 2009; Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh, 2014) find statistically significant gains for at least one experimental glossing group over a control group without glosses. Studies sometimes report on general gloss efficacy through research designs that compare a single group to multiple reading conditions, include reading without glosses (e.g., Hamdi, 2015; Jenpattarakul, 2012; Marzban, 2011; Wang & Lee, 2021). Table 2 outlines the findings of these 26 studies.

TABLE 2
GENERAL FINDINGS OF STUDIES WITH CONTROL GROUPS

Study	Finding
AbuSeileek (2008)	Gloss advantage
Alharbi (2018)	Gloss advantage
Apraci (2016)	Gloss advantage
Azari et al. (2012)	Gloss advantage
Azari (2013)	Gloss advantage
Babaei Shalmani & Razmjopo (2015)	Gloss advantage
Çakmak & Erçetin (2018)	No advantage
Cha (2007)	Gloss advantage
Chen & Yen (2013)	Gloss advantage
Dilenschneider (2017)	No advantage
Hamdi (2015)	No advantage
Jenpattarakul (2012)	Gloss advantage
Karbalaei & Zare (2019)	Gloss advantage
Karimvand (2019)	Gloss advantage
Karimvand (2020)	Gloss advantage
Ko (2005)	Gloss advantage
Lee et al. (2015)	Gloss advantage
Levine et al. (2004)	Gloss advantage
Majuddin (2014)	Gloss advantage
Marzban (2011)	Gloss advantage
Melhi (2014)	Gloss advantage
Sadeghi & Ahmadi (2012)	Gloss advantage
Sadeghi et al. (2017)	Gloss advantage
Varol & Erçetin (2016)	No advantage
Wang & Lee (2021)	Gloss advantage
Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh (2014)	No advantage

Of 26, only four find no advantage of glosses to aid in reading comprehension. Nevertheless, in three such studies (i.e., Dilenschneider, 2017; Hamdi, 2015; Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh, 2014), experimental conditions required participants to leave the field of text to access word meaning, and one additional study, Cha (2007), does not describe the procedures their participants took to access meaning for glosses, despite the importance of gloss location in identifying advantages for the glossing of texts—when individuals are removed from reading for a long period of time for the sake of accessing word meaning, text comprehension may be jeopardized. These studies are described in more depth within their respective areas of foci.

Two studies, Melhi (2014) and Cha (2007) examined the general efficacy of glossing for reading comprehension by simply comparing one group using glosses to a group without glosses. Over a 16-week period, Melhi's (2014) participants took part in one of two reading conditions: one group reading electronic texts with glossing available and another in a traditional classroom, where participants were pre-taught unfamiliar vocabulary before reading. Melhi compared reading comprehension scores between pre- and posttests and conducted a stepwise multiple regression analysis, finding that 41.8% of variance in improvement was attributed to e-glosses. On the other hand, Cha (2007) found no advantage for a group using glosses to comprehend expository texts. However, Cha proposes that participant's knowledge of the terms chosen for glossing may not have been needed for text comprehension; the glossed words were chosen based on participants' earlier identification of unknown words in the texts, not on the semantic significance of glossed words to text comprehension. Unfortunately, neither Cha nor Melhi (2014) describe the location of glosses, nor do they note whether the gloss language was the learners' first language (L1) or English.

B. Studies of Gloss Location

Six studies having investigated the effect of gloss location on reading comprehension were located. AbuSeileek (2008) measured the effect of gloss placement as marginal, post-text, at the bottom of the screen, or as a pop-up window when clicked, finding the greatest comprehension for the group with glossing appearing in the margin. Comparing interlinear glosses and marginal glosses in electronic format, Marefat et al.'s (2016) Persian-speaking ELLs had greater comprehension when glosses were interlinear, with a large effect size. Elekaei et al.'s (2015) four-group study compared the efficacy of glosses as footnotes, glosses in margins, glossaries, and interlinear glosses among English learners to find that interlinear glossing led to higher rates of reading comprehension than did all other gloss locations. These results, like AbuSeileek (2008) and Marefat et al. (2016), seem to suggest that when it comes to gloss location, proximity may play a role in glossing efficacy. The mean values for reading comprehension results in Elekaei et al.'s (2015) study were, in descending order: interlinear, margins, footnotes, and a separate glossary.

One study challenges research finding proximity related to gloss efficacy. Cheng and Good's (2009) study compared a control group to gloss locations in three experimental conditions—in-text, marginal (described as appearing below the text) and as a glossary appearing on a separate page. Although all groups outperformed the control group, with the interlinear gloss group having the largest differential, no statistical significance was found among gloss type ($p = .082$). However, despite having four measured proficiency levels, most of Cheng and Good's participants read the same text. Furthermore, the researchers propose that the number of words glossed “may have been too many” (p. 126) for the text length, which may have diverted attention to word meaning at the expense of comprehension. They also explain that a reading comprehension test with only five questions might have been too few to “discriminate effectively” among their participants (p. 126).

C. Studies of Gloss Language

Several studies have examined the effect of gloss language to compare the efficacy of using translations into the participants' L1 as glosses with using English glosses, often finding an advantage for L1 glosses in both tertiary (e.g., Alharbi, 2018; Arpaci, 2016; Fahimipour & Hashemian, 2013; Hashemian & Fadei, 2013; Karimvand, 2020; Salimi & Elham Sadat, 2019) and secondary (Kongtawee & Sappapan, 2018) contexts. Finding struggling students largely absent from extant studies, Kongtawee and Sappapan's (2018) study of Thai students found L1 glosses more effective among 199 struggling secondary English learners. During Salimi and Elham Sadat's (2019) semi-structured interviews, learners stated that L1 glosses afforded them advantages in that it saved time and reduced anxiety.

On the other hand, Ko's (2005) study of 94 Korean students reading a nonfiction narrative found English glosses superior to L1 glosses, although Ko believes that proficiency level may have played a role. Like Cheng and Good (2009), Ko also expressed concerns about the terms chosen for glossing, stating, “solely determining the target words by the frequency of marks of unknown words is not enough because it may not always represent the most important words in a given context” (p. 133). Ko's study therefore highlights context as an important consideration when choosing which words to gloss. Azari et al. (2012) found no statistical difference between L1 and English gloss use.

As part of a gloss type study, Farvardin and Biria (2011) incorporated L1 (Persian) and English glosses to measure the effect of text genre on gloss efficacy to find the optimal language of the gloss dependent on genre. When reading narratives, L1 glosses led to greater comprehension, yet for expository texts, English glosses led to greater comprehension. In a follow-up questionnaire, participants expressed a slight preference for English glosses over L1 glosses. Farvardin and Biria's (2011) findings call needed attention to the potential interaction effects that may occur between text genre and gloss language.

D. Studies of Gloss Type Comparison

Dual coding theory (Paivio, 1991) holds that mental representations of concepts may be held in the mind both visually and verbally, as two types of information processed differently, and neuroscience has since provided substantial support of this theory (e.g., Crosson et al., 2010). Dual coding theory's relevance for reading comprehension lies in its implication that a learner may better comprehend and recall information when presented through multimedia. Numerous studies have tested dual coding theory in glossing context through comparisons of glosses as different multimedia types. For instance, Babaie Shalmani and Razmjopo (2015), Babaie Shalmani and Sabet (2010), Karimvand (2019), and Zarei and Mahmoodzadeh (2014) compared the textual glosses to pictures or a combination group incorporating both, with all but one finding the combination of text and pictures superior to either presentation alone. Zarei and Mahmoodzadeh's (2014) comparison of in-tact classes of lower intermediate Persian high school students found that although glossing groups performed better than the control group, there was no statistical significance found among groups for reading comprehension. However, participants were provided with definitions taken from the Oxford Elementary Learner's Dictionary rather than synonyms or L1 translations. Babaie Shalmani and Razmjopo (2015) argue that providing glosses reduces the reader's cognitive load, allowing for “a greater portion of the working memory capacity ... allocated to processing higher-order comprehension skills” (p. 23). On the other hand, when learners' reading is interrupted long enough to read a multiword definition, returning to the text may tax a learner's fluency in comprehension. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that dictionary definitions may often be more difficult to learners than the word being defined (Kelley et al., 2010; Restrepo Ramos, 2015).

Thus, it may be of little surprise that the findings of studies incorporating animation and video to the mix have found them less reliable for reading comprehension than simple text or pictures (e.g., Abdulut, 2007; Al Ghafli, 2011; Sakar & Erçetin, 2005; Sato, 2016; Wang & Lee, 2021), even when leading to greater vocabulary acquisition. It is worth noting that 74% of Abdulut's (2007) Turkish participants “indicated that they would not have understood either some of the material or most of the material if the material had not been supported with annotations” (p. 513). Although Marzban's (2011) incorporation of video as multimedia found a benefit, the comparison group used paper-based dictionaries, which also require learners to leave the text to access meaning. A similar explanation may be offered for the results of Dilenschneider's (2017) comparison of gloss types, which required all learners, regardless of experimental group, to take steps that temporarily removed them from the reading through hypertexts—one to access dictionary definitions, the other to type the word into a box to access meaning—with no difference found. Dilenschneider's participants also read different texts, depending on the group. Perhaps a better approach would have been using different participants reading

the same passage. This would have lessened the risk of some target words being easier than others or more important to comprehending the reading than others.

Four studies compared the impact of audio to other gloss presentations. Karbalaee and Zare (2019) found that audio outperformed pictures; Sadeghi et al. (2012) found that learners presented with both pictures and audio outperformed either alone. Sadeghi and Ahmadi (2012) found an advantage when learners had access to extended audio. On the other hand, in a study comparing English definitions to English definitions accompanying audio, accompanying video, or accompanying pictures, Wang and Lee (2021) found that the video group showed a small advantage, although not statistically significant. When participants were asked on a Likert scale to rate the helpfulness of glosses, most reported that they found glosses helpful or extremely helpful, with little variation among gloss type groups.

Zolfagharijooya et al. (2013) measured the effect of word class on glossing efficacy in a seven-week study comparing four groups, with each group exposed to 10 glossed words having a different part of speech—nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Zolfagharijooya et al. did not include a control group, as the focus of their study lay only in comparing word class. The researchers found only minor statistical difference among groups when reading comprehension was measured ($p = .402$) with a small effect size for the noun group.

IV. DISCUSSION

The glossing of texts as language instruction preparation is time-consuming, leading some language researchers to wonder if the payoff is worth the effort involved (e.g., Bowles, 2004; Lenders, 2008). Babaie Shalmani and Razmjopo (2015) argue that glossing reduces the cognitive load for readers, and the general findings of glossing studies supports this proposition. Glancing at an interlinear gloss or clicking on a word for a concise pop-up reduces the need for extended periods of interruption and for haphazard contextual guessing. On the other hand, because certain glossing requires brief interruptions of reading, glossing may potentially hamper comprehension in some contexts. Foroughi et al. (2015) demonstrated that when reading comprehension is defined as the synthesis of information in long passages, any interruption of reading will disrupt the reader's working memory, thereby leading to poorer comprehension. The literature reviewed seems to support Foroughi et al. (2015) when glosses require readers to move away from the text, whether through hyperlinks to other pages or to a paper dictionary or glossary outside of the text page. When glosses are placed non-interlinearly, readers spend more time away from texts. Consequently, text comprehension may at the very least require a reader to return to previous passages for re-reading. The finding of Farvardin and Biria (2011) that multiple-choice glosses are less effective than other types provides further evidence of this phenomenon. Considering re-reading has itself been proposed as a language learning strategy (Cheng & Good, 2009), returning to a text for re-reading is not necessarily detrimental to language learning in general. However, if the purpose of exposure through reading is for the sake of increasing fluency through independent reading for incidental language learning, gloss placement may be an important consideration. Glosses most effective are simple and with close proximity to the reader's text.

Several studies cited within this review tested reading comprehension by asking participants to recall the text. However, this method has been challenged as disadvantageous for some student groups (e.g., Carlisle, 1999). Furthermore, Chang (2006) demonstrated that translation tasks are a better predictor of reading comprehension among L2 language learners than text recall. Perhaps text recall in addition to a secondary reading comprehension evaluation may offer a more well-rounded understanding of how well a learner has comprehended a given text, a recommendation echoed by Cheng and Good (2009). Indeed, Chen (2016) compared the effect of gloss location on the reading comprehension of 95 participants using both summary writing and multiple choice, finding results dependent upon the method of assessment: in-text glosses outperformed marginal glosses when summary writing was assessed, yet marginal glosses outperformed in-text glosses when participants were assessed using multiple choice testing.

Despite the ever-increasing number of gloss studies being published, several questions still remain, in part because of the absence in reporting study details. First, as can be seen in Table 3, glossing studies often fail to report the length of the text used for the study, making it difficult for readers to critically consider whether the number of glossed words for the text may have created a burden on the reader. Arguably, at a certain point, the interruption of reading that checking numerous glosses requires may be cognitively taxing to readers. Table 3 also reveals an absence in reporting text readability coupled with participant proficiency levels.

TABLE 3
TEXT INFORMATION

Study	# Texts	Average Length	Text Genre	Average Readability	Readability Measure
AbuSeileek (2008)	7	1,000	Canonical Literature	Intermediate	ESL Text
Akbulut (2007)	1	1,330	Academic/Expository	Grade 3-4	Flesch-Kincaid
Al Ghafli (2011)	1	902	Academic/Expository	N/R	N/R
Alharbi (2018)	1	505	Academic/Expository	Advanced	Other
Arpaci (2016)	1	285	N/R	Grade 7.2	Flesch-Kincaid
Azari et al. (2012)	6	N/R	Academic/Expository	Grade 14.9	Flesch-Kincaid
Babaie Shalmani & Razmjopo (2015)	10	N/R	Academic/Expository	N/R	N/R
Babaie Shalmani & Sabet (2010)	5	N/R	Academic/Expository	N/R	N/R
Cha (2007)	2	525	Academic/Expository	N/R	N/R
Chen & Yen (2013)	16	185	N/R	Intermediate	ESL Text
Cheng & Good (2009)	1	207	Academic/Expository	Grade 7	Fry-Graph
Dilenschneider (2017)	4	220	Academic/Expository	Grade 8	Flesch-Kincaid
Elekaei et al. (2015)	1	N/R	N/R	Intermediate	ESL Text
Fahimipour & Hashemian (2013)	1	N/R	N/R	TOEFL	TOEFL
Farvardin & Biria (2011)	2	916	Narrative; Expository	Grade 11	Flesch-Kincaid
Hamdi (2015)	2	369	N/R	N/R	N/R
Hashemian & Fadaei (2013)	1	N/R	N/R	TOEFL	TOEFL
Jenpattarakul (2012)	N/R	N/R	N/R	N/R	N/R
Karbalaei & Zare (2019)	1	449	Academic/Expository	Intermediate	Other
Karimvand (2019)	1	N/R	N/R	N/R	ESL Text
Karimvand (2020)	1	573	N/R	Grade 10.5	Flesch-Kincaid
Ko (2005)	1	931	Nonfiction Narrative	Grade 10.4	Flesch-Kincaid
Kongtawee & Sappapan (2018)	4	242	Academic/Expository	Grade 6.5	Flesch-Kincaid
Lee et al. 2016	1	893	Academic/Expository	Advanced	ESL Text
Levine et al. (2004)	3	500	Academic/Expository	Advanced	N/R
Majuddin (2014)	2	185	Academic/Expository	N/R	ESL Text
Marefat et al. (2016)	1	461	Academic/Expository	Pre-Intermed	ESL Text
Marzban (2011)	2	335	Academic/Expository	Grade 8.8	SMOG
Melhi (2014)	1	N/R	N/R	N/R	N/R
Sadeghi & Ahmadi (2012)	2	300	Academic/Expository	N/R	Other
Sadeghi et al. (2017)	4	N/R	Academic/Expository	Upper-Inter	Flesch-Kincaid
Salimi & Elham Sadat (2019)	8	N/R	N/R	Grade 7.8	Flesch-Kincaid
Türk & Erçetin (2014)	1	980	Academic/Expository	N/R	Other
Wang & Lee (2021)	8	350	N/A	Advanced	CET-4
Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh (2014)	10	N/R	N/R	Elementary	ESL Text
Zolfagharijooya (2013)	4	380	Academic/Expository	Grade 9.2	Flesch-Kincaid

Note: N/R means information not reported; “Other” means that the researcher(s) described a method of ensuring that text readability matched the participant level although no readability was measured; “ESL Test” means that the readability level was determined by the publisher of the text; CET-4 refers to the national test of English required for English-instruction university students in China (Zheng & Cheng, 2008).

As recommended by Taylor (2010), matching readability level with participant level is critical for learner comprehension. As noted in Table 4, glossing studies surprisingly often fail to report the language of the glosses being examined; the addition of this information may help answer the question of which contexts favor L1 glosses and for which contexts English glosses are more advantageous.

TABLE 4
GLOSSING INFORMATION

Study	# of Items Glossed	Gloss Language	Gloss Location
AbuSeileek (2008)	270	English	IV
Akbulut (2007)	42	English	Interlinear Pop-up
Al Ghaffli (2011)	59	Arabic; English	Interlinear Pop-up
Alharbi (2018)	18	IV	N/R
Arpaci (2016)	16	IV	N/R
Azari et al. (2012)	30	N/R	N/R
Babaie Shalmani & Razmjopo (2015)	153	N/R	Interlinear Pop-up
Babaie Shalmani & Sabet (2010)	N/R	N/R	N/R
Cha (2007)	14	English	Page Bottom
Chen & Yen (2013)	128	English	IV
Cheng & Good (2009)	16	IV	IV
Dilenschneider (2017)	24	English	Hyperlink
Elekaei et al. (2015)	28	N/R	IV
Fahimipour & Hashemian (2013)	N/R	English; Persian	N/R
Farvardin & Biria (2011)	60	IV	N/R
Hamdi (2015)	N/R	N/R	IV
Hashemian & Fadaei (2013)	N/R	N/R	N/R
Jenpattarakul (2012)	N/R	English	N/R
Karbalaei & Zare (2019)	20	N/R	Margin
Karimvand (2019)	21	Persian	N/R
Karimvand (2020)	56	IV	Margin
Ko (2005)	22	IV	N/R
Kongtawee & Sappapan (2018)	40	IV	Hyperlink
Lee et al. 2016	30	English	Interlinear Pop-up
Levine et al. (2004)	30	English	Hyperlink
Majuddin (2014)	12	English	Page Bottom
Marefat et al. (2016)	14	Persian	IV
Marzban (2011)	N/R	N/R	Hyperlink
Melhi (2014)	N/R	N/R	Hyperlink
Sadeghi & Ahmadi (2012)	14	N/R	N/R
Sadeghi et al. (2017)	24	English	Margin
Salimi & Elham Sadat (2019)	N/R	N/R	N/R
Türk & Erçetin (2014)		English	Marginal Pop-up
Wang & Lee (2021)	80	N/R	IV
Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh (2014)	30	N/R	N/R
Zolfagharijooya (2013)	39	N/R	Margin

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

More robust studies that simply compare gloss languages to determine differences in efficacy and the role of learner proficiency in this process would be beneficial to English teachers. Rott (2007) found higher comprehension of main ideas when the same target item was glossed multiple times throughout a German text. Perhaps a replication study of English learners could provide insight into the role of gloss and frequency of target items, particularly one that accounts for dispersion, and second language teachers could benefit from a body of research identifying an optimal range of glossed words for a given text length. Furthermore, of all glossing studies located, none examined the glossing of lexical bundles or collocations to aid in reading comprehension¹. Finally, English teachers may benefit from examinations of the effect of genre on glossing efficacy, particularly in light of findings by Farvardin and Biria (2011) that gloss language and text genre may have interaction effects.

As can be seen in Table 5, the participants of glossing studies are most often tertiary students or adults enrolled in language institutions. This may explain why only 16% of glossing studies include individuals with proficiencies below the intermediate level. Thus, more glossing studies of beginning learners as well as those in primary and secondary contexts may be useful. One glossing study, Chen and Yen (2013), suggests that proficiency level may play a role in not only in how effective glossing is for reading comprehension but also in determining which gloss type (e.g., pictorial, textual, or both) is most effective for enhancing reading comprehension. Consequently, glossing studies employing analyses that measure the impact of varied proficiency levels may also help untangle the mixed findings of extant research.

¹ Glossing studies of lexical bundles have taken place in other L2 learning contexts (See Bell and LeBlanc, 2000)

TABLE 5
STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Study	L1	#	Prof Level	Context	Proficiency Measurement
AbuSeileek (2008)	Arabic	78	Intermediate	Tertiary	Other
Akbulut (2007)	Turkish	69	Advanced	Tertiary	IELTS
Al Ghafli (2011)	Arabic	222	Intermediate	Adults	Other
Alharbi (2018)	Arabic	72	Intermediate; Advanced	Tertiary	Other
Arpaci (2016)	Turkish	81	Beginner	Secondary	CEFR
Azari et al. (2012)	Persian	76	Beginner	Tertiary	TOEFL
Babaie Shalmani & Razmjopo (2015)	Persian	187	Intermediate	Tertiary	IELTS
Babaie Shalmani & Sabet (2010)	Persian	120	Intermediate	Tertiary	IELTS
Cha (2007)	Korean	26	Homogeneous	Tertiary	Other
Chen & Yen (2013)	Mandarin	83	Homogeneous	Tertiary	GEPT
Cheng & Good (2009)	Chinese	135	*IV	Tertiary	MTELP
Dilenschneider (2017)	Japanese	84	Low-Intermediate	Tertiary	CEFR
Elekaei et al. (2015)	Persian	140	Intermediate	Adults	MTELP
Fahimipour & Hashemian (2013)	Persian	60	Homogeneous	Adults	TOEFL
Farvardin & Biria (2011)	Persian	108	N/R	Adults	N/R
Hamdi (2015)	Arabic	44	Homogeneous	Tertiary	Other
Hashemian & Fadaei (2013)	Persian	60	Homogeneous	Adults	TOEFL
Jenpattarakul (2012)	Thai	30	N/R	Tertiary	N/R
Karbalaei & Zare (2019)	Persian	77	Intermediate	Tertiary	PET
Karimvand (2019)	Persian	80	Homogeneous	Secondary	N/R
Karimvand (2020)	Turkish	60	Advanced	Tertiary	OPT
Ko (2005)	Korean	94	Intermediate	Adults	Other
Kongtawee & Sappapan (2018)	Thai	83	Intermediate; Advanced	Secondary	Other
Lee et al. 2016	Korean	80	Intermediate	Tertiary	TOEIC
Levine et al. (2004)	Hebrew	55	Advanced	Tertiary	Other
Majuddin (2014)	Multiple	33	N/R	primary	N/R
Marefat et al. (2016)	Persian	39	Beginner	Tertiary	N/R
Marzban (2011)	Persian	40	Beginner	Tertiary	OPT
Melhi (2014)	Arabic	38	Homogeneous	Tertiary	IELTS
Sadeghi & Ahmadi (2012)	Persian	60	Upper-Intermediate	Adults	KEY
Sadeghi et al. (2017)	Persian	135	Upper-Intermediate	Tertiary	N/R
Salimi & Elham Sadat (2019)	Persian	60	Intermediate	Adults	N/R
Türk & Erçetin (2014)	Turkish	82	Upper-Intermediate	Secondary	CEFR
Wang & Lee (2021)	Chinese	160	Homogeneous	Tertiary	Other
Zarei & Mahmoodzadeh (2014)	Persian	65	Low-Intermediate	Tertiary	KEY
Zolfagharijooya (2013)	Persian	100	Homogeneous	Tertiary	OPT

*IV = Independent Variable

Note: OPT refers to the Oxford Placement Test; TOEIC refers to the Test of English for International Communication; IELTS refers to the International English Language Testing System; PET refers to the General English Proficiency Test; MTELP refers to the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency; GEPT refers to the General English Proficiency Test. “Other” includes local proficiency examinations, cases where proficiency were determined by the researcher, or determinations were made through years of English study, level of English study, or course grades. “N/R” means no explanation was provided for how proficiency was determined. For studies with IV proficiency levels, proficiency levels were included as part of the study.

VI. CONCLUSION

The body of research on the use of English glosses—defined as providing definitions, visual aids, or translations to assist English language readers with text comprehension—offers evidence that preparing texts in this manner is a promising way to facilitate text comprehension for English learners. Indeed, learners themselves often reveal a preference for having glosses available. Research supports offering both L1 and English glosses to readers and placing them near the words being defined. Words chosen for glossing should be semantically important but sparsely located throughout the text. However, the lack of reporting by many studies on details such as the gloss language, the gloss location, and the genre and length of the text used makes some generalizations difficult, as does the absence of robust studies examining the role and interaction effects of these factors as well as participant proficiency levels in glossing efficacy. Because reading is foundational to English learning, glossing seems to provide an efficient way to enhance readability while assisting readers with incidental language learning. Consequently, determining the ranges and conditions within which English glosses may be best used to enhance such learning seems a worthwhile endeavor.

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Review of Literature on Teaching English Vocabularies Through Games to Young Language Learners

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Abstract—In the last two decades, learning English has become a popular activity in Iran (Sadeghi & Richards, 2015). There has been a remarkable increase in the number of private language schools in the country. In Iran, interest in English has risen due to the status of the language as a lingua franca and its necessity for technical, scientific, and economic developments. Meanwhile, vocabulary is deemed as one of the most crucial aspects of learning a language. Currently, vocabularies are taught through traditional methods; therefore, young learners lose their interest over time. This paper aims to substantiate that games are profoundly effective in teaching vocabularies and affect young learners' motivation and engagement with the language. This paper presents a review of literature on teaching English vocabularies through games to young English language learners in Iran. It discusses the practical instructions of games and how games could be taught more effectively. It describes the suitability and implication of games and how they should be selected and implemented by teachers. Three games are introduced for teaching vocabularies and followed by a discussion on the inherent challenges of teaching vocabularies through games.

Index Terms—vocabulary, game, young learners, teaching English, challenges

I. INTRODUCTION

English is the lingua franca due to its pervasiveness among people for communication. Different sectors such as business, academia and multiple industries benefit from English to expand their fields (Naraghizadeh & Barimani, 2013). The significance of English as an international language and people's interest in learning it has been explored in the literature (Crystal, 2003). Similar to many other countries, a surge in learning English is not an exception in the Middle East and Iran in particular.

Iranians learn English in public and private language schools as official foreign language of the country. However, many students graduating from public secondary schools cannot hold a basic conversation in English unless they take part in private English classes (Dorshomal, Gorjian, & Pazhakh, 2013). Numerous Iranian students enrol in private language schools as they are the key players in effective English language education (Haghighi & Norton, 2016; Moharami, 2020). Unlike public school education which focuses on grammar and the structure of the language, private schools provide a comprehensive view and address all the required skills a language learner needs (Maleki, Ghasemi, & Moharami, 2015).

Many believe that syntax and grammar is the skeleton of the language. However, there is a consensus in the literature that vocabulary is “the vital organs and flesh” of the language (Hammer, 1991, p. 153). Learning vocabularies in a new language is an important domain as it ties together all four macro-skills (i.e., speaking, reading, writing, and listening) (Nguyen & Khuat, 2003).

Vocabulary has been interpreted as words and phrases explaining things about a concept (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2006). I believe vocabulary is the meaning and soul of a language. Linguists argue that vocabulary is an indispensable part of a language regardless if it is the L1 or L2 (Decarrico, 2001). Furthermore, linguists accept that teaching vocabularies should be the first step in new language education as it paves the path for good communication (Coady & Huckin, 1997). In addition, language is learned in ‘chunks’, and it is these ‘chunks’ that form a coherent whole.

Occasionally, learning vocabularies can be frustrating for young learners (Ersoz, 2000). This opinion lies in our understanding of communication; when a student does not have a wide vocabulary range, it agitates the addressee and makes them terminate further communication (Wallace, 1982).

Due to the importance of vocabularies in a new language, traditional teaching methods are replaced with modern methodologies (Thornbury, 2006). Therefore, teachers use games to decrease the difficulties that younger learners face acquiring the L2. Gaining vocabulary competency is a time-consuming process (Stahl, 2005). Currently, new teachers are inclined to employ games in teaching vocabularies more than before (Halliwell 1992).

Although games have a positive impact, teachers occasionally overlook the inherent challenges and limitations of using games in teaching vocabulary. Teachers mainly employ games as a tool to prepare the class for the reception of new educational content or fill in the extra time after teaching (Khosravi, Moharami, & Karimkhanlouei, 2014). Usually, at the very beginning of class, teachers use games as an ice breaker or at the end when there is no other task at hand.

Many teachers are not familiar with the application and usage of games in language teaching and ignore their effectiveness. Teachers do not take games seriously and overlook the significance they have in language education. Rixon (1991) suggests that games can be implemented at any stage of a lesson, if they are appropriate and intertwine with what students are learning. Lee (1979) holds the opinion that games need to be at the centre of the teaching and learning cycle, not the peripheral. Richard-Amato (1988) mentions a similar idea as he contends that games are amusing and teachers should not disregard their pedagogical value.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Teaching vocabulary has been neglected for many years and is often not taken seriously (Carter, 1998). However, it is gaining momentum as an innovative strategy to engage learners; replacing the traditional grammar-based approach. While this methodology is not valued in traditional settings, most notably, the Middle East and parts of Asia, it is taking root in the private sector and progressive institutions.

Vocabulary is regarded as the key factor linking all skills required in communication (Huyen & Nga, 2003). It is crucial for people who are learning a new language to improve their lexical repertoire. Learners with a large lexical resource understand different layers of meaning. This knowledge can be transferred to more specific tasks; tasks that engage learners with the target language. Krashen highlights the 'input hypothesis' where language is acquired in meaningful interactions. Games that are structured in such a way, assist learners in linking 'chunks' of language (i.e., vocabulary) to real-life situations.

According to Gairns and Redman (1986), three techniques utilised in teaching vocabulary include,

1. Visual aids: this helps students to associate what they learn in a meaningful way. This technique is considered useful for vocabulary retention. Students taught with visual aids learn the language faster (Uberman, 1998);
2. Verbal techniques: this means using synonyms, illustrative situations and opposites.
3. Dictionaries: students learn the meanings of words and model their language on the samples given.

There are different dictionaries with multiple outcomes, such as bilingual, monolingual, pictorial, and thesauri. Allen believes that dictionaries are "passports to independence", with students gaining autonomy in their learning (1983, p.57).

However, despite various educational methods, most Iranian young language learners forget new words and they do not know how or when to use them. This issue is due to several factors including inappropriate memorisation, inadequate practice and students' lack of interest or passion in learning the language (Rohani & Pourgharib, 2013).

Learners of English encounter many new words as they develop their target language. Therefore, they need to adopt different strategies to practice what they learn. Good examples of this include participating in guessing and descriptive tasks or making conversation (Huyen & Nga 2003). Along with students, teachers should implement various teaching methods to accommodate vocabulary learning for students as well.

It is believed that games pave the way for both students and teachers to have productive educational sessions. In other words, employing games in the class not only increase teachers' efficacy but also keep young language learners active or engaged in the class. Hung, Yang, Hwang, Chu, and Wang (2018) summarised eight games including immersive games, tutorial games, exergames, simulation games, adventure games, music games, board games, alternate reality games, immersive games and tutorial games are the most occurring ones.

Three games are very popular in the Iranian context and will be the focus of this study which includes;

- *Back to the board*,
- *Bingo*,
- *Pictionary*

The audience of these games are young language learners, and I have explored them further down. From author one's experience, he adds that these games are frequently employed in language schools in Iran. 'Back to the board' easily entertains young learners in the Iranian educational context. Efendi's (2013) study showed '*Back to the Board*' improves students' vocabulary learning and achievement. The results of another study also showed that the vocabulary game '*Bingo*' increases Iranian English language students' motivation in learning vocabulary (Al-Masri & Najar, 2014). I have witnessed that '*Pictionary*' had a profound effect on students' learning and it is highly regarded among Iranian teachers.

III. YOUNG LEARNERS

Young learners are aged between five to twelve years old, studying in primary school (Ersoz, 2007). According to Slattery and Willis (2001), young learners are characterised by several attributes, namely curiosity, imagination, and playfulness. In general, they learn by listening, watching, modelling, and practising. Teachers must consider the fact that their level is not a sign of maturity. Philips (1993) mentions numerous factors affecting the maturity of children including their gender, culture, environment, and parents. It is interesting to note that young learners cannot recognise the imaginary world from the real world (Ghasemi & Moharami, 2014). Therefore, the situation is difficult for the teachers to understand young learners' perceptions to get along with the students.

According to Vygotsky (1962), children build up their knowledge by socialising and interacting. In other words, they need to participate in practical experiences to learn effectively (Donaldson, 1978; Hughes, 1986; Daneshfar &

Moharami, 2018). Young learners cannot concentrate for a long time however they have very high energy, so it is the best strategy to engage them in physical activities or games that include physical activities.

Phillips (1993) contends young learners are reserved and hold concerns toward learning a new language. Therefore, he stresses that teachers should benefit from games and improvise creativity to make educational activities less boring and simplified. The pleasure of games strengthens language learning and its depth. Language and accompanied entertainment complement each other. The combination of language and entertaining activities make learning meaningful and relevant. Children learn about their surroundings much easier through games, with the development of language skills a by-product of this activity.

IV. THE DEFINITION OF A GAME

The use of learning games has dramatically increased in educational contexts, leading to the emergence of game-based learning as a recognised field. According to Klopfer, Osterweil, and Salen, (2009), a learning game is defined as a playful activity that consists of rules and regulations for the pursuit of quantifiable outcomes and incorporates educational objectives. Rogers, Miller and Hennigan (1981) also mentioned that games have specific goals and regulations. Games are fixed activities with a clear start and end and have a winner at the very end (Rixon, 1991).

Games and plays have been differentiated within the literature. Games are rule-based whereas plays are open-ended and without a defined purpose. Games are not used for mere playing as they have specific functions that can help the teachers and students (Piskozub, 1995). Games can be categorised into physical activities and computerised games. This study focuses on physical games as this is more evident and significant in teaching young language learners.

As Piskozub (1995) mentions, the interaction of the classroom and the organisation of work is one of the functions of the games. The rules and regulations of a game shape students' concentration on the content of the lesson. Piskozub (1995) believes that games are motivational. In other words, games make students more interested and engaged in the lesson. Moreover, games also have a didactic function. The fun and entertaining nature of games help students to develop their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar much better (Piskozub, 1995). It is also interesting to note that games draw students' attention and that they are less likely to become distracted. Games involving physical movement keep students alert and cautious; in other words, learners do not become bored quickly and the alleviating of their mood fortifies and consolidates what they learn.

Knowing different types of games allows teachers to adopt innovative strategies that engage younger learners. Each game has its advantages and disadvantages, with some more suited to beginners, and others to those who already have basic lexis. In addition, students who have developed their L1 can use their language base to acquire and familiarise themselves with the L2. Teachers need to recognise this, staging different games for students at different levels of their learning.

Why should teachers use games? Firstly, games provide a chance for learners to be active, dominant and strengthen their skills to compete, in collaboration with, other members of the class (Ersoz, 2000; Orlick, 2006). Secondly, games make classes entertaining and more importantly, they create an atmosphere and situation that is ready for better communication before, during, and after the game (Wright, Betteridge, & Buckby, 2005). A decrease in young learners' anxiety is another important effect of playing games (Richard-Amato, 1988), especially students who are shy and need to connect with their peers (Uberman, 1998). Furthermore, games can cover all the core macro-skills, including speaking, writing, listening, and reading (Soyoo & Jokar, 2014).

V. TEACHING VOCABULARY THROUGH GAMES TO YOUNG ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

The heart of a language is vocabulary; without an adequate lexical resource, students are unable to communicate effectively (Cárdenas, 2004). Halliwell (1992) points out that children are naturally creative and that teachers need to pave the way by establishing a comfortable learning atmosphere. Educational games meet this demand: they are a valuable platform for language learning and foster the development of natural communication (Donmus, 2010).

Vocabulary is mostly taught separately and out of context in language schools in Iran, receiving extensive criticism (Al Neyadi, 2007). Studies have shown that traditional teaching methods are out-of-date, especially methodologies such as 'grammar translation' and the 'audiolingual' approach. Riahipour and Saba (2012) argue that old methods like memorising a long list of words, gap-fill exercises, and translating are tedious, and students become demotivated. Finally, they highlight that memorising long lists of words, without the fabric of the language, is meaningless and ineffective.

Aghlari and Tamjid (2011) suggest students using games with a vocabulary-led focus have the lead in comparison with students who use traditional methods. Aslanabadi and Rasouli (2013) explored the impact of games on Iranian English language learners' vocabulary development in nursery schools. The findings showed that not only games added fun and energy to the cohort but also helped them to build up their self-confidence.

Games are indeed crucial because they add diversion and act as an icebreaker. Teachers with a good repertoire of games take their learners further (Rixon, 1991). Nonetheless, teachers must be cautious in selecting the most suitable games for their students as some are not as conducive to language acquisition as others (Uberman, 1998). In Teacher Training Courses (TTC) teacher trainers are encouraging novices to use games to teach vocabulary. Games are

becoming popular in teaching and learning foreign languages and scholars are conducting more research to find out their effects on young learners' achievements.

Vernon (2009) argues that games are effective in teaching vocabulary as they draw students' attention. This allows the application of analytical skills nurtured with meaningful content. They speak, engage, and think about their answers. They use the language and do not merely repeat it. Dolati and Mikaili (2011) also investigated the impact of games on the retention of vocabulary. They found that games can be used in education and can motivate inactive and quiet students to participate in whole-class activities.

Games make learning easier, relaxing, and motivational for young learners. Through games, students learn the language in a meaningful way and via authentic experiences (Lee, 1979). Scholars and linguists are unanimous about the motivational nature of games (Bakhsh, 2016; Chen, 2005; Ersoz, 2000; Al-Masri & Najar, 2014). Moreover, games instigate positive competition among young learners (Derakhshan & Khatir, 2015). Games act as a stimulator for learning, as they push learners towards interaction and engagement; with a motivation to succeed, students inadvertently develop the language skills required to do this, with vocabulary at centre stage (Allen, 1983). Games decrease stress, and as a result, students stay focused and learn better (Ajibade & Ndububa, 2008; Chen, 2005; Al-Masri & Najar, 2014). Games not only enable language acquisition, but the vocabulary learned is usually framed within the cultural dynamic in which they come from. Many surveys have confirmed that games have a profound effect on learning a foreign language (Chen, 2005).

VI. PRACTICAL INSTRUCTIONS USING GAMES

Teachers should follow a two-step process when targeting the acquisition of vocabulary. Step one is grouping. This means teachers should allocate seating arrangements so that students sit close to each other and their peers. Such an arrangement promotes student talk-time and meaningful interaction, that is, the application of the language both before, during and post-game activity. Peer correction within an authentic language setting foster learning and the practice of the target language. Phillips (1993) notes that teachers should consider the number of students per group as it may bring about counterproductive results. He points out that a group of more than five will be challenging to control.

There are different kinds of strategies that teachers can adapt to deal with such problems. For example, teachers can tell students that they are in, Group A, Group B, and Group C, then they make them A's, B's, and C's to sit together. The other way of grouping is by the learners' month of birth. For example, January's together, February's together and so on.

Another possible solution is giving explanations and instructions that should be taken seriously. Giving Instruction Checking Questions (ICQ) is the most significant factor that teachers should consider. It is crucial to give a precise explanation at the very beginning of the game to shed a light on the purpose or why students are 'doing this'. Through clear instructions, students usually do not become confused and they are aware of their roles, the does and don'ts, which inadvertently increases their self-confidence.

Cameron (2001) also states that there are factors that are necessary for the teacher to follow besides knowledge and skill. Teachers should be encouraged to be more curious about their students' learning and thinking. More importantly, the teachers should find what makes learners interested and utilise them in the class. The teacher can use various ways such as mime, body movements and gestures to teach (Rixon, 1991).

VII. THE SUITABILITY AND IMPLICATION OF GAMES

Appropriateness is considered one of the most important factors for choosing a game. Games should be chosen carefully as they might not bring the desired results (Uberman, 1998). One factor which has a profound effect on choosing a game is the required time for completion. According to Piskozub (1994) games have limited time. Therefore, the teacher should decide on the amount of time spent on a task based on the student's level, the number of students and knowledge.

A game must be in correlation with students' age and level in which the class would reach its proper aims. Not all the games are suitable for students. Every student in a grade or level requires a specific subject, material, and type of game. For instance, games involving movements, competition and imitating are perfect for young age learners (Piskozub, 1994). Evaluating games can be useful when teachers want to choose a game.

As Piskozub (1995) notes, the age of a learner plays a very important role in the selection of games. Teachers should consider students' levels. Even, the most interesting and dynamic games cannot serve their purpose properly if the content of the new language goes beyond the level of students.

Hong (2002) states that if teachers want to have a proper choice of game for the lesson, they should take various factors into accounts such as the goal of a lesson, the focus of a language and the learners and technical factors.

Hong (2002) stated that a list of questions gives direction to games, including:

- Which language skill want to be introduced or practised based on the given name?
- Is the game in correlation with the students' age, skills, knowledge, and interest?
- Is it beneficial for the students?
- What are the positive results of using that game?

- Do the teachers need to alter the game, or they can use it in its original form? If the teacher needs to alter that, is it difficult to implement?
- Are there adequate activities in the games so that students can participate and interact in the game?

These questions can highly decrease the chance of choosing an inappropriate game.

According to Halliwell (1992), games should ignite learners' imagination, involving their creativity, and not stifle their creativity. Therefore, games should bring fantasy. After a game has been chosen the implementation comes. According to Dobson (1997), many aspects should be considered when implementing a game in a foreign language. First, the instructor should have a full understanding of the game and its regulations. Moreover, the instructor should have a lesson plan to cover the sessions' direction. It is also important that the teacher make sure whether the game is entertaining or not and if not change it. Second, involvement is another crucial aspect that a teacher should consider. The game should make students more engaged and involved. Third, in the middle or end of the teaching, the instructor should play a game. That teacher should explain the rules at the beginning of the game. Forth, the teacher should control the discipline of a class during a game and use encouragement, when necessary. In fact, during a game, a class may become disorganised. Therefore, the teacher should use its authority to control them. During grouping, the teacher should group the students equally and not all the professionals with each other and fewer professionals with each other. Dobson (1997) mentions many experts hold the opinion that a teacher should make permanent groups. Lastly, when a game becomes boring the teacher should change it. He recommended never play a repetitive game for a long period because it makes students bored.

VIII. THREE EXAMPLES THAT CAN BE USED FOR TEACHING VOCABULARIES

There has been an increase in the popularity of games in teaching vocabulary to young learners. Games give identity to students to have better confidence. To explore how the theory is translated into practise, I propose and discuss the three most common games in Iran.

The first game is called '*Back to the board*'. This miming game is used to review vocabulary. In this game, the teacher divides the students into two teams and then one student from each team comes to the front of the class and sits opposite the board. The teacher should write three words on the board behind the players and the students should mime them. The teacher also should make sure that the words can be mimed. When the teacher says 'go', both teams start to mime the words for their players. The player who guesses the word correctly will get a point for the team.

The second game is called '*Bingo*'. In this game, the instructor writes ten words on the board and every student chooses five words and writes them down. After that, the teacher chooses a word randomly without saying it and gives its definition or synonym to the students. If a student guessed the right word, he or she should shout bingo.

The third game is called '*Pictionary*'. In this game, the class should be divided into two teams. Each team will sit on the opposite side of the classroom. A student from both teams will be asked to come to the board where the teacher will give out a word or phrase for students to be drawn on the board as a clue. The team who guesses the word will get the point.

The reason that I have chosen these games is their emphasis on teaching vocabularies through repetition and engagement, they become dominant in young learners' minds. Secondly, when I was an English teacher in Iran, the supervisor of the teaching school asked teachers to implement these games in the class and the main researcher has first-hand experience of implementing them in the classroom. The supervisor described these games in detail and emphasised the importance of these games are and how I should implement them. In the beginning, I as teachers did not believe in these kinds of games and I thought that would be a waste of time but as time went by teachers noticed how effective the games are and more importantly, students were fond of those games and asked us to implement it much more in the class.

IX. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The primary purpose of the current paper is to discuss the efficacy of games in teaching vocabulary to young learners. It is evident from the literature that games are influential in teaching vocabulary to young learners. It was discussed that games bring fun and energy to the class. By employing games students will be more energetic and delighted. Furthermore, games also boost their confidence and motivation to learn more efficiently. In classes with newcomer students who are not familiar with other classmates, games act as an ice breaker to get them more intimate with each other. Also, games highlight vocabularies so that students can learn faster and unconsciously while playing. Games create a relaxed and stress-free atmosphere for students in which enhances the educational outcome.

There are some notes for teachers as well. Even though games have substantiated that they are very influential in teaching vocabulary, they may still bring about some challenges for the teachers and the students.

Firstly, time management; teachers cannot control the time of the class during the games. One issue that many teachers face in playing games is time management. In other words, the teacher cannot find enough time to recap or practice at the very end of the game and the outcome may generate disappointing results.

Secondly, the atmosphere of the class; during the games students shout and move a lot so the class becomes uncontrollable. One of the noticeable issues is the atmosphere of the class that could be very chaotic and disorganised.

Usually, during the games, children move a lot, and they also have lots of physical movements and more importantly, we hear lots of shouts and noises. To control these kinds of classes, the instructor should be fully aware of the students' personality traits to prepare the atmosphere for proper learning (Brown, 2001).

Thirdly, students' native language; usually during the games students only use their mother tongues and not English. Young learners tend to use their first language more than other languages. In this situation, the teacher should adopt a specific strategy and that strategy is responding in English although they speak in their mother language. Otherwise, the teacher could face a chaotic class.

Fourthly, anxiety and depression; playing games can make students a bit anxious because of the results. According to (Chuang, 2007) games can cause many harmful outcomes such as anxiety and depression. Chuang's (2007) study has proven that students' anxiety may increase as a result of being humiliated in front of other classmates.

Lastly, time fillers. Games are regarded as time fillers and teachers do not take them seriously. Silvers (1982) believes that many teachers are interested in using games as a teaching device. However, they often perceive them as time fillers. Silvers (1982) also mentions that many teachers ignore the fact that in a relaxing atmosphere real learning takes place. From my experience, I can say that in the English language institute that I used to teach in Iran most of the teachers were aliens to the games and they considered games as something worthless and distracting but gradually as time went by the supervisor held some meetings to get teachers more acquainted with the usage they have in teaching.

Game-based teaching approaches makes language learning more interesting and exciting (Soyoo, Jokar, Razavizadegan, & Morovat, 2014). Teachers of young learners' should use their creativity and imagination to bring new and interesting games to the class so that the students will not get tired. Harmer (2001) states that young learners easily get tired and demotivated. Therefore, they cannot sit for a long period and do repetitive tasks. Besides, as mentioned earlier, the capacity of their attention is very low. Consequently, they easily get tired and because of that, the tasks should be very engaging and amusing.

Even though games have some challenges, limitation and teachers regard them as a time filler, this paper indicated that using educational games will enhance student's language learning. Games have challenges and issues; they are substantially influential, and their strengths outweigh their limitations. Games are proven to be effective, and more and more institutions are going toward employing games in their education.

It is recommended that instructors should use those kinds of methods that motivate students to involve and be more creative. By implementing vocabulary games students can learn the language much better. Game-based instruction has not been widely embraced by educators yet. They are used for a short period. Games are indeed helpful because by games teachers can create the context for students to use the language in a meaningful and useful way. Rohani and Pourgharib (2013) point out that by using games, the teacher can make a variety of contexts so that students can use the language for communication, exchanging information and expressing their opinions.

Learning vocabularies is the basis of students' level of comprehension (Nation, 2001; Radev, Hovy, & McKeown, 2002). Teaching vocabularies through games to English young learners allow them to learn better and efficiently. Games have broad usages in education, not only in teaching vocabularies but also, in various disciplines and areas such as teaching grammar and listening. Therefore, more investigations should be conducted by scholars to get more acquainted with the games and their usages.

Instructors need to use new and modern strategies to boost students' vocabulary knowledge such as games, drama and computer-assisted language learning (Rohani & Pourgharib, 2013). Games are indeed an influential and useful method rather than revision and presentation (Uberman, 1998). Due to the benefits that educational games have; they are used frequently. Games prepare the students to be responsible to be physically and mentally active. Games are student-oriented rather than teacher-oriented. In other words, the students' talking time will increase in comparison to the teacher talking time. The other factor is that games draw student's attention, make them more engaged, bring fun to the formal academic process and teach students to socialise. Furthermore, students can build up other skills such as turn-taking, working individually or with other team members to a specific aim.

Lastly, introduced games were a key factor in teaching vocabularies to young learners because games keep the children active all the time. As explained above, those three games are a few examples of games and teachers should bear in mind that games should be chosen appropriately.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study previously has been submitted as the author's assignment to Monash University.

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Liberal Feminism: Emphasizing Individualism and Equal Rights in Meena Kandasamy's *When I Hit You*

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Abstract—Liberal feminism is the emerging mainstream feminism that spotlights gender inequality and women's liberation within the context of liberal democracy. The aim of the study focuses on the perspectives of liberal feminism using prominent ideas of liberal thinkers in Meena Kandasamy's award-winning novel *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife* (2017). The methodology of the study includes concepts of liberal feminism in the text, and it is substantiated and explored using the ideologies of notable liberal thinkers such as Mary Wollstonecraft's *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique* and John Stuart Mill's *On Liberty* and *The Subjection of Women*. The protagonist's transition from a submissive to a self-liberated persona strengthens the novel's credibility as a liberal feminist text. The paper also attempts to show that the concepts of liberal feminism very well appear in the selected text.

Index Terms—democracy, gender equality, revival, liberal feminism, empowerment

I. INTRODUCTION

Feminism is an ideology that recognizes that although all men and women are technically considered equal, but are not treated equally. It primarily alleges the universal suffrage of women and the victimization of women by patriarchal dominance. The origin of liberal feminism, or otherwise called "mainstream feminism" or historically referred to as "bourgeois feminism," is grounded in the feminism of the first wave. In the context of liberal politics, first-wave feminism is connected to both the liberal women's rights movements and early socialist feminism (Krolokke and Sorensen 2005).

It claims that women are equally skilled and knowledgeable, but merely because of their gender, opportunities and recognition are withheld. The liberal feminists strived on issues like domestic violence, sexual harassment, educational and legal rights of women in their works. Its key characteristics are to foster women's self-reliance and not to tolerate anything that impedes women's development.

The liberal feminist movement dates back to the 19th century with the advent of Mary Wollstonecraft's *Vindication of the Rights of Women*, recognized as the first liberal feminist treatise, Betty Friedan's *The Feminine Mystique*, an exceptional work that deals with the pervasive dissatisfaction of domestic stereotype among women and John Stuart Mill's *The Subjugation of Women*, in which he asserts that the subordination of women is one of the chief hindrances of not only women's growth but also to human progress. Unlike the widely prevalent misunderstanding that liberal feminism prefers to demand a higher status than men, liberal feminists want women to empower themselves and insist men regard women as their equal counterparts. The notable liberal feminist, Wollstonecraft abbreviates that "I do not wish them [women] to have power over men; but over themselves" (Wollstonecraft 1792).

The purpose of the study focuses on liberal feminism concerning the work of notable Indian writer, Meena Kandasamy. She was nominated as one among the twenty-one short fiction women authors under the age of 40 from South Asia for an anthology published by Zubaan, the country's first feminist publishing house. Her works consist of every issue that relates to liberal feminism. This study is grounded in the autobiographical fiction titled *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife* (2017), shortlisted for the Women's Fiction Prize, the UK's most prestigious award given to women writers, for the year 2018. Her specialization is that she makes her reader aware of the outbreaks of violence that happen to women both internally and externally, and makes women emancipate out of their limited cocoon. As Wollstonecraft says, "It is time to effect a revolution in female manners -- time to restore to them their lost dignity -- and make them, as a part of the human species, labour by reforming themselves to reform the

world. It is time to separate unchangeable morals from local manners” (Wollstonecraft 1792). Similarly, Meena Kandasamy abbreviates, “As long as a woman cannot speak, as long as those to whom she speaks do not listen, the violence is unending” (Kandasamy 2017). She has incorporated her own tormented wedding story, which offers the reader a true image and the intensity of abuse behind closed doors, rather than portraying mere fictional characters.

The succeeding section of the paper divides itself into four sections, namely a review of literature which gives scope to equip about different ideas and concepts of liberal feminism done by different writers in their works. The methodology then deals with the proposed theory and incorporating it into the select work of Meena Kandasamy. The fourth section discussion deals with the observations of the present study with findings in other works. The conclusion provides the findings and solutions to the taken study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The second section of the article deals with a review of literature in which various works of different writers are analyzed in the light of liberal feminism. Accordingly, this section deals with various studies examining the concepts of notable liberal thinkers such as Mary Wollstonecraft, Betty Friedan and John Stuart Mill.

A. The Studies Related to the Concept of Mary Wollstonecraft

The history of liberal feminism begins with Mary Wollstonecraft's *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, a groundbreaking treatise in which Wollstonecraft discusses the suppression of women and the denial of their social ability in their time, with related issues that still resonate in the emancipation movement of women from their families and society as a whole. This can be well understood by Cora Kaplan words, “We must remember to read *A Vindication* [of the Rights of Woman] as its author has instructed us, as a discourse addressed mainly to women of the middle class. Most deeply class-bound is its emphasis on sexuality in its ideological expression, as a mental formation, as the source of woman's oppression” (Kaplan 1986).

The study of Myers eulogizes Wollstonecraft's contribution in bringing woman authority to children's literature. It is implied through the study that works of Georgian children's literature focuses on male characters as dominant figures until the eighteenth century. Myers quotes the words of Elaine Showalter, a notable feminist where she finds, “parents” still means fathers, “children” means sons, and even when documenting a decline in patriarchal authority, critics fail to connect their topic to the “increased authority of mothers”. The researcher rightly points out that, after the advent of Wollstonecraft and her strong emphasis on liberation, the role of Georgian women characters emerges to be liberal in nature, possessing strength, self-possession, family breadwinner, womanly courage, and as a powerful maternal governing power, thus breaking with the stereotypes of the literary tradition of the eighteenth century (Myers 1986; Álvarez 2018). Mayabadi, in the study, relates the view of Mary Wollstonecraft and Thomas Hardy in criticizing women for accepting oppression. In the novel, *Tess of the d'Urbervilles*, the mother of Tess, is portrayed as a victim who supports and acknowledges the oppression conferred upon women folk by socially designed patriarchal structure. She orders her daughter to follow the same and accepts social conventions as they are, but her daughter Tess revolutionizes her mother's blind faith and strives for equality in social relationships. Hardy portrays the characteristics of conventional women and liberated women through these characters (Mayabadi 2012). The study of Turan and Kryci shows that the primary cause of the suffering of Syrian refugee women and children during the Arab uprising was their lack of education. The study emphasizes the significance of Wollstonecraft's education of women in public and private spheres to liberate themselves (Turan and Kryci 2018). Snow's study embraces Wollstonecraft's views on women's virtues and equality of reason by comparing Rousseau's *Emile*, which defines the identity of women as chaste, gentle, dutiful wives and good mothers. He quotes Rousseau's text, “Nature herself has decreed that woman, both for herself and her children, should be at the mercy of man's judgment” which depicts the authoritarian nature of men under patriarchy (Snow 2002). The study of Fais Wahidatul Arifatin addresses the problem of gender stereotyping in Japanese culture by portraying Wollstonecraft's concept of liberal feminism in Joyce Lebra's *The Scent of Sake* through the character of Rie. In contrast to traditional practice, Rie never fails to demonstrate her desire for independence and defies the stereotype that women should not be considered superior to men (Arifatin 2019).

B The Studies Related to the Concept of Betty Friedan

Betty Friedan is a remarkable liberal thinker. *The Feminist Mystique*, her most notable writing, tackles a “problem that has no name”, a sense of women's persistent frustration with their confined gender roles. It caused women to spark their spirit to fight for gender equality vigorously. The study of Wulandari's focuses on liberal feminism within the context of *The Feminine Mystique* by Betty Friedan. Wulandari, in his work, *A Woman is No Man* primarily points out the suppression of women by the character Isra through three generations in which he identified that “Women's worth is seen through their motherhood and marriage.” As depicted in Friedan's work, the woman characters suffer endless torments in terms of gender and Arab culture that require a woman to bear a male child, to stop her education to marry at an early age and nurture her family. Despite rigid conventions, Deya appears to stand up for herself in voicing out her wish to continue her studies and creating awareness to her fellow women as a representative of a liberal feminist attitude (Wulandari 2019; Hariharasudan and Gnanamony 2017). A similar study coincides with the idea of Friedan that men and women must be allowed to exhibit both their masculine and feminine characteristics as humans. The character

of Sophie Neveu, who often guides the male protagonists, reflects this very well. The study conducted by Rini and other researchers, compares the character of Neveu in the novel *The Da Vinci Code*, in the light of liberal feminism, where she gets equal rights, opportunities and financial aids like that of men. The study discovers "Sophie Neveu as a reflection of woman equality that shows masculine qualities character in the novel plays eleven roles, i.e. strong, competitive, courageous, unyielding, full of confidence, independent, more adventurous, aggressive, assertive, smart and generally acting as leaders" (Rini et al. 2020). The study of Rotskoff focuses on the pervasiveness of women's domestic stereotypes with the idea of "watered-down Marxism" by Friedan, which discusses how women are held under domesticity because of consumer capitalism (Rotskoff 2000). The work by Lasahi emphasizes the role of labourers in Catholic and Protestant churches that are hostile to women. It focuses on three aspects, such as Catholic gender disparity, the domination of patriarchy in churches, and the role of women in the Protestant churches. In supporting women's mobility, Lasahi utilizes Friedan's notion of equal opportunity and employment in the workplace. The study assesses how women are neglected from the place of the priesthood and its particular constraint on gender roles (Lasahi 2018; Košta 2014). The study of Hariharasudan implies Friedan's concept of seeking liberation from the male-dominated world through the character of Astha and Pipeelika in Manju Kapoor's *Married Woman*. The woman characters in the story deconstruct conventional practices that impede their self-growth (Hariharasudan and Gnanamony 2017).

C. The Studies Related to the Concept of John Stuart Mill

John Stuart Mill, a prominent liberal thinker, has reiterated the definition of individual freedom in *On Liberty* and *The Subjection of Women*, which remains one of the best reads even today. The study of Michael employs Mill's viewpoints of *The Subjection of Women* through the character of Sarah Woodruff in the novel *The French Lieutenant's Woman*. It abbreviates the inability of the novel to understand Sarah as a human being in her own right is mainly because of the exclusive use of dominant male views and ideologies. The author points out the notion of liberal feminism in the character of Sarah, who eventually moves beyond conventional patriarchal society and identifies herself beyond the male myths about women (Michael 1987). Likewise, Delukman, in his study, explains Mill's idea that women need to live a life of their own, shattering the constraints imposed by a society dominated by men through the concept of idea and language. He brings out the individualistic nature of Nora in Helen Garner's *Monkey Grip*, who raises a daughter as a single parent by providing time for her self-growth and her family as well. Through the concept of language, the author depicts the liberal nature of the woman publicly and openly expressing her sexual desires, which are considered taboo and confined to men to talk about this issue (Delukman 2018).

In connection with Mill's *The Subjection of Women*, Foley's study examines the text of Weldon's *Praxis* in the context of liberal feminism. Exposed to the overwhelming sense of rage and hopelessness due to her male counterpart, Praxis, the protagonist of the novel, violates her abusive husband and the stereotypical position of the woman coined by the patriarchal domain. She joins the women's movement, which eventually frees her life and inspires her fellow women to live their own lives. The central characteristics of liberal feminism can be seen in the behaviour of Praxis, such as gender equality, individual empowerment and self-actualization (Foley 2007). Mayabadi's study compares the similarities between Mill and the view of liberal feminism by Thomas Hardy in the novels *Tess of the d'Urbervilles* and *Jude the Obscure*. The renowned writer Hardy portrays the concept of New Woman through his female characters, namely Tess and Sue, who violate gender inequality prevalent in Victorian society. Despite the strict cultural background, Tess and Sue are active characters who decide on their own in taking decisions and behave according to their laws, which represent the idea of Mill's *On Liberty*. In a society that expects women to be submissive, Tess is portrayed as a bold character who talks about the status quo and the abuses of male domination (Mayabadi 2012). Turan and Kiyici's study highlights the condition of Syrian refugee women and children during the Arab uprising in the context of liberal feminism. The study focuses on the majority of women's participation in the Arab uprising and how women were at the forefront of the protests, speaking out against their injustices. The author scrutinizes Mill's liberal feminism as an instrument to refute the male-dominant system (Turan and Kryci 2018). The study of Snow correlates David Hume's *A Treatise of Human Nature* and Rousseau's *Emile* with Mill's liberation of personal autonomy in the book *The Subjection of Women*. Snow points to the double standards of writers, focusing in particular on male supremacy and female subordination. The outcome of the study examines that the writers believe that women and men are not equal, although they should have a varying degree if considered equal (Snow 2002). The study of Jose discusses the connecting element that leads to women's liberation through John Stuart Mill's ideas in his works. Jose reflects on Mill's views, in which he firmly opposes women's legal subordination to masculine force. The article also focuses on Mill's viewpoint, in which he asserts that the social progress of society is described by the way women are treated (Jose 2004).

It can be understood from the above-mentioned studies that many scholars have carried out their studies in different works on the idea of liberal feminism. The studies represent the ideas of liberal feminism in certain texts, but no one has carried out the concept of liberal feminism in Meena Kandasamy's *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife* (2017). Thus, the present study will bridge the gap between literature and attempts to dig out the concept of liberal feminism in Kandasamy's text.

III. METHODOLOGY

Liberal feminism, with the theories of influential liberal thinkers such as Mary Wollstonecraft, Betty Friedan and John Stuart Mill, is the emerging mainstream literature. This section deals with the liberal theories of feminism by the notable theorists listed above and the text of the novel *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife* (2017) by Meena Kandasamy. This section attempts to substantiate the text with the proposed concepts of liberal feminism. The methodology implies the elements of liberal feminism like male domination, suppression of women, domestic responsibility of women as wives and mothers, and finally, the liberation of women by shattering the conventional norms prescribed for women. They are as follows:

On the first hand, the prominent liberal thinker Wollstonecraft strongly deprecates the subjugation of women by parents, where they inculcate their daughters to be submissive to men right from their infancy. She states, "Women are told from their infancy, and taught by the example of their mothers, that a little knowledge of human weakness, justly termed cunning, softness of temper; outward obedience, and a scrupulous attention to a puerile kind of propriety, will obtain for them the protection of man; and should they be beautiful, everything else is needless, for, at least, twenty years of their lives" (Wollstonecraft 1845). Similarly, in the novel, even though the protagonist expresses her wish to end the marriage, the protagonist's parents compel her to remain with her abusive husband. Her father on the phone pleads to stay with the husband, listing the crude mocking remarks of society against his daughter's upbringing. Whenever the protagonist complains about her husband's brutality, the protagonist's parents blame her for his deeds. They warn her not to speak or raise her voice towards him, to tolerate, to give him time, be calm, and comfort her by saying that her husband does these things for her own good. The protagonist's mother pacifies her saying, "Silence is a shield and it is also a weapon. Learn how to use it. Do not talk back. You cannot make peace unless you hold your tongue" (Kandasamy 2017). The portrayal of the parent's behaviour in Kandasamy's *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife* replicates Wollstonecraft's theory.

On the other hand, Wollstonecraft argues that male physical dominance is used to enslave women, and this helps them to easily fulfil their desires. While talking about men's strength, Wollstonecraft states, "Man, from the remotest antiquity, found it convenient to exert his strength to subjugate his companion, and his invention to show that she ought to have her neck bent under its yoke; she, as well as the brute creation, was created to do his pleasure" (Wollstonecraft 1845). This is quite well expressed in the behaviour of the unnamed husband in which, in any circumstance, he uses his physical power to manipulate his wife to demonstrate his full dominance over her. The protagonist says, "It is not in knowing that I'm defeated, or in the realization that I am not physically strong enough to match him blow for blow, that I cannot teach him a lesson never to mess with me" (Kandasamy 2017). This imitates the women's enslavement embodied in Wollstonecraft's theory.

Besides, Wollstonecraft emphasizes how men treat women to uphold their commandments, which, in turn, belittle women to the status of immature children. She says, "Men, indeed, appear to me to act in a very unphilosophical manner when they try to secure the good conduct of women by attempting to keep them always in a state of childhood" (Wollstonecraft 1845). Likewise, the husband addresses the protagonist to dress in a plain unfashionable manner and to hairdo in a style that would not appeal to anyone, to walk in a certain way, to use public transport, particularly bus when going out, to be away from social networking sites, not to share her mobile number except to her parents, not to speak to outsiders, not to use Kohl as he believes it is used by seductresses and so on. He says that he does these things for her own good. When the protagonist reports the same to her parents, they too pacify her, stating that a husband only means good to his wife. The protagonist feels that she is reduced to being a child whenever she hears "Your own good". The similarity of Wollstonecraft's view of men suppressing woman's rationale is very well expressed in the lines, "He embarked upon a thorough class analysis of me and, based upon his disappointed findings, decided to set me on the right path. Marriage became a Re-education camp. He transformed into a teacher, and I became the wife-student learning from this Communist Crusader" (Kandasamy 2017). Wollstonecraft exemplifies that the only way for women to emancipate themselves, is to "Strengthen the female mind by enlarging it, and there will be an end to blind obedience" (Wollstonecraft 1845). Alike, in order to emancipate, the protagonist takes a firm decision not to be a traitor for the persecution of her husband but battles back with him to establish his own identity for her. The protagonist's transformation from a meek woman into a liberal human being can be juxtaposed to the liberal ideology of Wollstonecraft in the following lines, "The soul-talk where I congratulate myself on every moment that I do not have to bother about the incorrigible nature of love, its heavy baggage and bitter arguments, the needless questions of men" (Kandasamy 2017).

The remarkable liberal thinker Betty Friedan says, "Over and over again, stories in women's magazines insist that women can know fulfilment only at the moment of giving birth to a child. There is no other way she can even dream about herself, except as her children's mother, her husband's wife" (Friedan 1963). Likewise, in the novel, the protagonist's parents, as well as the husband, compel the reluctant protagonist to have a baby to solve their disputes between them. The mother of the protagonist insists on having a child so that the child alters the conduct of her husband and completes her womanhood. As Friedan states, "When she stopped conforming to the conventional picture of femininity, she finally began to enjoy being a woman" (Friedan 1963). In the novel, the protagonist wishes to free herself from imprisonment under the influence of an abusive husband and does not wish to have a child. She says she does not want to bring a son into the world to see his mother abused and a daughter battered. She uses her limited freedom to flee from this condition by attempting all kinds of ways, such as eating heat-inducing mango, papaya,

pineapple that prevents the possibility of conception. The illustration of Friedan's liberal ideology can be seen in the following lines, where the protagonist says, "This is how I turn my kitchen into a combat zone, making sure that my cooking secures my and my womb's liberty" (Kandasamy 2017). Further, Friedan enunciates, "The only way for a woman, as for a man, to find herself, to know herself as a person, is by creative work of her own. There is no other way" (Friedan 1963). To hinder her career as a writer and to prohibit her from accessing the outside world, the protagonist's husband retrieves her manuscript, laptop and social networking accounts. Corresponding to Friedan's autonomous way of empowering women, the protagonist says that the writer is greater than the woman in her and continues her love of writing even though her husband torments her not to write and inhibit her intellectual freedom. She says, "The eagerness to rub salt on his wounded pride, to reclaim my space, my right to write" (Kandasamy 2017). She considers writing as a means of salvation and an act of mutiny. Therefore, Friedan's concept of liberalism is matched with the action of the protagonist.

John Stuart Mill, a prominent liberal thinker, believed both genders should have equal rights under the law. He states, "All women are brought up from the very earliest years in the belief that their ideal of character is the very opposite to that of men; not self-will, and government by self-control, but submission, and yielding to the control of others" (Mill 1869). Mill explains how society perceives that women have to live for others and make a complete submission of themselves in order not to have any self-interest. Equating to this, the protagonist suppresses her desire to save her relationship despite her ambition to write, because her husband does not want her to be a writer. The protagonist does things to please her husband as if it were a declaration of chastity to not ask him for anything but to prevent conflict so that she could preserve the honour of her family. She says, "The effect of adhering to my husband's wishes gives me the appearance of a woman who has given up. But, I know that attired in this manner, I am all set to play the part of the good housewife" (Kandasamy 2017). In addressing the hardships of oppression, Mill explicates that "wives are in general no better treated than slaves; but no slave is a slave to the same lengths, and in so full a sense of the word, as a wife is" (Mill 1869). Corresponding to this, the protagonist welcomes her husband back from the office with a grand feast of his favourite foods, reporting the domestic chores of a dutiful wife, such as ironing his clothing, keeping the kitchen tidy, scrubbing the toilet, and complete cleaning of the home. She says, "To consult a man is to make him feel like a king and to report to him is to make him feel like a god" (Kandasamy 2017), and she continues enumerating her list with a note of necessary humbleness before a look of accomplishment flashes across his face.

Mill insists that women stand up for themselves individually and states that, "The only freedom which deserves the name, is that of pursuing our own good in our own way, so long as we do not attempt to deprive others of theirs or impede their efforts to obtain it" (Mill 1869). Despite the constraints of her husband and parents, the protagonist in the novel decides to lead her life as per her wish, unmindful of the perceived social norms of society, steps out of her restricted space to emerge as an independent woman aspiring to fulfil her dreams. She says, "A Woman being abused can mostly trust only one person for help. Herself" (Kandasamy 2017). The protagonist represents Mill's ideal icon of liberalism, addressing women to take charge of themselves and their lives. Mill also insists women stand up for themselves and violate their submission to men. He says, "We have had the morality of submission, and the morality of chivalry and generosity; the time is now come for the morality of justice" (Mill 1869). Corresponding to the theory of Mill, the protagonist revolt back against her husband and also endorses her fellow women to take a stand on their own to live a liberated life. She says, "I am the woman with wings, the woman who can fly and fuck at will. I have smuggled this woman out of the oppressive landscape of small-town India. I need to smuggle her out of her history, out of the do's and don'ts for good Indian Girls" (Kandasamy 2017). The notion of liberal feminism is very well articulated through the discourse of the protagonist.

The above explanations render that the liberal feminism concepts are substantiated through liberal ideologies in Meena Kandasamy's *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife*. All the ideas outlined have a linkage to the ideals framed by prominent liberal thinkers. The outcome of this session is that the researchers discuss the traceable contexts of liberal ideas in the chosen text. The subsequent section discussion is a culmination of contrasting and comparing the ideologies of liberal feminism in the works of Meena Kandasamy with other studies.

IV. DISCUSSION

Some studies concentrate on liberal feminism in literature. In this section, those studies are correlated and evaluated with Meena Kandasamy's text, *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife* in the perspectives of liberal feminism.

Many works depict the aspects of liberal feminism through their protagonists. For instance, Yasnur Asri's study focuses on the suppression of women in Indonesian culture through the major protagonists, namely Mariamin in *Azab dan Sengsara* and Anisha in the novel *Perempuan Berkalung Sorban*. It reflects the role of women in the private space of doing domestic chores and perfecting the roles of wife and mother, while men are positioned in the public space with power. It focuses on the progressive notion of women protagonists who resist the patriarchal tradition that has silenced them for centuries (Asri 2017). Similarly, in *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife*, the protagonist's husband forces her to be under the closed sphere doing household chores and taking care of the home without letting her experience the outer world. To free herself from her husband's clutches, the protagonist flees away from the home, thereby establishing her own identity.

The study of Suaidi et al. depicts liberal feminism seen in Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice* through the character of Elizabeth. She is depicted as a woman with choices who, regardless of the constraints imposed by her parents to marry Mr. Collins, chooses her own life (Suaidi et al. 2016). In contrast to this, the protagonist exits her married life with an abusive husband amid constant urges her parents to adhere to her husband. The study of Nur Azizah and Nurul Fitri illustrates liberal feminism through the character of Katharine Graham in the movie titled *The Post*. This film depicts Katherine's behaviour against society's stereotype and underestimation of women as being fit only for private life and not as successful leaders outside their private sphere. She proves that she has the same freedom as her husband and embraces her own goals (Azizah and Fitri 2019). Likewise, despite her husband's constraint, the protagonist continues to pursue her passion for writing and stands on her own.

The study of Yasinta Dekha Widiatmi analyzes liberal feminism through the character of Jane Eyre in Charlotte Brontë's *Jane Eyre*. She challenges the male-dominated world to give equal respect and opportunities as men (Widiatmi 2013). Accordingly, in the select novel, the protagonist rejects the domination of her husband and proves that she can be a successful woman without him. The study of Carole Jones discusses the empowerment and self-realization of female protagonists in Laura Hird's *Born Free* and Jenni Fagan's *The Panopticon*. It analyzes the characters of Joni and Anais who fights for their equality in sexual liberation and transcend the trauma prompted by the patriarchal society (Jones 2015). Similarly, the protagonist in the novel chooses to flee from sexual abuse to succeed in achieving her sexual liberation. The study of Indrani Mitra and Madhu Mitra highlights the work titled *Stanadayini*, in which the authors discuss the development of women from being daughters-in-law in feudal male chauvinistic households to being the equal counterpart of her home. The study also reflects the women characters transforming themselves from reproductive roles to the productive sphere of the economy (Indrani Mitra and Madhu Mitra 2015). Compared to this, the protagonist violates the reproductive constraints imposed by her family and emerges to be an independent woman in pursuing her dreams.

To summarize, the concepts and elements of liberal feminism are evaluated and scrutinized with other different studies. It shows that the notion of liberal feminism is represented immensely in the text of Meena Kandasamy through the protagonist's incidents, happenings and discourses. The idea of liberal feminism is represented in various genres but is confined in the Indian literary scenario. The present discourse compares not only the studies of other researchers but also is compared with novels and movies of different languages in the perspective of liberal feminism in Meena Kandasamy's *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife*. All the studies reveal women's fictional characters, while the focal point of this study deals with the narration of the protagonist's abusive marriage and liberation in real life.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study abbreviates liberal feminism attributes in Meena Kandasamy's *When I Hit You: Or, A Portrait of the Writer as a Young Wife*. The text is analyzed in terms of theories and ideologies of liberal feminism proposed by eminent liberal thinkers like John Stuart Mill, Mary Wollstonecraft and Betty Friedan. Through this study, it is established that Meena Kandasamy's text affirms liberal feminism proposed in notable works such, as *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, *On Liberty*, *The Subjection of Women* and *The Feminine Mystique*. The said concepts of liberal feminism of the above-mentioned books are explored in the chosen work of Meena Kandasamy, and the findings of the study depict the concepts of liberal feminism rendered in the chosen work. The study's findings indicate that the protagonist's character embodies the essential characteristics of liberal feminism, like individuality, resistance to patriarchal domination, autonomous liberty and gender parity. The research, though discussed extensively, has some limitations. This study deals with the concept of liberal feminism in only one work of Meena Kandasamy, excluding other notable works of the writer. The limitations of the present study give scope and recommend for the auxiliary studies that the future research can be carried out in the areas of domestic violence, societal pressure, culture, tradition, domination, trauma, depression, emancipation and so on.

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Contrastive and Degenerative Transitivity as Thematic Reinforcement in Selected J. P. Clark Poetry

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Abstract—This article examines the stylistic implications of transitivity in selected poems by J.P. Clark, a foremost Nigerian poet. Transitivity is engaged from the perspective of Halliday's ideational meta-function of language use, with attention paid to the *participants* and the *processes*. Twelve randomly selected poems from Clark's (2010) *Full Tide* are analyzed. It is observed that, in some of these poems, there is deliberate foregrounding of the sequence or location of lexical forms, especially those pertaining to *participants* and *processes*. This foregrounding is established in what manifests as a negative shift in lexico-semantic forms that suggests degenerative essence. The placement of words as well as the sequence of these words evokes a secondary reading beyond what the text ordinarily expresses.

Index Terms—J. P. Clark, degenerative transitivity, lexico-semantic features

I. INTRODUCTION

Style has variously been defined as the mark or stamp of the author which stands out a particular piece of writing (Kamalu, 2018, Simpson, 2014 and Uffot, 2006). In this regard, it can be argued that the achievement of a noticeable style demands both conscious and, to an extent, subconscious exertion of a manner of presentation on the part of the author. Conscious exertion means that achievement of style requires a deliberate observation of certain linguistic convention as is related to the particular genre of writing and as desired by the author. This conception of style corresponds to the submission of Udumukwu (2015) when he explains that style consists in an author's conscious manipulation of the resources of language with a clear intention of generating specific meanings in a text.

However, when style is considered as a product of the subconscious, it is recognized that what constitutes a manifestation of observable stylistic trait might not be a contrivance or deliberate effort but an innate mannerism acquired and exercised over the course of an author's writing career. That is, it is a sort of authorial idiolect. In any case, between these two distinctions of what may engender style, the later appears to offer a greater motivation for certain peculiarities in texts. Of course, one cannot deny the necessary requirement of deliberation in writing as in every other aspect of human engagement. Beyond the point of deliberation, however, a kind of automation takes over. Language offers the vehicle of expression by means of lexicon; it also offers metaphor or extended meaning which might depend on context or special usage. Moreover, personal mastery or exposure – which especially applies to English as Second Language (ESL) users such as Clark, contributes to the limit or extent of expertise; it is at the culmination of these dynamics that style somewhat essentially manifests. Apart from this, it is a given that literary language confesses an understandable peculiarity which marks it out, drawing the attention of a careful analyst to its distinction. To underscore the fact that the language of literature is different from normal language, Udumukwu observes that “the language of literature has become mediated to the extent that it can no longer be constructed on the basis of the rules of natural language” (2015, p.9). Udumukwu's view here is in tandem with Terry Eagleton's (1990) conception of what qualifies as literary language. Thus, the language of literature confesses a style or form motivated by choice and, to an extent, a subconscious stimulus. This subconscious stimulus tends to result from the systemic nature of language in relation to the syntagmatic and paradigmatic levels. The consequent manifestation of an observable pattern, either as paradigmatic or syntagmatic relation, therefore generates style, the latter of which instigates a special appreciation or interpretation.

Accentuating the understanding that patterning of linguistic forms has the capacity to determine the structure and interpretation of literary works, Simpson agrees that “choices in style are motivated, *even if unconsciously*, and these choices have a profound impact on the way texts are structured and interpreted” (2014, p.22). One is less concerned with the ‘motivation’ than with the fact that the “structure” of a text often productively generates concomitant interpretation. The outcome of a stylistic analysis is a prelude to this interpretation.

The author's accessible idiolect, as represented by the special application of linguistic features of transitivity, is the main concern of this article. The frequency of consistent contrast in the selected poems and as indicated in nominal references and verbal features is the main thrust of investigation in this paper. The contrast however focuses on the degenerative essence of deployed transitivity in the selected poems. In this regard, contrastive transitivity is examined in terms of how the ideational metafunction reflects a consistent manifestation of anticlimax or bathos. This is

exemplified, for instance, in the descent from concreteness of terms to abstract forms in the choice of nominal references in Clark's poem, "His excellency, the masquerader" (HETM). In this poem also, there is a deployment of verbal forms (processes) in a degenerative progression from material to mental.

The ultimate aim of reading of any literary piece is appreciation, the latter of which is an appropriation of meaning or signification. However, in order to derive total appreciation of a literary piece, it is beneficial to the reader to appropriate what Lawal (2003) identifies as Total Stylistic Appeal (TSA). Thus, the analysis of what constitutes style may involve or account for apparent linguistic forms and features as well as more subtle forms of significant aesthetic value. While frequency of lexico-semantic and syntactic forms can be said to be easily accessible to an average analyst, the delicacy of meaning, semantic import or total significance accruing to a piece of literature may not be quite obvious to just any reader.

It is useful to make a clarification on the application of the two terms – contrastive and degenerative. The two terms are not applied in comparative or distinctive understanding but as a sort of semantic co-ordinates that illustrate a particular stylistic trend observable in Clark's selected poems. Simply stated, the degeneration from good to bad, or bad to worse, indicates a contrast in reference and process. Therefore, the analysis herein will focus on the occurrence and frequency of degeneration, the latter of which subsumes contrast.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) offers the basic conceptual and theoretical framework for this article. Transitivity, which is an aspect of the ideational metafunction, is the main element of the analysis. The ideational metafunction itself is a component of the semantic level of language. The focus on assessment of meaning or composite significance of the features is mainly concerned with the pattern and frequency of lexico-semantic forms as identified in the data. These lexico-semantic forms shall be limited to the nominal references and verbal features which constitute the participants and processes, respectively. In this way, transitivity becomes the pivot of the analysis.

Transitivity as expounded by Halliday in SFL theory is distinct from its construction in traditional grammar or other modern grammatical theories like TGG. According to Jeffries & McIntyre (2010):

The syntactic system of transitivity is the central component in Halliday's functional grammar, which was conceived in relation to English and is thus perhaps peculiarly suited to that language, although the development of systemic-functional grammar theory and models is not so restricted (p. 72).

To traditional grammarians and perhaps any other grammatical theory (except, as already said, in SFL), transitivity may be an exclusive nature of the verb. In this regard, under this conception or idea, transitivity may relate to the feature of a particular verb being transitive – by having a direct object – or intransitive, in which case such a verb occurs without a direct object. Although Halliday recognizes the transitive and intransitive (or even di-transitive) nature of verbs, transitivity as he particularly conceives it goes beyond the verb to include linguistic forms or features indicating circumstance and nominal references. According to him, "transitivity is a component of the ideational function of language and captures or is indicative of the linguistic expression of processes, and of the participants (and, by extension, the circumstance) associated with them" (Halliday, 2002, p. 179). In further clarification on the idea of transitivity, Jeffries & McIntyre explain that it "reflects the ideational meta-function, in which language represents the world in certain ways" (2010, p. 77). Representation ordinarily revolves around semantic component as reference. Transitivity is therefore a crucial component of textual cohesion of any piece of literature. *Textuality* or textual essence whether it occurs as carefully contrived form or comes as a flow of the natural order of the linguistic code, has the capacity to convey meaning and extend the aesthetic value of the piece of writing. Analyzing a poem in relation to transitivity offers a newer approach to textual analysis. This is probably the reason why Jeffries and McIntyre agree that "transitivity analysis can be helpful in characterizing aspects of style that no other tool has yet captured" (2010, p. 74). Consequently, the inherent meaning of a text is fully accessed only after a detailed assessment of the delicate import of transitivity features that constitute the text.

Delicacy is a crucial concept in SFL. The concept of delicacy applies to the inherent features of the word with respect to the details or specificity of its application or sense in usage. Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) explain that "(d)elicacy in the *system* (of Systemic Grammar) is the analogue of *rank* in the *structure*" (p. 22). Under delicacy relevant connotations and denotation of a word are accounted for in a more detailed format in order to arrive at or derive total/maximum significance. This process involves a simple binary approach of plus or minus (+/-) semantic features. For instance, a noun can be viewed in terms of being +concrete, +multisyllabic; while a verb can be analyzed with respect to being finite, material, mental or behavioral. It is therefore the consideration of delicacy of lexical features in the analyzed poems that yield to the significance or stylistic interpretation of a contrastive and degenerative transitivity.

Degenerative Transitivity

Degenerative transitivity applies as a stylistic effect in a situation where transitivity features begin to manifest a contrastive and systematic redirection in meaning or delicate application such that what may have begun with the binary feature of plus (+) eventually culminates in minus (-) feature. The concept of Degenerative Transitivity (DT) is coined to account for an anticlimactic effect of words placed in contrastive succession. In such a situation, the essence of lexical forms manifests a downward contrastive movement. In Clark's "His Excellency, the Masquerader" (HETM), for

instance, there is a clear regression in the delicate feature of nominal references from what can be termed concrete towards the abstract as the poem progresses. Thus, as transitivity features are presented in the poem, there is an indication of negative reference on the part of the voice. This negative reference underpins the thematic concern of the poet which is to upbraid, denounce or castigate the political class of the time. Another explanation for Degenerative Transitivity is in theta roles accruing to nominal references or Nominal Word Group (NWG). Thus, the frequency of nominal reference may regress from actor to beneficiary and finally end up as agent or instrument. The verbal features may degenerate from those that indicate mental processes to those that illustrate material or behavioral processes.

Degenerative transitivity is a stylistic feature which, although has not been popularized, can be objectively assessed in poems and other literary forms (especially poems). It can be said to belong to the delicate aspect of style which may or may not reflect a totally conscious manipulation of linguistic forms on the part of the language user. It is an ingredient of style when it is consistent and indicates a considerable connection with the thematic concern of the text in which it occurs. It is like motif, or can even be termed a form of motif.

At a superficial level, and as already stated, the concern with degenerative transitivity is as reflected in, first, the role played by indexed or referenced participants in a text. Such roles include those of actor, goal or beneficiary. Secondly, the analysis could be concerned with the type of processes indicated in the verbal elements of the text. However, at a more discrete level, and with respect to participants, the intention is an examination of the type of nominal reference, vis-à-vis abstract or concrete, animate or inanimate, human or non-human, etc.

III. J. P. CLARK: THE MAN, THE WORKS

Being one of the foremost Nigerian authors in rank with Wole Soyinka and Chinua Achebe, and unarguably the most productive poet south of the River Niger, John Pepper Clark's writings have received significant scholarly and critical enquiries. As writer, poet and dramatist, Clark has received such a generous attention that Eghagha (2004) admonishes that students and scholars should divest their attention from him and other such iconic authors like Soyinka and Achebe. In Eghagha's view, writing on Clark and these other authors could amount to a rehash of common opinions and thinking. Although one understands Eghagha's concern about the recycling of critical views on Clark or other such writers, there is however a conviction that works of literature possess a distinction which makes them yield to ever new insights so long as the analyst is highly motivated to derive newer significance.

Elechi Amadi, one of the earliest and celebrated creative writers in Nigeria and one who shares in the creek or rain forest background of Clark, expresses his delight in Clark's works. Amadi declares that he has "a soft spot for Clark's poetry probably because the poet writes about the kind of environment he (Elechi Amadi) grew up in" (2011, p. 256). This statement captures the consistent context of riverine topography that has proven a kind of shibboleth or stylistic marker for Clark as a creative writer.

Reiterating the opinion of Eghagha on the extensive presence and popularity of Clark in scholarly discourse, Iroegbu (2016) observes that:

Clark is a very accomplished poet who has about two hundred and ninety six titles to his credit. Not only is the poet prominent as one of the oldest still artistically productive, but also Clark occupies a very significant position as the numero uno poet in the whole of the Niger Delta (Nigeria) (p. 81).

Unarguably, in the hierarchy of most accomplished and iconic writers from Nigeria, Clark is a major of the tripod which includes Wole Soyinka and Chinua Achebe as the other members of the group. In a manner of speaking, the trio of Soyinka, Achebe and Clark tend to be particularly identified with the three genres of literature. Thus, while Soyinka and Achebe are recognized with drama and prose, respectively, Clark, although not completely lacking in these other genres, is disproportionately more engaged in poetry than with drama and prose.

Drawing attention to the conspicuous dearth in the linguistic appraisal of Clark's work, Eyo (2005) comments that:

most of the critical views (on Clark-Bekederemo) concentrate on the traditional thematic approach to criticism, almost in complete isolation from language; the critics do not approach Clark-Bekederemo's poetry from the perspective of stylistic criticism (p. 22).

Eyo observes that this lack of linguistic approach has contributed to the poor understanding of Clark-Bekederemo's poetry. Quoting Anozie (1989), he maintains that since poetry is primarily a verbal approach to signification, its appraisal might be 'insightful and rewarding if it is approached from a linguistic viewpoint' (2005, p. 23). This article, engaging in an analysis with a focus on transitivity or lexical forms, answers to the call for a linguistic approach to Clark. This approach is justified if considered in line with the observation of Udumukwu that a better analysis of the linguistic form in a text engenders a purer appreciation of the total significance such a text since language is the primary raw material for literature.

Speaking on the style of the poet, Yeibo (2011) concludes one of his essays, after a fairly extensive analysis of the "group patterns" in a selection of Clark's work, with the opinion that "the poet's style is foregrounded by the utilization of structural devices such as group types for encoding the meaning of his texts" (215). Yeibo is one of the few stylistic analysts who employ specific theoretical framework in their study of Clark's poetry. His works on Clark clearly applies a more linguistic outlook than Eyo's. Although Yeibo gives much credit to Eyo (1997), he does not indicate the latter's non reliance on any theoretical model. Thus, while Eyo gives an extensive account that bears slight and almost negligible marks of a linguistic approach, Yeibo sets out with a clear-cut methodology and theoretical framework as a

popular approach to text analysis may require. This present discourse is therefore a continuation of the investigation into the stylistic dimensions of Clark's poetry, albeit in a slightly divergent direction.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Twelve poems are selected in this study. The selection of the poems is guided by two main considerations. First, the poems exhibit features of contrastive transitivity. Secondly, the poems are randomly selected across the collections as contained in *Full Tide* which presents a compendium of Clark's poetic publication from his first works to those of latter period. The method of analysis involves extraction of the transitivity features as they are contained in the poem, indicating how these are engaged in a contrastive relation. Thus, simple lexical features which occur either as a single unit or in compound presentation are contrastively placed side by side and in order of their sequence to show a consistency. These features are limited to nominal forms, which present the *participants*, and verbal forms, which indicate the *processes*. In most instances nominal forms and verbal features are isolated and analyzed as they occur in particular poems. Sometimes, however, the two features are juxtaposed as they occur within a given work.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Contrastive and Degenerative Transitivity in Nominal and Verbal Features

Nominal features, as presented in the participant component of the ideational function in the language use, constitute one of the two parts in transitivity which illustrate the incidence of degenerative and/or contrastive sequence of lexical items in some Clark's poems. Some of these poems where there are indications of degenerative transitivity are those in which Clark presents pejorative views of subjects or persona. To this extent, the delicate semantic imports of these lexical items engender a reinforcement of the thematic concerns of the poems in question. This type of degenerative transitivity, which functional generates a sense of bathos, occurs in "His Excellency, the Masquerader" (HETM), "Tide wash" (p. 15), "Cuba confrontation" (p. 46), "Calcutta" (p. 110) and "The playwright and the colonels" (p. 145).

B. "Tide Wash"

"Tide wash" is one the poems inspired by the attendant social realities after the civil war. The poem is used to describe the estranged situation among citizens who were at one time buddies. Specifically, it is a reference to Clark's friends who supported and fought on the either side of Nigerian-Biafran war. Before the war, bonds of fellowship, scholarship and common identity held Clark and other colleagues such as Achebe and Okigbo together. But the civil war situation which pitched Clark's part of the Eastern region against their erstwhile kith and kin from Igbo land, like a tide, washed away all pretense of affinity.

The nominal references in "Tide wash" feature a clear instance of contrastive and degenerative transitivity as they sequentially occur. The notable nominal references here are:

stream
sun
fun
steam
sand

In terms of association or denotation, the term, 'stream', can be assigned such semantic significance as: *full of life, reviving, gift of nature, serenity and benevolence*. Much like 'stream', 'the sun' is suggestive of: *life-giving, strength and vitality while 'fun', which rhymes with 'sun', relates to mirth, joy and friendship*. However, in a degenerative sequence that calls up a sense of bathos, these positive terms of desirable references are soon to be succeeded by 'steam' and 'sand'. The reference, 'steam', suggests *vapour* which has little or no essence. It is an expended form. In the same vein, 'sand' is *quick, lacking in strong support* and of little or no value except if used in combination with other substances. This is degenerative nominal transitivity at an easily accessible or obvious level of semantics. However, at a more discrete level of semantic analysis, the sequence, *stream – sun – fun – steam – sand*, gives a sense of reference whereby we have two concrete nouns, *stream* and *sun*, being conjoined or linked with another set of concrete nouns, *steam* and *sand*. The linking term here is the nominal feature, *fun*, which is an abstract noun. Thus, there is a syntagmatic association indicating a sort of bi-polar relation. Moreover, the first set of nominal references is associated with location or place whereas the second set does not indicate such thing as particularity, place or location. Essentially, the term, 'stream', also suggests a flow or movement from one point to another. Thus, the movement is directional while 'steam', though might indicate movement, is non-directional. The two nominal features, 'steam' and 'sand' have the peculiarity of being only useful or productive if or when coordinated by an external force and especially in a combination with other substances. In contrast, 'stream' and 'sun' do not in any way need coordination in order to be useful or productive. They are autonomous and naturally life-giving/life-sustaining.

C. "Cuba Confrontation"

“Cuba confrontation” captures the infantile resistance and confrontation engaged in by Fidel Castro against the United States. Clark compares Castro to a courtesan pillow billed against a hammer head. Whatever Cuba deigned to do to America was like the futile attempt of the lizard giving the earth a blow with its head.

In “Cuba confrontation”, and very much like “Tide wash”, there is a clear indication of degenerative transitivity with linking features in-between. Two sets of nominal references occupy the bi-polar ends in a contrastive and degenerative transitivity. These are: ‘hammer head’ & (+) ‘earth’ and ‘courtesan’s head & (+) ‘pillow’. In spite of the contrast, there is a form of semantic coupling for a ‘total stylistic appeal’, (Lawal, 2003, p. 159). This relationship of coupling for a stylistic appeal can be better appreciated if it is taken into consideration that while ‘hammer head’ (and ‘earth’) can be classified as *hard* and *-human*, ‘courtesan’s head’ (and ‘pillow’) may be categorized as *soft* and *+human*. Degenerative transitivity is achieved wherein what begins as a *concrete* and very strong/threatening feature (hammer head + earth) progresses to an *abstract* term (blow) and finally culminates in a contrasting soft/appealing reference (courtesan’s head + pillow).

D. “Calcutta”

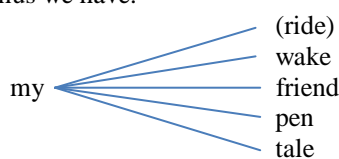
“Calcutta” recaps the slummy situation in India whereby streets of “slime” share spaces with palaces of luxury. It is more or less a panoramic description of an environment of dirt as well as an implicit comparison of poverty against affluence.

In “Calcutta”, there is contrastive and degenerative transitivity wherein the text begins with nominal references related to the semantic field of ‘animate’ but eventually downgrades to non-living and inanimate things. Thus, the frequency moves from “Cow” – man – lice – street – slime – slums, etc. These indicate contrastive cluster of semantic fields as can be seen in the sequence of ...man – lice ...slum – streets. Whereas the first set of lexical items (participant/nominal reference) indicates animate semantic reference, the second set exhibits an inanimate essence. The terms ‘slime’, ‘bed’ and ‘bath’ are inanimate, however, they do not generate the sense of ‘place/location’ as compared to their counterparts, ‘palaces’, ‘slums’ and ‘streets’. This is why their occurrence serves the purpose of linking or conjoining.

E. “The Playwright and the Colonels”

“The playwright and the colonels” is a poem Clark applies as a response to Soyinka’s perceived malicious writing on the former. Thus, after abandoning the initial attempt to get a redress through the law court, Clark applies the poem to castigate Soyinka. He depicts Soyinka as an inconsequential coward who was picked up like a rain drenched fowl and jailed by the military like a common criminal. The poem is thus a sort of diatribe to get back at Wole Soyinka

In “The playwright and the colonels”, there is a stylistic appeal resulting from degenerative transitivity. This is particularly reflected in the appended speech of the persona (Soyinka) where the sequence involves nominal references including ‘ride’, ‘wake’, and ‘race’, which are all abstract in essence. These first set of nominal references is followed by ‘friend’ which is a concrete and an animate term; then, thereafter, occur ‘pen’ and ‘tale’ which are both inanimate/non-human. As they are presented, they are paradigmatically related considering the fact that they are modified by the same deictic term, ‘my’, with the only exception of ‘ride’ which has “A triumphant” as its modifier. Thus we have:

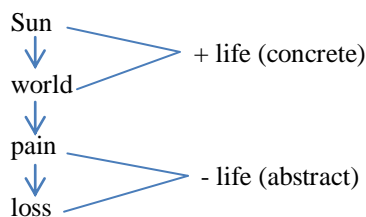


Completing the set of degenerative transitivity are the abstract references, ‘a grape-shot’ and ‘the end’. Therefore, but for ‘a grape-shot’ which features compounding, all the nominal features above are mono-syllabic. The participant, ‘friend’, which is the departing point of contrastive degeneration, also serves as a ‘semantic field linker’ (SFL). Significantly, every other nominal feature except ‘friend’ is either non-human, intangible/abstract or inanimate.

F. “New Year”

In the “New Year”, Clark’s main concern is with the characteristic and inevitable drift of the human towards old age and transition. The poem uses the imagery of the annual flood which is the traditional unit of time among the Niger Delta people. The drifting “water lettuce” headed in an inevitable movement to the sea depicts the journey of life. To the human, as the flood continues in its unpreventable movement so does “insidious” health challenges creep in unannounced to exacerbate the degeneration.

In the poem “New Year” (395), contrastive participants and processes that indicate degeneration are clearly evident. At the nominal level, the sequence follows:



The participants (nominal forms) above occur as actors rather than beneficiaries; the first two, “Sun” and “world”, do not indicate direct beneficiaries, in other words, they are applied intransitively.

The processes in “New Year” seem not to follow the exact trend of the participants. This is because, in terms of transitivity, the sequence of the process indicates two material processes, “came” and “fill”, sequentially enclosing two/three other relational verbal forms, “did”, “will” and “is”. The only way one might observe a degeneration is in the fact that whereas “came out” shows the “sun” as engaged in a transitory movement indicating dynamism, “fill” does not show an active state with respect to the nominal forms/participants with which it occurs. In other words:

Pain and loss fill my plate

as an expression does not indicate the abstract nouns (Pain & loss) as doing the ‘filling’ (of the plate), a feature/quality which is in contrast with the “sun” which does the ‘coming out’. Comparing the poem, “Tide wash”, with “New Year”, the systematic patterning of contrasting processes takes a different dimension in the latter. Here, the contrast is more of a juxtaposition of features which culminates in a final negative process.

G. “His Excellency, the Masquerader” (HETM).

HETM is a castigation of the Nigerian political class in respect of their inability to foster a strong union among the disparate and diverse components of the nation. The poem, thus, highlights the failure of the political representative especially in the first republic to institute a strong and formidable union at the inception of nationhood. Rather than constituting a rallying point for a strong socio-political identity/polity, the political class are compared to “straw and wind” ostensibly fronting a false mask of formidability behind a sand castle. To accentuate the theme of disgust and disapproval in HETM, there is a stylistic combination of contrastive and degenerative transitivity at both the participant (nominal) and process (verbal) level. The total number of verbs deployed in this poem is as represented in the table below:

TABLE 1
TRANSITIVITY OF PROCESSES IN HETM

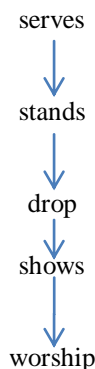
Stanza	Intransitive	Transitive	Copula	Non-finite	Finite
1	serves (2)			to ford	(serves) (stands)
2	stands (2)				(stands)
3	drop		should be		(drop)
4			shows		(shows)
5		worship			(worship)
6				take off	--
	5	1	2	2	Total 10

At the level of process, one easily notices a regressive movement in the semantic value and delicacy of the verbal features. There is just one verb, *worship*, which is both transitive and finite. And, this verb does not indicate coordinated mental or material process. The nominal form, “they”, which is the subject of the verb, “worship”, occurs as a pronoun without an antecedent.

In Ojoto, they worship the mask

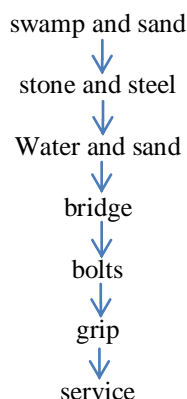
Who is the “they”? Obviously, “they” makes an anaphoric reference to the people of “Ojoto”, yet “they” could mean more, or even less, than the entire people of Ojoto.

The degenerative trend in the application of the verbal forms is illustrated in the diagram, showing a downward stroke below:



There is evident degeneration in transitivity as the verbal items which begin in “serves” culminates in “worship”. The term, ‘serves’, shows activity, although the activity is non-directional. But, the next verb, “stands”, does not indicate any coordinated activity or action. This succeeding verb rather semantically denotes an immobile, resting or stationary position. Like ‘serves’, it is material (or behavioral) but it indicates neither coordination nor direction. Like the ones before it in the order of sequence, “drop”, the next verb after “serves” and “stands”, does not indicate a coordinated or directional activity. Moreover, the Subject related to the verb does not act by volition. This feature is obtainable in “shows” which likewise does not suggest an active Subject. Finally, “worship” is more of a behavioral or mental process than material. If it is factored as a verb having a common origin with an abstract nominal reference, religion, one may easily notice the contrastive and degenerative essence from concrete to abstract or intangible.

The sequence of the nominal forms in HETM illustrates a pattern of coordination applying the conjunction, “and”. In this instance, as in the previous observations, there is both degeneration and contrast. The diagram below indicates this frequency:



One notices contrastive and degenerative application of transitivity at two levels. At the syntagmatic level, it may be observed that there is a shift from coordination to singularity in the frequency of the nominal forms. In other words, the frequency of the nominal word groups (NWG) which began as a combination of words latter trickles down to single forms. This instance underscores the thematic preoccupation of the poem which is the upbraiding of the political class which in the beginning promised national unity but at the end offered self-aggrandizement. At a less discrete level of transitivity, it is easy to identify the shift from concreteness to abstract; a shift from formidability to immaterial.

H. “Partners”

The poem, “Partners”, consists in five short lines. It is used to review the challenges of dissatisfaction that comes with marriage. At some point in time, according to the poem, every couple wishes they had made a different choice in their matrimony. The mental process, “wish”, functions as a keyword in the poem.

In “Partners” (Full Tide, p. 211), there is a stylistic deployment of verbal features that tend to a degenerative or contrasting sequence. Here also, like some of the illustrations above, there is a kind of bridge which separates the two contrasting features. The verbs deployed here are: *looked*, *know*, *find*, and *wished*.

In terms of delicacy, all verbs deal with perception or what is called a mental process. However, whereas *looked* indicates a directional perception almost correlative of an act or material process, *wished* is a more or less internalized process which does indicate the reference acting upon something. The diagram below captures the polarity between the two features and the bridge offered by the uninflected terms, *know* & *find*.

I. “Stranger in the House”

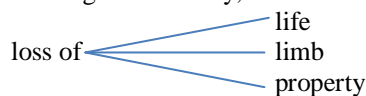
“Stranger in the house” is applied to capture the sense of estrangement in a hitherto familiar environment. In contrast to those to whom the environment was the only home they know, Clark observes hostile changes. These changes may be referring to the envy, jealousy and unhealthy rivalry among competing half-brothers and step-mothers.

In the poem, “Stranger in the house”, there is a contrastive deployment of both verbal features and nominal references with a stylistic touch displaying what looks like a gap or bridging feature. This can be recognized at the syntagmatic presentation of ‘fire – stone – snake’ and ‘burns – weighs – chills’. The two instances above illustrate the nominal features and the verbal features, respectively. Another poem which shows peculiarity of contrastive verbal features in sequence is “Other women”. The main verbs deployed here are *feeds*, *falls* and *glows*. The contrasting verbs in delicate transitivity are *feeds* and *falls*. Although all material processes, these verbs are in contrast because whereas one indicates a self-motivated act, the other does not indicate an act out of the volition of the actor. The verb, “glows”, offers a bridge because it does not indicate a material process.

J. “Sacrifice”

“Sacrifice” illustrates a pessimistic outlook where the poet doubts the love and dedication to the country. The nation, in contrast to what held at its inception just after colonial rule, the nation has lost the hold or attraction for selfless service or sacrifice. Clark questions the propriety in withholding this information from his children.

In the poem, “Sacrifice”, the deployment of contrastive transitivity as a stylistic feature presents as kind of bathos in the sequence. Here, the contrasting nominal references are *life* and *property*. These two forms are bridged by the term, *limb*. Diagrammatically, this can be represented thus:



While *life* represents the ultimate *loss*, *property* is the least that can be lost. Although the loss of *life* and *limb* is permanent, the latter (loss of limb) could be borne. However, unlike *life* and *limb*, *property* could be replaced. Therein exists the semantic contrast existing among these nominal references.

K. “Streamside Exchange” and “Abiku”

Other poems where Clark deploys contrastive and degenerative transitivity to stylistic effect include “Streamside exchange” and “Abiku”. “Streamside exchange” offers a surrealistic exchange between an anxious child and a dispassionate bird. The child sets out to make enquiry as to the whereabouts of its mother. The bird, in applying the metaphor of the running tide and continual market – events which indicate the situation of *coming* and *going* in an endless cycle – categorically tells the child that what occurred was beyond the comprehension and control of the child. “Abiku” on its part captures the phenomenon of infant mortality and the helplessness of a mother who was condemned to have an evil child engaged in a vicious cycle of repeated birth and death. The child’s engagement in the repeated process of *coming* and *going* brings about a state of disillusionment on the part of its mother.

In “Streamside Exchange” (SSE), for instance, there is a subtle breach of politeness principle on the part of the bird who responds to the child’s inquest with a response characteristic or correlative of a WH interrogative. The bird which, perhaps, feels slighted that a mere child directs a polar interrogative to it responds in a manner drastically contrasting in the polite way in which the child presents its part of the conversation. The mental process ascribed to the child (human) contrasts with the material process which the bird assigns to other participants (non-human) and the child’s mother. Tables 2, 3 and 4 feature the participants and processes captured as transitivity in the bird’s response to the child’s simple question.

TABLE 2
PARTICIPANT TRANSITIVITY IN THE BIRD’S RESPONSE IN SSE

S/N	Participant	Thematic status	Nature	Process	Process type
1	You	Theme component	Human/animate	know/bother	Mental (negative)
2	Tide	Theme component	Inanimate	come/go	Material (positive)
3	market	Theme component	Inanimate	come/go	Material (positive)
4	your mother	Rheme component	Human	come/go	Material (positive)

TABLE 3
PROCESS TRANSITIVITY IN THE BIRD’S RESPONSE IN SSE

S/N	Process	Type	Polarity	Co-reference
1	know/bother	Mental	Negative	Child
2	come	Material	Positive	Tide, market, your mother
3	go	Material	Positive	Tide, market, your mother

The incidence of contrastive transitivity above is registered in the sense of *mental* vs. *material*; and *negative* vs. *positive*.

What occurs in SSE is similar to that which plays out in “Abiku”. In “Abiku”, the voice or poet/persona contrastively ascribes material processes to the Abiku and other (non-human) participants and a positive mental process to itself. The import of this is that the voice or poet/persona is the only one capable of cognitive act or contemplation while the Abiku and others such as *bats*, *owls* and *floods* could only engage in material processes. Table 4 illustrates this ascription of process types to participants:

TABLE 4
TRANSITIVITY OF PARTICIPANTS AND PROCESS

S/N	Participant	Process	Process Type
1	Abiku	Coming, going, stay out, follow, step in	Material
2	Speaker, poet/persona (We)	know	Mental
3	other (fingers)	reach	Material
4	bats & owl	tear	Material
5	flood	brim	Material

In “Abiku”, there is a contrastive deployment of *rhematic* and thematic forms such that all nominal forms, except the one that has the voice or poet/persona as Subject, occur as part of the rheme rather than the theme. Thus, although nominal forms which account for participants in transitivity are shown as indicating activity or being acted upon, none of these feature in an unmarked clause. In other words, these participants, including Abiku which is the ostensible subject of discussion, never featured as Subject.

VI. CONCLUSION

The significance of this article can be accessed and assessed in two ways. First, it offers another method in the study of lexical features whereby frequency and positional essence of words are highlighted as significant indices by which extended meaning can be generated in literary texts. This is comparable to concretization. The only difference is that while concretization is, to an extent, paralinguistic, degenerative transitivity is purely lexico-semantic. Here, selection of words is observed as a transposed stylistic undertaking which is capable of enhancing thematic pre-occupation of the literary text. This much is indicated by Nørgaard, Montoro and Busse (2010, p. 31) when they recognize that the making of a literary meaning can derive from the “typography, layout and visual images” of a text. The layout and enhancement of visual images arising from the systematic deployment of nominal references and verbal features are practically illustrated in the poem HETM. Thus, the clearly indicated shift from lexical forms denoting and connoting concrete and formidable imagery to those offering abstract essence can be applied in reading poetry both for pedagogy and literary appreciation. The total essence or overall significance of words is often better appreciated when placed against contrasting forms. Moreover, it is hardly contestable that although Clark as a writer holds an iconic position in the Niger Delta in particular and in Nigeria as a whole, compared to the works of Soyinka and Achebe who constitute the other two components of the artistic tripod in Nigerian literature, his poetry has been given less linguistic attention than is commensurate to the volume and expanse of his career as a creative artist. Thus, this article is in continuum, albeit in slightly divergent method to what has been done by previous critics such as Luke Eyo, Ebi Yeibo and others. Although this work adopts a linguistic approach, the marriage of the thematic concern with the frequency and sequence of linguistic forms enhances the literary quality of the article.

In creative or aesthetic writing, writers put out their work, language, technique, form, content, etc., while critics and analysts interpret the work based on what has been presented by the writer. Meaning(s) potentially generated by a writer's use of language may be diverse and divergent. This is because language is dynamic and interpretation is often conditioned by context immediate and mediate. Indeed, it may be too prognostic to conclude that Clark's poetry, or any literary piece for that matter, could hold the same interpretation to all analysts at all times. Since the topics of transitivity and delicacy were not part of burning linguistic issues at the time of the composition of most of these poems, the foregone analyses in which the poems yield to the concepts constructively validate the universality in application of grammatical theories and concepts. Thus, the susceptibility of the poems to the concepts gives credence to the understanding that language use, in aesthetic or other contexts, comes with an appreciable degree of systemic consistency, predictability and a kind of governed paradigmatic collocation which issues from the subconscious rather than the conscious. In other words, sometimes, words and expressions take or assume forms and interpretation which are somewhat autogenic. Considering that what constitutes observable patterning might not have originated from conscious manipulation on the part of the writer, McMenamin (2002) agrees that style is consistent with linguistic features that are remarkable. The remarkable frequency of words, in relation to transitivity, begins to play out what can be seen as independent interpretations after the writer has done his bit. Was there a conscious effort on the part of the poet, J.P. Clark, to systematically assemble words in such a way that the end result would be a “degenerative transitivity”? One may be unable to answer this question satisfactorily, yet, by the foregone analysis, it is evident that there exists a patterning in the frequency of words and expressions that yield to this conclusion.

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Establishing the Validity and Reliability of the Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist (MELTEC) Using Rasch Measurement Model (RRM)

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Abstract—A textbook is an important teaching and learning material. Evaluating a textbook is essential to ensure educational goals are met. In the present study, the Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist (MELTEC) is developed for the purpose of materials adaptation. The lack of validity and reliability of previous textbook evaluation checklists reported by researchers in the field of ELT textbook evaluation has resulted in the need to establish the validity and reliability of the checklist developed in this study using the Rasch Measurement Model (RRM). One hundred and ten ESL secondary school teachers from Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, had participated in this study. Rasch analysis was used to examine the item fit, polarity, reliability, separation index, and unidimensionality of the checklist. As a result, the finalised version of MELTEC comprises of 78 items. A total of 63 items were dropped as these items were not deemed to be suitable. The analysis performed using Rasch Measurement Model proved that the checklist has high validity and reliability. The checklist is found to be suitable to evaluate ELT secondary school textbooks in Malaysia. On that account, future researchers can consider using Rasch Measurement Model to establish the validity and reliability of the instruments developed to ensure their integrity and quality.

Index Terms—validity, reliability, textbook evaluation checklist, Rasch Measurement Model (RRM)

I. INTRODUCTION

A textbook will never be suitable for all teaching and learning situations despite how well it is written (Nguyen, 2015). Hence, textbook evaluation is pivotal to ensure educational goals are met. There are various methods to evaluate an ELT textbook, and the checklist method is one of the methods commonly employed. There are a number of advantages of using the checklist method. The most prominent advantage would be that it is economical and systematic (Cunningsworth, 1995; McGrath, 2002). Besides, the explicit criteria in a checklist allow for a thorough evaluation while reducing impressionistic judgment (Nimehchisalem & Mukundan, 2013). Moreover, evaluators can also add, modify and adapt the criteria within a checklist to suit the context of evaluation (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010; Demir & Ertas, 2014). The ability to transform a textbook evaluation checklist to make it suitable for the context of evaluation, makes this method of evaluation unique. One of the purposes of a textbook evaluation checklist is to facilitate ESL teachers to make informed decisions on materials adaptation. Adaptation is when ESL teachers make partial or minor changes in a textbook in an attempt to make it suitable for a particular class or level (Nehal, 2016). Adaptations are necessary despite careful selection of textbooks (Halim & Halim, 2017; McDonough, Shaw & Masuhara, 2013). Despite how suitable learning materials are, they may not cater to the different needs, learning styles, and cultural norms of individual learners (Tomlinson, 2012).

Numerous textbook evaluation checklists have been developed by previous researchers, albeit these checklists may not be suitable for the Malaysian context. Evaluation criteria are best customised to suit a specific context to appeal for local use (Isik, 2018). Moreover, textbook evaluation checklists in the past suffer from context-sensitivity (Simsek & Dündar, 2018). These checklists used items in their predecessors or were reworded or reclassified to a more practical version. They may not reflect the actual picture of a textbook and meet the preference of the end-users. Nimehchisalem and Mukundan (2015) also argue that checklists in the literature lack validity and reliability. On record, there are also only a few studies that test the efficiency of the checklists developed (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010; Isik, 2018). Therefore, the Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist (MELTEC) was developed in the present study to

evaluate the ELT textbooks used for the teaching and learning of English in secondary schools. The checklist is to be used by ESL teachers in the secondary schools in Malaysia for materials adaptation. As aforementioned, the literature highlights the lack of validity and reliability of the textbook evaluation checklists developed in the past. On that account, to establish the reliability and validity of MELTEC, a series of methods are employed, among which is the Rasch Measurement Model. The Rasch Measurement Model, a one-parameter Item Response Theory (IRT), is a modern model of measurement often used in the social sciences. The weaknesses of methods of analysis that fall under the Critical Test Theory (CTT), such as the Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in determining validity and reliability, lead to the reason the Rasch Measurement Model was chosen in the present study.

The Rasch Measurement Model has been the center of attention by various researchers worldwide in which their interest lies in building and constructing new instruments. The model by Georg Rasch is often a preferred choice among researchers due to the advantages that constructs, such as linearity, independence, objectivity, comprehensiveness, and inferences, can be easily deduced (Wright & Stone, 1979). This model advocates that response towards an item is solely influenced by an individual's ability and item difficulty (Bond & Fox, 2015). Rasch model ascertains that each item is only constructed based on the parameter of difficulty. An individual may have a 50:50 chance of attempting the items correctly given the difficulty logits of 0.00. Consequently, it is to be accepted that when the item difficulty is increased, the chances of success will be affected and in this case decreased. The order of evaluation within the model may vary according to the needs of a particular study. Under the Rasch Measurement Model, there are eight diagnostic data analyses involved in the process of instrument development, which include (i) unidimensional; (ii) compatibility (fit) item; (iii) polarities item; (iv) reliability and separation item respondents; (v) appropriateness of the measurement scale based on the use of categories; (vi) value of standardised residual correlation in determining leaning item; (vii) differential items functioning (DIF) based on gender; and (viii) the distribution of item difficulty levels and abilities of respondents (Hassan, 2012). However, based on the objective and needs of the present study, the following areas of analysis are performed using the Rasch Measurement Model; (i) item fit; (ii) item polarity (iii) reliability and separation index and (iv) unidimensionality. These analyses are sufficient to establish the validity and reliability of MELTEC. The following section discusses the area of analysis performed in the present study.

II. METHODOLOGY

In the present study, the prototype MELTEC was refined by fifteen professional and lay experts using the Fuzzy Delphi Method (FDM) before employing the Rasch Measurement Model. These experts validated a total of 204 items. After the validation process, the number of items was reduced to 141. During the analysis, 63 items did not meet the requirements of the Fuzzy Delphi Method. On that account, these items were dropped. All 141 items were then refined to ensure their face validity. For this purpose, ten professional and lay experts were appointed to assess the prototype checklist's overall presentation and to determine if the respondents of the study will easily understand the items. The items were refined accordingly before the Pilot study was conducted. The prototype Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist distributed during the Pilot study consisted of 141 items anchored in a 7-point Likert scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Somewhat disagree, 4= Neither Agree nor Disagree, 5= Somewhat agree, 6= Agree, 7= Strongly Agree). The 7-point Likert scale was chosen due to the accuracy and precision of data obtained (Jamil et al., 2019). The prototype checklist was distributed to 110 ESL secondary school teachers in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. These ESL secondary school teachers analysed the Pulse 2 ELT textbook by Macmillan Press using the prototype checklist. They were given one week to complete the checklists, after which the checklists were collected for analysis using the Rasch Measurement Model.

III. FINDINGS

To establish the validity and reliability of MELTEC using the Rasch Measurement Model, the analyses of item fit, item polarity, reliability, separation index and unidimensionality were performed using WINSTEPS 3.71 software. Table 1 presents the rule of thumb set for analysing the items in this study. The items that do not meet the rule of thumb set will be dropped. The remaining items will make up MELTEC.

TABLE 1
RULE OF THUMB SET FOR ITEM ANALYSIS USING RASCH MEASUREMENT MODEL (RMM)

Statistical Information	Rule of thumb
Item Fit MNSQ (Infit and Outfit)	0.6-1.4 (Bond & Fox, 2015).
Item Polarity (PT- Measure Correlation)	0.3-0.8 (Bond & Fox, 2015).
Unidimensionality Principal Component Analysis (PCA) Noise	> 20% (Reckase, 1979) < 10% (Fisher, 2007)
Reliability Item Person	> 0.8 (Fisher, 2007)
Separation Index Item Person	> 2.0 (Linacre, 2002)

A. Item Fit and Polarity

In the present study, the Infit and Outfit Mean Square Analysis (MNSQ) were analysed to measure the item fit of items in the prototype checklist. The infit and outfit MNSQ values should be between 0.6 and 1.4 (Bond & Fox, 2015). Also, the Point Measure Correlation (PTMEA Corr.) values were examined to detect the extent to which the constructs in the checklist achieve their intended goal. Therefore, to determine if the items in the checklist measure the constructs, the PTMea Correlation values must be positive and between the value of 0.3 and 0.8 (Bond & Fox, 2015). Table 2 displays the Infit, Outfit Mean Square Analysis (MNSQ) and Point Measure Correlation (PTMEA Corr.) values of all the 141 items in the prototype Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist. These items were first analysed for item fit. After the analysis for item fit was performed, the analysis for item polarity was performed. The items that did not fit the rule of thumb for item fit and item polarity were dropped. Based on the analyses performed, 63 items were not in the specified range of the analyses performed. Hence, these items were dropped.

TABLE 2
ITEM STATISTICS: ITEM FIT AND POLARITY

Item	Infit (MNSQ)	Outfit (MNSQ)	PT- Measure Correlation	Result
1	.77	.81	.16	Dropped
2	.76	.78	.24	Dropped
3	1.22	1.23	.22	Dropped
4	1.32	1.42	.51	Dropped
5	1.36	1.45	.51	Dropped
6	1.35	1.48	.49	Dropped
7	.55	.55	.62	Dropped
8	1.59	1.68	.22	Dropped
9	1.65	1.76	.29	Dropped
10	1.79	1.93	.27	Dropped
11	.72	.76	.51	Retain
12	1.31	1.57	.28	Dropped
13	.82	.73	.48	Retain
14	1.53	1.68	.37	Dropped
15	1.35	1.51	.37	Dropped
16	1.06	1.33	-.02	Dropped
17	1.35	1.53	.21	Dropped
18	.63	.64	.52	Retain
19	.67	.67	.49	Retain
20	1.12	1.27	.48	Retain
21	1.42	1.73	.33	Dropped
22	1.03	1.10	.40	Retain
23	1.43	1.78	.36	Dropped
24	1.42	1.73	.33	Dropped
25	.80	.85	.55	Retain
26	.99	1.10	.45	Retain
27	.84	.79	.55	Retain
28	1.36	1.66	.45	Dropped
29	1.26	1.55	.44	Dropped
30	1.25	1.59	.39	Dropped
Item	Infit (MNSQ)	Outfit (MNSQ)	PT- Measure Correlation	Result
31	1.07	1.36	.46	Retain
32	.44	.44	.52	Dropped
33	.75	.66	.67	Retain
34	.64	.57	.58	Dropped
35	.87	.86	.48	Retain

36	1.25	1.59	.39	Dropped
37	1.14	1.34	.38	Retain
38	1.36	1.45	.51	Dropped
39	.90	.98	.48	Retain
40	.95	1.05	.56	Retain
41	.81	.85	.65	Retain
42	.87	.87	.54	Retain
43	.87	.91	.53	Retain
44	1.14	1.51	.39	Dropped
45	.83	.76	.63	Retain
46	.70	.68	.57	Retain
47	.68	.61	.59	Retain
48	.71	.60	.55	Retain
49	.64	.57	.58	Dropped
50	.93	.89	.55	Retain
51	1.61	1.75	.44	Dropped
52	1.52	1.64	.41	Dropped
53	.86	.80	.47	Retain
54	.63	.64	.52	Retain
55	.95	1.09	.46	Retain
56	.73	.67	.57	Retain
57	.55	.53	.61	Dropped
58	.91	1.09	.48	Retain
59	.94	1.16	.50	Retain
60	.79	.77	.59	Retain
61	.67	.71	.65	Retain
62	.85	.87	.54	Retain
63	.74	.81	.57	Retain
64	1.41	1.53	.53	Dropped
65	1.36	1.45	.51	Dropped
66	1.06	1.08	.43	Retain
67	1.21	1.43	.33	Dropped
68	1.27	1.45	.37	Dropped
69	.88	.98	.29	Dropped
70	1.27	1.41	.42	Dropped
71	.85	.92	.54	Retain
072	.88	.87	.47	Retain
73	.76	.75	.53	Retain
74	1.03	1.11	.36	Retain
75	.72	.78	.56	Retain
76	1.79	1.93	.27	Dropped
77	.65	.62	.48	Retain
78	.66	.66	.39	Retain
79	.67	.68	.54	Retain
80	.65	.62	.49	Retain
81	.89	.95	.30	Retain
82	.65	.64	.41	Retain
83	1.75	1.92	.09	Dropped
84	.79	.86	.36	Retain
85	1.35	1.53	.29	Dropped
86	1.36	1.54	3.7	Dropped
87	.67	.67	.43	Retain
88	.82	.85	.47	Retain
89	1.36	1.54	.26	Dropped
90	1.27	1.41	.42	Dropped
91	.71	.83	.32	Retain
92	.64	.76	.41	Retain
93	.66	.72	.41	Retain
94	.68	.75	.43	Retain
95	.58	.61	.43	Dropped
96	.55	.53	.61	Dropped
97	.80	.77	.44	Retain
98	.75	.73	.39	Retain
99	.80	.76	.50	Retain
100	.78	.78	.55	Retain
Item	Infit (MNSQ)	Outfit (MNSQ)	PT- Measure Correlation	Result
101	1.60	1.71	.23	Dropped
102	1.43	1.56	.23	Dropped
103	1.26	1.32	.27	Dropped
104	1.43	1.56	.23	Dropped
105	.94	1.16	.50	Retain

106	.86	.87	.56	Retain
107	.88	.93	.51	Retain
108	.88	.93	.24	Dropped
109	.60	.55	.60	Dropped
110	.55	.53	.61	Dropped
111	.95	1.01	.38	Retain
112	.55	.52	.45	Dropped
113	.47	.47	.50	Dropped
114	.51	.51	.43	Dropped
115	.59	.54	.46	Dropped
116	.55	.57	.53	Dropped
117	.51	.51	.43	Dropped
118	.90	1.03	.35	Retain
119	.94	.91	.35	Retain
120	.94	.94	.48	Retain
121	.83	.80	.40	Retain
122	.86	.84	.36	Retain
123	.83	.82	.43	Retain
124	.78	.77	.42	Retain
125	1.09	1.12	.30	Retain
126	1.12	1.27	.48	Retain
127	1.35	1.53	.21	Dropped
128	.85	.97	.37	Retain
129	.44	.44	.52	Dropped
130	.71	.82	.42	Retain
131	.72	.78	.47	Retain
132	.68	.69	.43	Retain
133	1.25	1.59	.39	Dropped
134	1.36	1.45	.51	Dropped
135	.67	.73	.33	Retain
136	.81	.84	.45	Retain
137	.81	.90	.41	Retain
138	.62	.64	.48	Retain
139	1.38	1.49	.52	Dropped
140	1.36	1.45	.51	Dropped
141	.80	.80	.47	Retain

B. Reliability and Separation Index

Table 3 shows the person reliability and separation index values. The person reliability value obtained was 0.96. The value of person reliability of more than .94 indicates excellent reliability (Fisher, 2007). This indicates that MELTEC would remain consistent if given to a new set of samples with the same characteristics as the samples in this study (Kamis et al., 2015). Meanwhile, the value of person separation index was 4.86 which is higher than 2, therefore, it is acceptable (Linacre, 2002; Fox & Jones, 1998). This value indicates the levels of capabilities identified in the sample group. On the other hand, based on Table 4, the item reliability obtained was 0.92. Fisher (2007) considers it to be very good. The value of the item separation index was 3.31, which exceeded the cut-off point of 2 (Linacre, 2002), indicating good separation of item difficulty level. On the whole, the values obtained prove that MELTEC is effective with a high level of reliability in terms of person and item.

TABLE 3
PERSON RELIABILITY AND SEPARATION INDEX

PERSON RELIABILITY AND SEPARATION INDEX								
Total Score		Count	Measure	Model Error	Infit		Outfit	
					MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
MEAN	517.7	140.6	.71	.12	1.08	-.2	1.04	-.5
S.D	49.0	.9	.72	.02	.80	3.7	.81	3.8
MAX.	633.0	141.0	3.12	.16	6.14	9.9	6.01	9.9
MIN.	313.0	134.0	-1.30	.09	.14	-8.2	.12	-8.6
REAL RMSE	.15	TRUE SD	.71	SEPARATION	4.86	Person RELIABILITY	.96	
MODEL RMSE	.12	TRUE SD	.71	SEPARATION	5.74	Person RELIABILITY	.97	
S. E. OF Person MEAN = .07								

TABLE 4
ITEM RELIABILITY AND SEPARATION INDEX

ITEM RELIABILITY AND SEPARATION INDEX								
Total Score		Count	Measure	Model Error	Infit		Outfit	
					MNSQ	ZSTD	MNSQ	ZSTD
MEAN	410.9	108.9	-.12	.14	.82	-1.1	.86	-.8
S.D	29.2	.6	.50	.02	.13	.8	.18	1.1
MAX.	450.0	110.0	1.55	.18	1.14	.9	1.36	2.0
MIN.	285.0	107.0	-1.35	.10	.62	-2.6	.60	-2.4
REAL RMSE	.14	TRUE SD	.47	SEPARATION	3.31	Item RELIABILITY	.92	
MODEL RMSE	.14	TRUE SD	.48	SEPARATION	3.32	Item RELIABILITY	.92	
S. E. OF Item MEAN = .06								

C. Unidimensionality

In order to determine the measurement alignment of constructs, the unidimensionality features are analysed (Maat et al., 2018). The raw variance explained by measures and unexplained variance in the first construct were considered for this study. The analyses revealed that the value of raw variance explained by measures was 29.4%. It exceeded the minimum requirement of 20% (Reckase, 1979). Also, the unexplained variance in the 1st construct was 8.8%. The value is proven to be less than 15% which indicates a good value (Fisher, 2007). Hence, the Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist items are proven to be accurate and fit the intended purpose of evaluating ELT textbooks.

TABLE 5
RESIDUAL PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS (PCA)

Raw Variance Explained By Measures	Unexplained Variance In 1st Contrast
29.4%	8.8%

IV. DISCUSSION

After performing the data analyses in the present study following the benchmark and conditions of Rasch Measurement Model, 63 items in the prototype checklist were excluded. These items did not perform their function to measure the variables in this study. After excluding these items, the finalised version of the Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist consists of 78 items. The use of Rasch Measurement Model in the present study provided empirical evidence to prove the quality of items in the checklist. The summary of items dropped and retained is shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6
SUMMARY OF ITEMS DROPPED AND RETAINED

Phase	No. of items	Items Dropped
1 (Design and Development)	204	0
2 (Validation)	141	63
TOTAL	78	-

With the emergence of the Rasch Measurement Model, significant contributions to various fields of research have been recorded (Aryadoust, Tan & Ng, 2019). However, the application of the Rasch Measurement Model in the field of ELT textbook evaluation, particularly in the development and validation of ELT textbook evaluation checklists is non-existent. Previous textbook evaluation checklists have utilised the Critical Test Theory (CTT) to determine the validity and reliability of the instruments developed (Nguyen, 2015; Isik, 2018; Simsek & Dündar, 2018; Nimehchisalem & Mukundan, 2015; AbdelWahab, 2013; Karamifar, Barati, & Youhanaee, 2014; Lopez Medina, 2016; Zokaeieh et al., 2019; Sahin, 2020). None up to date studies have considered employing Rasch Measurement Model, an Item Response Theory (IRT), to establish the psychometric properties of the items and the validity and reliability of the instruments developed. As aforementioned, textbook evaluation checklists in the past lack validity and reliability (Nimehchisalem & Mukundan, 2015). Hence, by employing the Rasch Measurement Model in the present study, the validity and reliability of the Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist (MELTEC) have been established.

V. CONCLUSION

The analyses performed employing the Rasch Measurement Model to establish the validity and reliability of the Malaysian English Language Textbook Evaluation Checklist (MELTEC) have bridged the gap between research and practice. The examination of validity and reliability in this study provides an alternative for future researchers in the field of ELT textbook evaluation to consider establishing the validity and reliability of instruments developed using the Item Response Theory (IRT) instead of the Critical Test Theory (CTT) model of measurement. The aspects of validity and reliability are undoubtedly essential and should not be compromised, especially when developing a new research instrument. In essence, the assumptions fulfilled in this study using the Rasch Measurement Model were; Item Fit,

Polarity, Reliability, Separation Index, and Unidimensionality. Through this paper, researchers especially in the language area can develop a new understanding of the integration of Rasch Measurement Model which is relatively under-studied especially in the field of ELT textbook evaluation. Furthermore, there are a total of eight diagnostic data analyses that can be performed using the Rasch Measurement Model, which includes (i) unidimensional; (ii) compatibility (fit) item; (iii) polarities item; (iv) reliability and separation item respondents; (v) appropriateness of the measurement scale based on the use of categories; (vi) value of standardised residual correlation in determining leaning item; (vii) differential items functioning (DIF) based on gender; and (viii) the distribution of item difficulty levels and abilities of respondents. Hence, future researchers may consider exploring other assumptions of the Rasch Measurement Model not explored in this study that would suit the objectives and purpose of their study.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The researchers would like to thank the National University of Malaysia (UKM) for its support for this research via its Grant Tabung Agihan Penyelidikan (TAP-K017393).

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Examining the Skill in Writing Descriptive Text Among Indonesian Learners of English: The Effects of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

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Abstract—This study aims to examine the learners' skills in writing English descriptive text by employing The Explanatory-Sequential (QUAN-QUAL) research method. The data collection instruments were Writing Tests and Interview. The written tests were given in the form of pre and post-test to reveal the effect of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) on improving the learners' English writing skills. Interviews were held to confirm factors affecting the students' skills in writing English descriptive texts. 27 learners of MA Madani Alauddin Pao-Pao, Gowa were purposively selected to participate in this study. The results reveal two things namely: The first, there is a statistically significant difference between mean scores of the experimental group (64.85) and the control group (55.03) in the test result after the treatment (post-test). The value according to Student's t-test confirms it: $t = 5,846$; $p < 0,001$. This result supports the effectiveness of employing Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) as a method in teaching English writing skills. The second, the interviews indicate that there are 5 determinants affecting the learners' skills in writing English descriptive texts, i.e. Learners' Interest, Teacher's Strategy, Teacher's Media, Classroom Environment, and Learners' Learning Strategy. Our results revealed that using TBLT has led to significant increases in the students' skill in writing descriptive texts. We believe, our findings could have a profound impact on the way English writing is taught around the world. Therefore, English language teachers should provide more opportunities to learn this method to enable them apply it in their English pedagogy.

Index Terms—task-based language teaching, English writing skills, writing descriptive text, Indonesian learners of English

I. INTRODUCTION

In the education system of Indonesia, English is the only foreign language learnt as a compulsory subject from secondary level e.g. Junior and senior high schools, to tertiary level of education e.g. colleges and universities (Kaharuddin, A. 2019). When English is learnt as a compulsory subject, students are required to learn at least for necessary skills i.e. speaking, listening, reading as well as writing skill. From the perspective of language pedagogy, the four skills may be classified into two major categories of skills namely receptive skills and productive skills (Kaharuddin, N. 2014). Receptive skills refer to language skills that are used to receive messages in social interactions such as listening and reading skill. On the other hand, productive skills refer to language skills that are used to produce messages in communications such as speaking and writing skills (Hasyim, M., Kuswarini, P., & Kaharuddin. 2020). However, the primary focus of this paper is on writing skill. Many Indonesian learners of English begin learning how to communicate their ideas using written form in English when interacting with others at schools. As for the learners, writing skill is often considered to be more complicated than that of other language skills which makes them occasionally fail to communicate effectively in written form. This fact occurs because written form of communication requires a well-structured way of presenting abstract ideas. The well-structured way in writing English can be achieved when the learners have at least four types of knowledge namely, knowledge of content, knowledge of linguistic, knowledge of organization, and knowledge of style. The effectiveness of written form of communication is much determined by how good the learners' knowledge of the four types of knowledge is. However, many Indonesian

learners of English have limited knowledge of the four knowledge categories which consequently makes English writing skill difficult to master (Kaharuddin, K., & Rahmadana, A. 2020).

The fact is in line with the findings of some studies on writing which also indicate that English writing skill is generally considered as one of the most difficult English skills for many learners of English, it is due to the learners' limited knowledge of writing (Braine, G., & Yorozu, M. 1998, Johnstone, Ashbaugh & Warfield, 2002, Javed, M., Juan, W. X., & Nazli, S. 2013, Kaharuddin, A. 2018). The limited knowledge of English writing is characterized by an inability to apply correct spelling, punctuation, grammar, diction, thesis statements, topic sentences and cohesive links within a paragraph, and global organization of texts (Kellogg, R. T., & Raulerson, B. A. 2007). This issue is common to many learners of English, especially those who learn English in senior high schools. In senior high schools, writing skill is available in the syllabus since it is considered as an important skill for the learners' success in learning English. The writing skill extremely enables the learners to do three things i.e. to enrich English vocabulary when writing a lot, to acquire the mastery of English grammatical structure, and to help the development of other English skills such as reading, listening, as well as speaking (Bahar, A. K., & Latif, I. 2019, Kaharuddin., & Hasyim, M. 2020). In this regard, the learners are taught English writing skill by giving them lessons on how to write types of texts in English (procedure, descriptive, recount, and narrative texts), in which the learners' progress in their English writing skill is evaluated from their ability to write the types of texts in English well. Hence, this study closely investigates senior high school students who learn English at Madani Senior High School by giving special attention to descriptive texts.

The K-13 English syllabus of the high school clearly states that after learning lessons on writing descriptive texts, the students are able to master the art of writing descriptive texts which are characterized by their ability to construct simple descriptive texts about people and tourist destinations. However, this objective is not successfully achieved yet by the learners of English in schools. The result of preliminary study indicated three things i.e. the first, the students have restricted vocabulary which makes them difficult to select appropriate vocabulary when describing a thing (Andi, K., & Arafah, B. 2017, Kaharuddin, Ahmad, D, Mardiana, Rusni 2020). The second, the students also acquire limited knowledge of English grammar that makes the improperly construct their sentences (Bahar, K. 2013). The third, they often complain about having limited knowledge of organizing ideas when writing which makes them feel writing as a daunting task (Kaharuddin, A., & Latif, I. 2017). The facts have resulted in making the students lose interest in English lessons. Therefore, it stands to reason for saying that writing descriptive texts is a challenging task because it requires the students to exploit their potential in language writing by writing their ideas coherently and cohesively (Kaharuddin, Hikmawati, Arafah, B. 2019). Writing coherently and cohesively in English is a result of thinking and writing skill which are not naturally acquired, but must be intentionally learnt. For the reason, this study used task-based language teaching (TBLT) in the writing instructions as a special effort to encourage the students to learn and to increase their potential in writing English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Descriptive Text in Secondary School Context*

Writing is one of four important skills to master when learning English as a foreign language. The mastery of writing skill will help the learners to develop their English language acquisition for other skills since they directly practice their English vocabulary, grammar, ability to organize ideas in meaningful ways for the sake of communicating their idea effectively (Bello 1997). In other words, writing skill is not only a communication system that the students can use to share their ideas, but also a prerequisite to master the other language skills (Bahar, A. K. 2014). The skill in writing requires cohesive ability (e.g. the ability to use proper word selection, punctuation, spelling, and correct grammar) and coherent ability (e.g. ability to organize ideas properly, ability to arrange paragraphs in a good text structure, and ability to use proper text type). Those things are not naturally acquired, but can be learnt, practiced, as well as mastered by the learners (Arafah, B., & Kaharuddin, 2019). Nunan (2003) specifically mentions that writing is both a physical and a mental act. Writing as a physical act refers to using required language to transfer messages in written texts such as vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, and grammar. On the other hand, writing as a mental act refers using ideas in mind, thinking around how to express them, and organizing them into explanations and paragraphs that will be clear to readers.

Any types of written texts need both cohesive and coherent ability, including descriptive texts. A descriptive text is a piece of writing that indicates a description of characteristics of a thing such as a person or a place. This type of writing mainly uses senses that it specifically tells how something looks, feels, smells, tastes, and or sounds (Wesley, A., Oshima, A., & Hogue, A. 1996). It is produced by using particular generic structures (i.e. identification: introducing the subject as the major topic; description of features: describing the characteristic features of the subject) and language features (i.e. using a particular noun as the major topic, using detailed group of nouns give detailed information on the subject, using a variety of adjectives, using relating verbs to connect information regarding the subject coherently, using various thinking and feeling verbs to convey the writer's personal view about the subject, using action verbs to illustrate the subject's behavior, using adverbials to give detailed information concerning the subject's behavior; and using similes, metaphors and other types of figurative expressions).

In the context of secondary level of Education, some studies on descriptive texts have been conducted (Siahaan, J. 2013, Masitoh, S., & Suprijadi, D. 2015, Husna, L. 2017, Potradinata, S. L. A. 2018, Yoandita, P. E. 2019, Apriliana, R.,

Candra, M., & Subroto, G. 2020). The results of the studies indicate that students find it difficult to write the descriptive texts, not only because they have limited knowledge of writing, but also because they are not familiar to the distinctive features of a descriptive text. Therefore, this study has attempted to apply Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT) as a method to cope with the students' difficulties in writing English descriptive texts. This study suggests English teachers to give special attention not only to teaching linguistic knowledge and cognitive knowledge of writing skill, but also to teaching the distinctive features of the descriptive texts along with their examples and practices that the learners can achieve the objective of learning English skill as stated in the K-13 English syllabus.

B. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)

For the past 40 years, Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has been attracting the attention of many English language teachers all over the world. Some of them categorize it as an approach (Richards 2005), but some recognize it as a method 'the branch of Communicative Language Teaching' (Hashemi et al. 2012). Apart from the different perceptions of TBLT among English language teachers, something mutually accepted that the essence of TBLT is communicative tasks which are characterized by connectedness to real-world (Michael, H. 1985), social interaction goal (Candlin, 1987), primacy of meaning (Ellis, 2003), and non-linguistic achievement (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). In other words, TBLT contains the use of authentic language and gets students to do meaningful activities by using the target language. Lessons presented using TBLT will focus more on developing the students' language fluency and confidence in using English, rather than on accuracy of grammar.

According to Hashemi et al. (2012), TBLT has 3 principle phrases in common which reflect the chronology of a task-based lesson. They are Pre-task, During-Task, and Post-Task. The Pre-task phase is aimed at preparing the students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition. Hence, it is very important to present a task in a way that motivates the learners. Next, the During-task phase refers to the methodological option available to the teachers. The during-task phase consists of two things. The first, there are various options related to how the task needs to be undertaken that can be taken before the actual performance of the task and should be planned by the teacher. This is called as "task performance options". The second, there are several "process options" that involve the teacher and students in a decision making about how to perform the task as it is being completed. Finally, the Post-task phase is carried out to achieve three major pedagogic goals namely; to give students an opportunity to repeat a performance of the task, to encourage reflection on how the task was performed, and to encourage students' attention to some problematic language forms when performing the task.

For many years, some studies have been conducted to examine the advantages of applying a TBLT in the area of English language pedagogy. Jeon, I. J., & Hahn, J. W. (2006) carried out a study on EFL teachers' perceptions of the use of task-based language teaching in Korean secondary schools and found that TBLT has a dramatic, positive impact on the students' English language development because TBLT provides learners with natural sources of meaningful material, ideal situations for communicative activity, and supportive feedback allowing for much greater opportunities for language use. Respectively, Dailey, A. (2009) conducted a study on the implementation of task-based language teaching in Korean classrooms and found that TBLT has its valuable points and is an exciting, and interactive method to improve the students' communicative competence. In addition, Liu, Y., Mishan, F., & Chambers, A. (2018) also did a study on EFL teachers' perceptions after applying task-based language teaching in higher education in China and indicated that the majority of the Chinese EFL teachers appeared to hold positive views on TBLT and regarded that TBLT gave various advantages which help them to create more communicative speaking environments in their contexts. Considering the positive reports of the studies on TBLT, this recent study makes effort to examine the advantages of applying TBLT in an experimental study which not only specially shows the effectiveness of TBLT on the students' development in writing skill, but also explains the reasons or the contributing factors behind the students' achievement.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study used a Mixed Method which involved the collection, analysis, and "mixing" of quantitative and qualitative research designs to answer the two research questions of this study (Hasjim, M., Arafah, B., Kaharuddin, S. V., & Genisa, R. A. A. 2020), namely; 1). Is TBLT able to improve the students' skill in writing descriptive text? 2). To what extent does TBLT affect the students writing skill development? The first question was examined using quantitative approach which specifically used pre-experimental method. On the other hand, the second question was answered using qualitative approach which specifically used descriptive method. It means that the quantitative data will be followed-up with qualitative explanations. Besides, this study involved 27 senior high students as the participants who were purposively selected among the second grade students of Madani Alauddin Pao-Pao Senior high school. Furthermore, the data were gathered by using two instruments; tests and interviews. The test is a writing test which was given to reveal the students' skills in writing descriptive text before and after treatments. Semi-structured interviews were used to confirm the contributing factors to the achievement of the students' skills in writing descriptive text.

IV. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. The Effect of TBLT on the Students' Skill in Writing Descriptive Texts

To respond to the issue, the results of writing tests were used. The writing test was given twice, before giving the TBLT based-treatments (pre-test) and after giving the TBLT based-treatments (post-test). These tests' results are quantitatively presented as follows:

1. The Results of the Pre-Test

The first writing test (Pre-Test) was given to twenty-seven (27) students one day before teaching the students using the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) materials. The test took place on September 05, 2019 for about 30 minutes. The results of the test are shown in Table 1 as follows:

TABLE 1
THE RESULT OF PRE-TEST

No	Students' Number	Experimental Class					Total
		Writing Components					
		Organiza tion	Content	Grammar	Punctuation	Vocabulary	
1	S001	15	15	15	15	15	75
2	S002	15	15	12	15	12	69
3	S003	15	15	14	14	12	70
4	S004	15	14	12	15	12	68
5	S005	15	15	12	14	12	68
6	S006	14	12	11	12	12	61
7	S007	12	14	11	12	12	61
8	S008	12	12	11	12	10	57
9	S009	12	12	11	12	12	59
10	S010	14	12	11	12	12	61
11	S011	11	11	11	11	11	55
12	S012	11	11	11	11	11	55
13	S013	11	11	7	11	11	51
14	S014	11	11	7	11	10	50
15	S015	12	10	6	12	10	50
16	S016	12	11	6	11	10	50
17	S017	12	11	7	10	10	50
18	S018	11	11	7	11	8	48
19	S019	11	11	7	11	8	48
20	S020	11	11	6	11	7	46
21	S021	11	11	6	10	10	48
22	S022	10	10	6	10	10	46
23	S023	10	10	6	10	6	42
24	S024	10	10	6	6	6	38
25	S025	10	10	6	6	6	38
26	S026	10	8	5	6	6	35
27	S027	8	6	5	6	5	30
Average		11.9	11.4	8.7	11	9.8	52.9

The results of the pre-test as shown in Table 1, indicate that the average score achieved by the students is 52.9 meaning that the level of the students' skills in writing descriptive test is in fair level before the treatment (teaching them by using Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) materials). The pre-test was also processed and analyzed by using SPSS application which finally resulted in the following pre-test description:

TABLE 2
SPSS ANALYSIS OF PRE-TEST RESULT

Statistics		
PRE_TEST		
N	Valid	27
	Missing	0
Mean		52,9259
Median		50,0000
Std. Deviation		11,38125
Variance		129,533
Minimum		30,00
Maximum		75,00

2. The Results of the Post-Test

The post-test was also in writing test given to the twenty-seven (27) students on October 03, 2019 after receiving several treatments using Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) materials. The results of the test are shown in Table 3 as follows:

TABLE 3
THE RESULT OF POST-TEST

No	Students' Number	Experimental Class					Total
		Writing Components					
		Organiza tion	Content	Grammar	Punctuation	Vocabulary	
1	S001	17	17	12	15	15	76
2	S002	15	15	12	15	14	71
3	S003	17	15	12	17	14	75
4	S004	15	15	12	14	12	68
5	S005	14	14	11	14	12	65
6	S006	14	14	11	14	12	65
7	S007	14	14	11	14	12	65
8	S008	15	17	12	14	12	70
9	S009	14	14	11	14	12	65
10	S010	17	17	14	17	15	80
11	S011	14	14	11	14	12	65
12	S012	15	14	11	14	11	65
13	S013	15	15	11	15	12	68
14	S014	14	12	8	14	12	60
15	S015	14	15	8	14	12	63
16	S016	15	15	8	15	12	65
17	S017	14	14	8	14	10	60
18	S018	12	12	6	14	6	50
19	S019	15	15	8	15	12	65
20	S020	15	15	8	17	12	67
21	S021	15	14	8	14	12	63
22	S022	12	12	6	12	6	48
23	S023	17	17	12	17	12	75
24	S024	14	14	8	14	12	62
25	S025	12	12	8	12	11	55
26	S026	12	11	5	11	6	45
27	S027	17	17	12	15	14	75
Average		14,6	14,4	9,8	14,4	11,6	64,8

Table 3 indicates that the students achieve 64.8 as the total average score in the post-test meaning that the level of the students' skills in writing descriptive text is in good level after getting treatments using Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). The data gathered in the post-test were also processed and analyzed by using SPSS and the results of the analysis were illustrated in the following statistical description:

TABLE 4
SPSS ANALYSIS POST-TEST RESULT

Statistics		
POST_TEST		
N	Valid	27
	Missing	0
Mean		64,8519
Median		65,0000
Std. Deviation		8,34222
Variance		69,593
Minimum		45,00
Maximum		80,00

3. The Overall Results of the Pre-Test and the Post-Test

As mentioned earlier that the pre- and the post-test were used to examine the students' skill in writing descriptive texts gained from the treatments using the Task-Based Language Teaching. The comparison between the students' post-test scores and their pre-test scores had shown that the treatments using TBLT was successful in developing the students' skills in writing descriptive texts. The comparison is shown in Table 5 as follows:

TABLE 5
TEST SCORES COMPARISON BETWEEN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

No	Students' Number	Total pre- and post-test scores	
		Pre-test	Post-test
1	S001	75	76
2	S002	69	71
3	S003	70	75
4	S004	68	68
5	S005	68	65
6	S006	61	65
7	S007	61	65
8	S008	57	70
9	S009	59	65
10	S010	61	80
11	S011	55	65
12	S012	55	65
13	S013	51	68
14	S014	50	60
15	S015	50	63
16	S016	50	65
17	S017	50	60
18	S018	48	50
19	S019	48	65
20	S020	46	67
21	S021	48	63
22	S022	46	48
23	S023	42	75
24	S024	38	62
25	S025	38	55
26	S026	35	45
27	S027	30	75
Average		52,9	64,8
Description		Fair	Good

Table 5 shows that all the students in the experimental group have significant improvement in their gained score before and after treatment. The students' progress in learning can be watched after comparing the students' gain score in pre-test (52.9) and the students' gain score in post-test (64.8). If both gain scores are given description by referring to the students' writing skills before and after treatment, we may then state that the level of the students' writing skills increases from fair to good qualification.

4. Assumption Test

Before testing this research hypothesis, it is important to test the sample distribution for the sake of finding out whether the sample is normal or not. This test is also known as the normality test. The normality test aims to test all hypothesis that test a null against an alternative hypothesis (Abidin & Kaharuddin. (2021). The result of normality test covers two statements of the hypothesis test namely:

Ho = the null hypothesis

The sample is recognized to be normal distribution when significant value is greater than 0,05 (sig > 0,05)

H1 = the alternative hypothesis

The sample is regarded to be not normally distributed when the significant value is less than 0.05 (sig < 0,05)

To test the normality of sample distribution in this research, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistical test is then used as shown in Table 6 as follows:

TABLE 6
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test			
		PRE_TEST	POST_TEST
N		27	27
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	52,9259	64,8519
	Std. Deviation	11,38125	8,34222
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	,123	,174
	Positive	,123	,123
	Negative	-,093	-,174
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		,638	,903
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		,811	,389
a. Test distribution is Normal.			
b. Calculated from data.			

Referring to Table 6, it is clearly seen that Significant value of the pre-test = $0,811 > 0,05$, which means no enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis and we can finally claim that the sample is normally distributed. On the other hand, Significant value of the post-test = $0,389 > 0,05$ which means that the sample in the post-test is also normally distributed.

5. Independent T-Test

Knowing that the samples of the pre-test and the post-test are normally distributed, the implication of the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) on the students' writing skills is tested by using the following hypotheses namely:

If Sig. (2-tailed) < 0.05 , H_0 (null hypothesis) is rejected and H_1 (alternative hypothesis) is accepted.

If Sig. (2-tailed) > 0.05 , H_0 (the null hypothesis) is accepted and H_1 (alternative hypothesis) is rejected.

In order to test the hypotheses, the paired sample t-test is then used to determine whether to accept or to reject the null hypothesis.

TABLE 7
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST

PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST									
Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	POST TEST – PRE TEST	11,92593	10,60089	2,04014	7,73235	16,11950	5,846	26	,000

With regard to the table above, it is found that SPSS output for paired sample t-test is Sig. (2-tailed) = $0,000 < 0,05$. This implies that the treatment has a significant main effect on the students' writing skills achievement. The null (H_0) is therefore rejected and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) is accepted. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is an average difference between Pre-Test and Post-Test learning outcomes, which means that the use of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) method brings about significant effect on the development of the students' skills in writing descriptive texts. This study has provided a strong support and evidences of some previous studies (Fiori, M. L. 2005, Kaharuddin, A. 2014, Lai, C., & Lin, X. 2015, Hao, D. T. T. 2017, Kadaruddin, et.al. 2020) that investigating the effectiveness of TBLT on language skills' development is a promising result.

B. Contributing Factors to the Development of the Students' Skills in Writing Descriptive Texts

To determine the contributing factors, data from interviews were used. The Interviews were given to the twenty-seven (27) students in the experimental class. The results of the data analysis showed that there are 5 contributing factors to the development in the students' writing skill, among other things: Students' Interest, Teacher's Strategy, Teacher's Media, Classroom Environment, and Students' Learning Strategy. Detailed information can be gained in Table 8 as follows:

TABLE 8
CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO THE DEVELOPMENT IN THE STUDENTS' WRITING SKILL

Types of Contributing Factors	Occurrences	Frequency (%)
Students' Interest	20	75%
Teacher's Strategy	22	85%
Teacher's Media	19	70%
The Environment of classrooms	25	93%
Students' Learning Strategy		
a. Learn by Textbooks/LKS	4	15%
b. Writing Exercises	3	10%
c. Reading Texts	9	33%
d. Take English course	6	22%
e. Games	4	15%
f. Not Learn	1	3%

1. The Students' Interest

As for the students, interest in writing lesson takes up larger portion of the factors affecting the development in the students' writing skill. Due to the interest factor, the students give strong to the writing lesson that positively affects their understanding on the lesson. The data in Table 8 indicate that 20 out of 27 students have interest in writing lesson.

S 005)

"I am interested in learning all skills of English because English is an international language that is widely used in various fields. My interest in learning all skills of English makes focus when my English teacher is teaching me. Besides, I get a number of English vocabulary from the teacher's lessons (Sari, A. A. I. 2020)"

The statement indicates that the students' interest in the English lessons, makes them largely focus and make effort to understand the lessons including writing skills lessons. Similar statements are also given by other students in the interview as follows:

S 012)

"I am very interested in writing skill and I also think that writing is one of the skills that I must master because it is very important after speaking skills. Therefore, I try to memorize a large number of English vocabulary for completing writing assignments from the teacher (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:64)"

S 016)

"I always prefer writing to speaking in front of many people, so I feel writing skill is more important than speaking. Now I take English lessons to learn more grammar rules and to enrich my English vocabulary (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:65)"

The statements indicate that the students' interest makes a positive contribution to the development of the students' skill in writing descriptive text. The level of students' interest in a particular subject can increase student motivation in learning. In this regard, Lipstein, R. L., & Renninger, K. A. (2006) state that individual interest may mediate attention, goals, motivations and learning strategies with respect to particular content. In a nut shell, students' interest in learning writing skills becomes a motivation to learn more and make them focus on learning the writing lessons in the classroom. As previous researchers assert that interest can affect the quality of students' learning achievement in a certain subject (Arafah, B. & Kaharuddin 2019). In addition, the students are found to learn more when they are motivated and interested in the course (Marks 2000; Young et al., 2003).

2. Teachers' Teaching Strategies

The data in table 8 reflect that the teachers used two teaching strategies namely: giving the teaching materials directly and giving assignment to practice the teaching materials. The students really like the teaching strategies According to the students both strategies have made them understand the lessons easily. The following statements illustrate how teachers' teaching strategies affect the students' achievement in learning English.

S 002)

"The way of our English teacher teaching in the classroom makes us understand the English lessons easily. The teacher explains the lessons clearly, gives relevant examples, motivates us to participate and ask questions about the lessons. In my opinion such strategy really helps me understand the English lessons, because the teacher gives what the students need. (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:66)"

Other statements were also given by the other students in the interview. They complained about the teachers' bad strategies when teaching English lessons.

S 006)

"Sometimes the teacher explains his English lessons too fast that I frequently find it difficult to under the lessons. When the teacher gives us tasks from the lessons, I cannot complete the tasks because I do not understand the lessons from the beginning. (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:66)"

S 011)

"I think that I like an English teacher who explains his lessons slowly and clearly. After that he gives us assignments about the lessons. (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:67)"

The statements indicate that the English teachers' teaching strategies give a major contribution to the development of students' writing skills. The teaching strategies not only play an important role in helping the students learn easily and effectively, but also encourage them to learn seriously to increase their skills and knowledge of English. In other words, the teachers' strategies in teaching and learning process could considerably influence the students' progress in language acquisition (Yassi, A. H. and Kaharuddin 2018).

3. Teacher's Media in Teaching

Using teaching media also affects the English teachers' success in teaching their students. Therefore, the teachers are required to select suitable media for particular language skill. For example, English songs can be used as media to teach listening skill or pronunciation skill. In teaching writing descriptive texts, the teachers simply used textbooks and worksheets (LKS). These simple media were very useful to some students.

S 015)

"I like the media used by the English teacher such as the textbooks or the worksheets. From textbooks, I can learn the lessons easily because I can read the lessons carefully. On the other hand, the worksheets gives me opportunity to practice the lessons for better understanding. (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:68)"

Another similar statement was also given by a student in the interview as follows:

S 018)

"My teacher usually distributes worksheets related to the lessons to the students, and I find it helpful to understand the lessons because I can take them home which gives me more opportunity to learn. (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:68)"

By referring to the statements, we may assert that the media used by the teacher in teaching writing skill has an important role in making the students understand the writing lessons easily. As Ismail., Sunubi, A. H., Halidin, A., Nanning & Kaharuddin (2020) stated that the appropriate media used by the English teacher when teaching will positively support teaching and learning process which is in turn able to stimulate the students' interest and motivation to learn English earnestly.

4. Classroom Environment

The data in Table 8 also indicate that the students have a problem regarding the classroom environment. The noisy classroom became one of the biggest problems for them because it not only disturbed their focus and concentration during learning, but also negatively affects their understanding on the lessons. These are their statements:

S 003)

"The biggest disturbance for me when studying is the noise in the classroom. When some friends don't pay attention to the teacher's lesson and are busy with talking about their own personal business one another in the classroom. I lose focus and it sometimes makes me not understand what the teacher is talking about (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:69)"

S 009)

"I really can't understand the lessons from the teacher if many students make noise in the classroom, some friends also often talk to me, so it makes me miss the teacher's explanations (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:69)"

S 020)

"I often lose my concentration in learning because my classmates often disturb me by asking about the meanings of some difficult vocabulary, even though each student has a dictionary but they are lazy to search for the vocabulary themselves. Fortunately sometimes the teacher reprimands them (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:70)"

From the students' statements, it stands to reason for saying that the environment of the classroom when learning writing skill has a big influence on students' focus on the lessons. This fact is relevant to what Gazmuri, Manzi, & Paredes (2015) state that the surrounding environment, the way that teachers manage their classrooms and school discipline are generally regarded as crucial factors in students' learning experiences. In addition, Hannah (2013) also gives similar comment about it that the classroom environment plays a crucial role in keeping students engaged and allowing them to be successful within the classroom.

5. Students' Learning Strategy

The data in Table 8 show that the students basically use certain learning strategies to learn writing skill. Most of the students (9 out of 27) like reading English texts such as novels, comics, stories, or news to enrich their English vocabulary. On the other hand, 6 out of 27 students take English course at English training institutions out of their school. These things seem to be the most dominant strategy used by the students to improve their English skills. They believe that having knowledge and skills of English by the strategies has enabled them to understand the lessons on writing descriptive texts easily. The students' statements are presented as follows:

S 005)

"I usually learn vocabulary by reading comics, because nowadays good online comics use mostly English, so I try to read and find the meaning of the new vocabulary that I get (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:71)"

S 002)

"I study outside of school by taking English lessons, I take lessons to better understand learning materials and also a lot of material that I didn't get at school but I got at my English tutoring (Sari, A. A. I. 2020:70)"

The statements above indicate that the students use certain strategies to deal with problems in learning English at schools. Some of them use particular ways to improve their English skills before receiving lessons on English writing. Some prefer reading English texts in their leisure time to enrich their English vocabulary, and some prefer to take English lessons at language center after going back from schools. This is what we recognize as the students' learning strategy. Therefore, learning strategy in this context may be defined as the students' way of dealing with learning a lesson or completing a task (Schumaker, J. B., & Deshler, D. D. 1992). The students' Learning strategies outside the classrooms have given a great contribution to the development of their skill in writing descriptive texts. Huy (2015) stated that self-study at home plays an important part since it prepares students' knowledge before coming to the classroom, and after that it helps students review what they learned.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of data analysis from both quantitative (writing test) and qualitative data (questionnaires and interviews) showed that the implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in the classroom is effective in developing the students' skills in writing descriptive texts. The students' skill level in writing descriptive text was fair before but after the treatment with Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT), the students' skill level increases to good level. It means there was an improvement in the students' writing achievement before and after the treatment. On the other hand, the result of the Questionnaires and the Interviews showed that there are 5 contributing factors to the development of students' skills in writing descriptive texts, among other things; Students' Interest, Teacher's Strategy, Teacher's Media, Classroom Environment, and Students' Learning Strategy. The overall findings from this research prove that TBLT has produced positive effect in the students' skill achievement in writing descriptive texts, but not for the other types of writing particularly, academic writing, or other skills of English. We recommend that English language teachers provide more opportunities to learn this method which is expected enable them to understand and apply it in their English pedagogy. Having the knowledge of TBLT is believed able to build up the teachers' confidence and pedagogic skill in their classrooms (Lin, T. B., & Wu, C. W. 2012).

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Pragmatic Competence of Iranian EFL Learners in the Light of Refusal Speech Act

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Abstract—In order to communicate accurately and fluently, learners need to know how to produce different speech acts inside and outside the classroom context. Refusal speech act is complicated, and performing refusals successfully needs a higher level of pragmatic competence (Eslami, 2010). This study is done in order to analyze refusal speech act and its responses among Iranian EFL learners. The participants of this study are 120 advanced Iranian EFL learners. These learners are provided with scenarios so that they are exposed to situations where they should both refuse and respond to refusals. The first phase of this paper includes the analysis of refusal strategies. The second phase of the paper deals with refusal responses. It was revealed that female participants are more inclined to use indirect strategies as related to refusals and male participants are more inclined to use direct strategies. For refusal responses, male learners used reinforcing micro functions while female learners used accepting micro functions more frequently. The results of this study contribute to pragmatic instruction in a way to help learners interpret and realize this speech act successfully. I will also investigate possible cross-cultural miscommunication, which its occurrence is also acknowledged in previous research studies (Shishavan & Sharifian, 2016).

Index Terms—cross-cultural miscommunication, EFL learners, pragmatic instruction, refusal speech act

I. INTRODUCTION

Social language abilities are fundamental segments of fruitful interaction with others. As such, individuals need to realize what to say, how to say it, their non-verbal communication and regardless of whether it is fitting to the given circumstance (Brown, 2007). The utilization of language in friendly settings and the manners by which individuals deliver and understand implications through language has been of the primary worry of language researchers which drove them to think of the idea of Pragmatics.

Pragmatics has different implications relying upon the unique situation; be that as it may, it has a more particular importance in applied phonetics. Morris, in his semiotics, in 1971 first proposed the possibility of pragmatics as chiefly the investigation of the connection between the signs and their mediators or between the language and the people who utilize it in friendly settings. As per Yule (2006), pragmatics is the investigation of significance as passed on by a speaker/essayist and comprehended by an audience/peruser. In fact, it endeavors to examine the implying that the speaker/essayist needs to co-build alongside the audience/peruser inside a particular social setting with thinking about the social requirements (Stadler, 2011). Close by the investigation of pragmatics, there seems another field called Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP). To be more exact, ILP endeavors to research non-local speakers' development and cognizance of the even minded highlights of the objective language accepting the investigation of implicatures, graciousness procedures, presuppositions and speech acts. Speech acts are actions accomplished by expressions like providing request, promising, rejecting, grumbling, mentioning, and so forth They assume an observable part in second language (L2) correspondence, and are workable and learnable, in this way, they are among the most completely examined regions in pragmatics.

Not exclusively does the setting where the expression is delivered assume an incredible part in translation of a message, yet in addition the way of life of members partaking in the act of correspondence can assume a recognizable part in passing on the importance. As Golato (2003) states, the correspondence created isn't made in a social vacuum. In view of the chief point of pragmatics in genuine use, for example the utilization of language in various social and social settings, the students ought to know about the determination and use of the right speech act procedure assuming they need to keep away from diverse false impressions. At the point when speech acts are played out, the students should know about the "normal practices" (e.g., realizing the ideal opportunity to ask your supervisor for an advancement), "social thinking", which can be characterized as why the speech acts are created in that manner, and "information" about the result of having expressed that speech act in that specific culture. Subsequently, the students can profit with knowing about the accompanying factors assuming they need to have fruitful correspondence in the objective language: (1) the objective language culture, (2) the age and sex of the speaker as against the listener(s), (3) their social class and callings, and (4) the societal position and jobs of individuals associated with the interaction (Jalilimehr et al., 2012).

As referenced before, a fruitful interaction requires the conversationalists' determination of the kind of circumstance (where offering, promising, or mentioning, and so forth is required) and choice on appropriate action to be performed is called speech acts. Likewise, just some specific ways are satisfactory for a circumstance and speech act for having a

successful correspondence. Most speech acts are responsible to have ordinary and regular examples for speakers of any language (Cutting, 2002). Also, the fact that to whom the speaker is passing on the message; the conversationalists' general power and social position, is of boss factors which ought not to be overlooked in any friendly correspondence.

Correspondence, routinely, is assumed as just communicating one's thoughts. By and by, this conviction ought to be considered inside and out to arrive at an unmistakable discernment in the act of correspondence. For example, the act of saying 'sorry' is undoubtedly the act of verbally communicating lament for (not) accomplishing something and conceding the fact that what the speaker has (not) done might have caused the listener some damage. A conciliatory sentiment is open because of the statement of a specific mentality stowed away in the act, for this situation lament. The correspondence; notwithstanding, as Austin (1962) announces, succeeds in case it is seen and perceived as proposed. Consequently, in a fruitful act of conciliatory sentiment, for example, the recipient ought to recognize the speaker's expectation for communicating lament for some deed or exclusion. Additionally, if the speaker picks his words so that the recipient can know about his informative goal, the ideal open achievement is certainly acquired. Thus, with the end goal of expression of remorse, articulating "oh no" can be sufficient to tell the listener that in fact the speaker needs to show lament.

As talked about above, when an expression is created, not exclusively might want the speaker to communicate his/her aim by picking a particular act, however he likewise endeavors to deliver some outcome on the audience. Our speech act determination of words (jargon) can cloud this fact, however. By articulating conciliatory sentiment, for instance, one might expect not only to communicate lament yet in addition to request absolution; albeit, one expression is the presentation of an act of the two sorts. As a conciliatory sentiment, the informative reason will be satisfied in case it is taken as communicating lament for the deed; while, the act of looking for absolution succeeds in case pardoning is in this manner got.

Speech acts, as expressed prior, have three incorporated levels, specifically locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. In spite of this, they are segregated for the most part by their illocutionary type, for example, mentioning, promising and saying 'sorry' which are in fact recognized by the kind of disposition communicated. In any case, the fact stays that speech acts for the most part have some ulterior reason the perlocutionary act which should be accomplished in any fruitful correspondence. By perlocutionary act it is implied that the speaker is attempting to get the listener to have the relating demeanor or to act in an unmistakable manner. A solicitation, for instance, communicates the speaker's eagerness towards the recipient to do something specific and in fact looks for the recipient's goal to actually do that thing. Notwithstanding, with regards to arranging the speech acts, they are for the most part thought to be founded on their illocutionary acts as opposed with the impact they can have on the listener. Consequently, in regards to all the previously mentioned thoughts regarding speech acts and the goals conveyed in any act, four unmistakable kinds of speech acts are classified as: constatives, mandates, commissives and affirmations. This terminology, which is a nitty gritty scientific classification of speech acts, was applied by Cutting (2002) in which each kind of illocutionary act is distinguished by the sort of mentality communicated in that speech act.

Consequently, this paper will give a foundation to the thought of speech act, especially the refusal speech act based on which this examination is completed, notwithstanding the idea of Face and the social factors that impact any suitable expression of speech act. Then, at that point, it will express the issue that is meant to be fixed by doing this examination and furthermore it will present importance and motivation behind the current investigation. From that point onward, the exploration questions tended to by this examination and a few speculations will be introduced.

Specialists accept that speech acts are outstanding amongst other methods of contemplating correspondence styles because of their utilization of minor practically identical units of talk. Subsequently, examination of this sort can add to comprehension of human's semantic presentation and tracking down the essential examples of a speech act. Likewise, the idea of sex is of interest among sociolinguistic researchers. At the end of the day, the assortment and differentiation which might exist among people in applying certain procedures for a particular speech act have stirred the interest of numerous analysts. The aftereffect of such investigations can profit the language educators, first, to perceive any conceivable sociolinguistic contrasts between the sexual orientations, second, to see the sexes' eagerness in choosing explicit methodologies for a speech act, lastly, to give the students the necessary etymological information for playing out the very speech act.

Additionally, speech acts, among them the refusal speech acts in light of their high incessant nature, are essential pieces of language without which a speaker misses nothing to joke about of a fruitful correspondence. Thusly, experiences can be conceded to the language instructors to be definitely aware of this fact and the outcomes can help them not restrict themselves in showing speech act uses and techniques just to higher capability understudies. To this end, to have more successful job in classes, the instructors ought to give clear criticism of how students perform (in regards to a speech act) at different levels and what their propensity towards the speech act procedure resembles. The aftereffects of this examination are relied upon to reveal insight into previously mentioned focuses and help language practitioners have clear comprehension of their students concerning their sex and capability contrasts.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Pragmatics places accentuation on the importance in discussions among conversationalists. All in all, a student with full syntactic skill may not be even-mindedly capable as well. Students might create right syntactic sentences in

discussions which are logically improper. Along these lines, such breakdowns might frustrate the correspondence among conversationalists which is called 'down to earth disappointment'. One of the significant factors of even minded disappointment lies in the fact that students move speech act methodologies from their local language (Ellis, 2008). The subsequent one identifies with input. In spite of the fact that it is important for students to get a lot of contribution from the climate, English reading material might have issues to introduce activities which target sober minded ability (Kasper, 1984).

Pragmatics is the investigation of language utilized in legitimate discussions which mirrors the relationship among sentences, settings, and circumstances. Pragmatics has not an obvious definition (Ellis, 2008). As Kasper (1984) referenced, pragmatics thinks about etymological highlights according to clients of that language. One of the hidden subjects in pragmatics is speech act. The hypothesis of speech acts is grown chiefly by certain scientists. The focal suspicion in the hypothesis of speech act is that the negligible unit of correspondence isn't a sentence or different articulations but instead language act. In another term, human language can be seen as actions. People perform things by saying various types of language acts like refusals, solicitations, guarantees and so forth. Austin (1962, p. 67) examined speech acts according to the accompanying viewpoint: "to consider from the beginning the number of faculties there are in which to say something is to accomplish something, or in saying something we accomplish something and even by saying something we accomplish something." According to his view, any expression is made out of the accompanying acts: the locutionary act (the actual words the speaker is saying), the illocutionary act (the expectation of the speaker) and the perlocutionary act (the impact of expression on the listener).

Language learning doesn't occur in a vacuum. Thus, the nature of interactions ought to be broke down as per common requirements which exist among questioners. Along these lines, Brown (2007) squabbled over the biology of language which considers the ecological factors of realizing which thusly put accentuation on the language use. The thought prospers with what Verschueren (1999) schematized as natural points of view of language.

In their model, Brown (2007) alluded to four factors: Microsystem, Mesosystem, Ecosystem, and Macrosystem. Microsystem is the nearest ecological layer influencing the student which accepts guardians, instructors, kin and companions. Macrosystem, which is set at the furthest layer, considers the whole culture of the general public. These biological viewpoints which are addressed by Williams and Burden are not unlike the construction of an onion stressing that people have interactions with social and cultural highlights and the student is set at the focal point of a mind boggling structure. Hence, people might have various styles and systems when talking together since they are from various societal position and there are, obviously, power relations which are probably going to impact the nature of talk among questioners. With respect to the speech act, the shows of the general public are solid indicators of how people perform various acts according to other people.

Customarily, under the rubric of Grammar Translation Method (GTM), language was viewed as a bunch of abstract punctuation rules and arrangements of jargon to remember (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). The focal worry of unknown dialect study was to examine language in its own purpose. In this time, there was no attempt to think about the biology of language which accounts the speech local area also. With the coming of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), notwithstanding, the consideration transformed from the investigation of language in a vacuum to explore the actual utilization of language in an intentional setting wherein the open ability was the focal concern (Brown, 2007). With the incredible spotlight on phonetic variety and fittingness of the language being utilized, language went to a riddle, addressing every one of which needs to see the issue with various glasses. It was no more the language that made a difference the most. Each language has clients. It is the clients of a language, among different factors, that has given the language its confounded nature. For example, how it is feasible to characterize great or how much commitment is behind an absolute necessity, has to realize the two conversationalists conveying the words just as the situational factors. At the point when the focal point of consideration moved for language use and when specialists gave a valiant effort to research sort of changeability found in student language (Ellis, 2008), information on pragmatics acquired significance.

Pragmatics has not a fixed definition (Ellis, 2008); be that as it may, the overall idea of pragmatics identifies with the thought of semantic highlights according to clients of the language. Richards and Schmidt (2002) examined pragmatics as "the investigation of the utilization of language in correspondence, especially the connections among sentences and the unique circumstances and circumstances in which they are utilized" (p. 412). As per Ishihara and Cohen (2010, p. 3), a logically solid correspondence in L2 relies upon the accompanying factors:

- (1) our proficiency in that L2 and possibly in other (especially related) languages, (2) our age, gender, occupation, social status, and experience in the relevant L2-speaking communities, and (3) our previous experiences with pragmatically competent L2 speakers and our multilingual/multicultural experiences in general.

Communication, conventionally, is supposed as merely expressing oneself. Nevertheless, this belief should be considered in depth in order to reach a clear perception in the act of communication. For instance, the act of apologizing is *indeed* the act of verbally expressing regret for (not) doing something and admitting the fact that what the speaker has (not) done might have caused the hearer some harm. An apology is communicative due to the expression of a certain attitude hidden in the act, in this case regret. The communication; however, succeeds if it is perceived and understood as intended. Thus, in a successful act of apology, for instance, the addressee should identify the speaker's intention for expressing regret for some deed or omission. Moreover, if the speaker chooses his words in such a way that the

addressee can be aware of his communicative intention, the desired communicative success is definitely gained. So, for the purpose of apology, uttering “oops” can be enough to let the hearer know that in fact the speaker wants to show regret.

As discussed above, when an utterance is produced, not only would like the speaker to express his/her intention by choosing a specific act, but he also attempts to produce some effect on the listener. Our speech act selection of words (vocabulary) can obscure this fact, though. By uttering apology, for example, one may intend not merely to express regret but also to ask for forgiveness; although, one utterance is the performance of an act of both types. As an apology, the communicative purpose will be fulfilled if it is taken as expressing regret for the deed; while, the act of seeking forgiveness succeeds if forgiveness is thereby obtained.

III. RESULTS

EFL Learners' Refusal Utterances

During this phase of the study, refusal utterances are investigated using the four eliciting tools. Refusal utterances are investigated with regard to being direct and indirect. Generally speaking, refusals have the primary macro function of being indirect in all four eliciting acts. However, with regard to micro functions the frequencies are different. The frequency table of each eliciting tool is manifested in the following parts. It was found out that refusals to requests have elicited more refusals than any other eliciting tool as it is related to EFL learners. It means that it is more likely that learners would react to requests more than other eliciting tools.

Among the macro levels, it is clear that most EFL learners were inclined towards indirect strategies. As related to micro strategies, it was found out that male EFL learners had a tendency toward excuse (n= 15) but female learners were more inclined towards performative verbs (n= 23). Then, female learners try to use the direct macro function as the primary response but male learners used indirect macro function. Table 1 reveals the distribution of frequencies in refusals of requests in different genders:

TABLE 1
DIRECT AND INDIRECT STRATEGIES OF REFUSALS TO REQUESTS

Macro Level	Micro Strategies	Frequency		Total
		Male	Female	
Direct Strategies	Performative verbs	12	23	35
	Non-performative statements	5	7	12
Indirect Strategies	Regret	4	9	13
	Wish	8	3	12
	Excuse, reason, and explanation	15	5	20
	Alternative	4	9	13
	Set condition	3	6	9
	Promise of acceptance	7	8	15
	St. principle	9	12	21
	Threat or St. consequence	1	5	6
	Guilt trip	6	11	17
	Criticism	7	11	18
	Request	5	4	9
	Off the hook	1	2	3
	Self-defense	4	4	8
	Unspecific reply	5	3	8
	Lack of enthusiasm	2	4	6
	Non-verbal avoidance	2	3	5
	Topic switch	1	5	6
	Joke	3	1	4
	Repetition	2	1	3
	Postponement	4	3	7
	Hedge	2	5	7
Total		113	144	257

As it is revealed in Table 1, male EFL learners used *threat*, *off the hook*, and *topic switch* with the least frequency. Among female learners, joke and repetition were the least used semantic formula. Overall, it was female learners who used more refusals to requests. The data showed that most women tried to refuse a request even by producing a combined strategy to show the strength of the refusal. Another interesting issue is that females used micro functions which were more accepted in the society, for instance, girls used less jokes than males.

As it is related to refusals which are gathered through suggestions, it was found out that both men and women had a tendency toward indirect macro level. Among micro levels, male EFL learners used non-performative statements most (n= 22) but among female participants it was non-performative verbs (n= 14) which outweigh other micro functions. Then the primary response type for both men and women is direct macro level. Table 2 reveals summary of results:

TABLE 2
DIRECT AND INDIRECT STRATEGIES OF REFUSALS TO SUGGESTION

Macro Level	Micro Strategies	Frequency		Total
		Male	Female	
Direct Strategies	Performative verbs	13	14	27
	Non-performative statements	22	12	34
Indirect strategies	Regret	4	6	10
	Wish	3	5	8
	Excuse, reason, and explanation	5	8	13
	Alternative	2	5	7
	Set condition	3	7	10
	Promise of acceptance	7	3	10
	St. principle	1	7	8
	Threat or St. consequence	3	7	10
	Guilt trip	5	5	10
	Criticism	3	1	4
	Request	1	1	2
	Off the hook	2	3	5
	Self-defense	3	6	9
	Unspecific reply	7	2	9
	Lack of enthusiasm	4	2	6
	Non-verbal avoidance	6	4	10
	Topic switch	5	7	12
	Joke	8	2	10
	Repetition	4	7	11
	Postponement	7	2	9
	Hedge	2	2	4
Total		120	118	238

Male EFL learners used statement of principle and request as the least used micro functions while for female learners it was criticism and request which were observed with the least frequencies. All in all, men used more refusals in this type of eliciting act. Men produced 120 refusals but women produced 118 refusals. In this type of refusals as well, it was observed that females are affected by the Iranian concept of *adab* (courtesy). For instance, female learners used less jokes than men.

For refusals to offers, men and women were inclined to use indirect strategies. That is to say, the frequency of indirect micro functions was higher with comparison to direct macro function. For male EFL learners, the most used micro function is joke (n= 9) and for women the most used macro function is non-performative statements (n= 14). Therefore, for a more clear investigation, females' primary response type would be a direct one but for male learners it is the indirect strategies which outweigh. Another important feature of the following table is that as it is related to 'lack of enthusiasm', female learners significantly used more refusals than male learners. It is again part of women's psychology. It is generally believed that women tend to show that they have more interest towards communication and establishing a conversation (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). However, the results of this study showed a different pattern with regard to refusals to offers. Table 3 reveals summary of results:

TABLE 3
DIRECT AND INDIRECT STRATEGIES OF REFUSALS TO OFFERS

Macro Level	Micro Strategies	Frequency		Total
		Male	Female	
Direct Strategies	Performative verbs	7	9	16
	Non-performative statements	6	14	20
Indirect strategies	Regret	8	3	11
	Wish	3	3	6
	Excuse, reason, and explanation	1	1	2
	Alternative	1	1	2
	Set condition	6	3	9
	Promise of acceptance	2	7	9
	St. principle	7	3	10
	Threat or St. consequence	5	5	10
	Guilt trip	3	3	6
	Criticism	1	3	4
	Request	6	9	15
	Off the hook	7	8	15
	Self-defense	3	9	12
	Unspecific reply	3	5	8
	Lack of enthusiasm	2	11	13
	Non-verbal avoidance	1	3	4
	Topic switch	4	8	12
	Joke	9	1	10
	Repetition	3	5	8
	Postponement	3	3	6
	Hedge	4	6	10
Total		95	123	218

Among male EFL learners, alternative comments, criticism, and non-verbal avoidance were observed with the least frequency. It means that male EFL learners did not have inclination to use these micro functions. However, among female EFL learners, functions such as excuse, alternative comments, and joke were used the least. Women used more refusals than men as it is related to refusals to offers. That is to say, offers would elicit more refusals from female learners than male ones.

As it is related to refusals to invitations, it should be mentioned that the most dominant macro function is direct. Both male and female EFL learners used direct strategies as the dominant way to refuse invitations. Both male and female EFL learners used performative verbs ($n= 12, 22$, respectively) to refuse invitations. Therefore, the primary function of refusals for invitation is direct. Table 4 reveals summary of results:

TABLE 4
DIRECT AND INDIRECT STRATEGIES OF REFUSALS TO INVITATIONS

Macro Level	Micro Strategies	Frequency		Total
		Male	Female	
Direct Strategies	Performative verbs	12	22	34
	Non-performative statements	6	9	15
Indirect Strategies	Regret	4	4	8
	Wish	6	8	14
	Excuse, reason, and explanation	3	9	12
	Alternative	6	8	14
	Set condition	6	1	7
	Promise of acceptance	3	7	10
	St. principle	2	5	7
	Threat or St. consequence	1	3	4
	Guilt trip	3	1	4
	Criticism	6	3	9
	Request	7	6	13
	Off the hook	4	8	12
	Self-defense	2	8	10
	Unspecific reply	4	7	11
	Lack of enthusiasm	2	7	9
	Non-verbal avoidance	1	11	12
	Topic switch	3	7	10
	Joke	7	2	9
	Repetition	5	3	8
	Postponement	4	4	8
	Hedge	3	2	5
Total		100	145	245

As for the similarity of comparison among all the eliciting tools, in refusals to invitations, the least used strategies by men were threat and nonverbal avoidance while for women strategies such as set condition and guilt trip were used the least. Generally speaking, women were more inclined to refuse in situations related to invitation.

To put it in a nutshell, after rank ordering the frequency of refusal utterances, we found out that female EFL learners ($n= 530$) used more refusals in their utterances than male learners ($n= 427$). Female EFL learners used 530 refusals which are higher than the amount which was observed by male learners. It can be concluded that, as earlier were discussed, women provide more refusals than men among EFL learners. It means that female learners were less concerned with the positive face of the interlocutors. In other words, they were not inclined as being more polite than men. Part of this characteristic comes from the societal factors. Persian culture put women in a specific framework in which women should respect concepts such as *adab* (courtesy) and *sh'an* (dignity). Therefore, having been influenced by these features, women try to refuse more since the acceptance of a request or other eliciting acts would be regarded impolite especially when the other interlocutor is a man. Table 5 shows the significance of differences between male and female EFL learners with regard to refusals:

TABLE 5
ANALYSIS OF SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES WITH REGARD TO REFUSAL MACRO FUNCTIONS

Macro Functions	Male	Frequency	Female	X ²	Sig. <i>p</i> < .05
Direct	83		110	3.777	.052
Indirect	344		420	7.560	.006*

* Significant at *p* value of .05

As the previous table showed, the result of Chi-square analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between male and female EFL learners with regard to indirect macro functions of refusal ($X^2= 7.560$). However, with regard to direct macro function, there is no significance difference ($X^2= 3.777$). Table 6 shows a summary of main results as related to men and women in the study. For a matter of comparison, direct and indirect strategies are separated.

TABLE 6
OVERALL GENDER DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EFL LEARNERS WITH REGARD TO REFUSALS

Macro Level	Micro Strategies	Frequency Male	Female	Total
Direct Strategies	Performative verbs	44	68	112
	Non-performative statements	39	42	81
Indirect Strategies	Regret	20	22	42
	Wish	20	19	39
	Excuse, reason, and explanation	10	23	33
	Alternative	13	23	36
	Set condition	18	17	35
	Promise of acceptance	19	25	44
	St. principle	19	27	46
	Threat or St. consequence	24	20	44
	Guilt trip	17	20	37
	Criticism	17	18	35
	Request	19	20	39
	Off the hook	14	21	35
	Self-defense	12	27	39
	Unspecific reply	19	17	36
	Lack of enthusiasm	10	24	34
	Non-verbal avoidance	10	21	31
	Topic switch	13	27	40
	Joke	27	6	33
	Repetition	14	16	30
	Postponement	18	12	30
	Hedge	11	15	26
Total		427	530	957

As Table 6 reveals, for both male and female learners, the most dominant macro function is indirect. That is, both groups of participants were more inclined towards micro strategies related to indirect strategies. With regard to dominant micro function, it was performative verbs for both male learners ($n= 44$) and female learners ($n= 68$). The least used micro strategy for men is excuse ($n= 10$) while for women it is joke ($n= 6$).

IV. CONCLUSION

Some significant highlights in regards to EFL students are talked about in this examination in that sociocultural standards will have extraordinary impact in transit students perform diverse speech acts. This examination makes ready for additional cross-semantic exploration to see if there is an all inclusive example considering realistic skill or every language has its own particular manner of performing specific speech acts.

It is accepted that this work can be repeated in different settings excessively to affirm the discoveries of the investigation and to show up to new viewpoints. In addition, it will be useful to locate refusal speech act through different instruments like normally happening talk in interactions. Moreover, we can analyze refusal reactions among local English speakers. Force connections ought to be considered as well. For example, one might research whether

there is any distinction between the manners in which a representative rejects his/her chief or the other way around. The job old enough and social sculptures can't be thought little of also. Age has consistently been a powerful factor particularly in the field of social sciences. Additionally, some longitudinal investigations ought to be done to see if the examples of refusal speech act would change after some time. To place it more or less, refusal speech act is in its earliest stages, in contrast with examines done on other speech acts, for example, saying 'sorry' Subsequently, huge scope examines are expected to discover more data about all inclusive examples of performing refusal speech act.

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The Act of Slavery in 20th Century as Reflected in Samuel Beckett's *Waiting for Godot*

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Abstract—This study aims to analyze the act of slavery that happened in Samuel Beckett's *Waiting for Godot*. The characters that are involved are Pozzo as the master and Lucky as his slave. By analyzing how Pozzo oppresses Lucky, it reflects the act of slavery that also happened in reality in the 20th century when the story was written. This study is a qualitative descriptive method using the sociology of literature approach to reveal the connection between the situations in the play with the situations of the world in the 20th century. The data of this research are collected from the utterances and dialogues of the characters in the text play *Waiting for Godot*. The result showed that the act of slavery acted by Pozzo and Lucky also happened in the 20th century before, during, and after World War II in the 1940s. An upper-class society would enslave and oppress a lower-class society at the time because they had power and money.

Index Terms—slavery, lower class, upper-class, 20th century

I. INTRODUCTION

Literature simply means a collection of literary works that contain written and non-written accounts, including texts and spoken language. It shows that literature is an expression of a person that is described by words, actions, and writings. In general, literature may be understood as a written piece of art produced by a certain author (Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019). Literature also forms art that is used to express meaning and convey the beauty of language (Arafah, 2018). The language used in the literature is an utterance that performs an act used by a speaker or character in communicating with other characters (Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019). Meanwhile, in the 20th century, the theory of literature has developed rapidly. The development raises several multidisciplinary theories such as sociology of literature, anthropology of literature, and psychology of literature (Kaharuddin & Latif, 2017; Arafah, 2018).

Besides the literature development, the era of information technology has changed the way people think and change the way of human behavior (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019). It can be seen that literary works have authors' personal opinions on a certain matter. Arafah & Hasyim (2019) also argue that the change of technology made children want to hear stories or fairy tales before they go to sleep. This story that they are about to hear is categorized in children's literature. It has to have a relation with children's daily life without providing a complicated plot. The author from this category should think simply and not to make the readers confused. Therefore, literary works reflect an author's thoughts, manners, behavior, and attitudes throughout their works. Readers can understand them by analyzing the patterns or the style of the work (Hasanah, Arafah, & Abbas, 2021). As a result, readers or people who read a literary work with high motivation will also lead to achieving more information about it (Arafah et.al, 2020).

Literature is a resource viewed as a culturally valued text that is reflecting human life (Sunardi, Arafah, & Salija, 2018). Wellek and Warren (1956) also state that literature is a social institution that reflects the phenomena of social behavior in society using language as its media to express the author's thoughts. Therefore, an author generally writes based on what happened around him or her by exploring the phenomena as the topic to write in a literary work. The text of a literary work will be meaningful and give complete information if it is observed in its context, such as by studying the cultural discourse (Arafah, Thayyib, Kaharuddin, & Sahib, 2020.) It also aims to engage the study of personal, cultural, societal, and aesthetic values as an attempt to understand human experiences in this life (Sunardi, Arafah, & Salija, 2018). It can be concluded that literature is a product of art in society. That is why literary works can be seen as social products that are equivalent to cultural, political, and social studies issues (Irmawati, Arafah, & Abbas, 2020).

Literature provides useful information on the most appropriate types of literature such as Short stories, Poems, Novels, Plays, as well as Songs (Arafah, 2018). Furthermore, this writing will only focus on play or drama. All texts containing dialogues written to be performed in the form of stage action in front of an audience can be called dramas or

also known as plays. Through understanding a scene in a drama, readers can learn the culture of a certain society contained in the script of a drama and try to involve themselves in situations of the scenario of the drama.

A play by Samuel Beckett entitled *Waiting for Godot; Tragicomedy in Two Acts* deals with slavery that reflects 20th-century life but has not been broadly discussed. The act of slavery that is experiencing by the lower class society in a literary work is important to reveal because it has a relation with the condition of when and where the literary work was written. The relation between the existence of a certain class and a literary work is that literature and all other cultural phenomena reflect patterns of economic relations because literature is bound to the classes that exist in society (Taum, 1997). Milner (1981) also states that a literary work is only possible to write if the author has experiences that are directly related to the social world. Besides, Goldmann (1980) states that a literary work must have a relation with the historical background. That is why the text's sociality and communicability can be captured.

An author opens the doors of the unknown and invisible worlds to readers not only by stimulating feelings and emotions but also by helping them to discover the meanings of life and existence (Floriani & Arafah, 2020). *Waiting for Godot* itself is a play generally known as theatre of absurd. It is because Beckett put his view based on what he has learned from the previous writers or influenced by his neighborhood at the time. The story of the play is commonly known as an attempt of characters to find the existence of life by doing many absurd and unusual things. Furthermore, their attempt to find the meaning of life is to change the life better by meeting Godot. The author usually displays the behavior of characters with unusual, absurd, or abnormal personalities that bring about various readers' feelings. People indeed believe that human behavior is still attributed to inner motives, intentions, aims, and plans (Purwaningsih, Arafah, & Abbas, 2020).

There must be some other researchers that have been written about the same topic or the same object. All the previous studies presented here give some hints in comprehending problems that are found in the play. As the writer found, some researchers have analyzed *Waiting for Godot* from different kinds of perspectives, such as the religious meaning (Amin, Abdulla, Ali, & Ahmed, 2019; Wang, 2011), the attempt to find human existence (Singla, 2016), or the failure of comedy (Ithawi, 2020). Another research also presented the reflection of social class in the 19th century using the object *Wuthering Heights* (Indrasari & Abbas, 2020). They are both presenting the social class and condition of society in a certain period using a sociological approach.

Unfortunately, no journal article evaluates the act of slavery and its relation to the 20th century when the play was written. Therefore, to fill in the gap, this research focuses on the act of slavery represented by Pozzo the master, and Lucky as his slave. The name of Lucky himself is a contradiction because the meaning of his name is promising his life seems fine, but in fact, he lives in misery. According to Hasjim, Arafah, et al (2020), names stand for things or people and the names' mean depend on what they stand for. In this case, Lucky does not get the meaning of his name in real life. Based on that, the writers also tell the readers about the real condition of the world in the 20th century when the play was written.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Sociology of literature consists of sociology and how sociology reflects in a literary work. Talking about sociology, it cannot be separated from the fact that it has a relation with society. It learns how the people interact and socialize with each other in one community. Therefore, the sociological approach helps the writers to see the relationship between a literary work and the society where the story was written.

Georg Lukacs clearly states in Milner (1981) that a literary work is only possible to write if the author has experiences that are directly related to the social world. Then for him, the great writer must be able to put his thought, imagination, and experience in his literary work as original writing and has an inseparable connection between human as a private individual and human as a social being, as a member of society. Therefore, the sociological approach is an appropriate approach to not only study human behavior in society but also how the social communities influence or affect their behaviors in daily life. A literary work can never be separated from the social background includes in it. The readers who also read the literary work can get more explanation by exploring the extrinsic elements of the literary work.

Pfefferkon (2014) states that over the past three decades social inequality has grown in France, as in many other countries. However, in that period, the dominant discourse also happened in society such as in social, economic, and political life. Moreover, Pfefferkon (2014) adds that the differences of hierarchies in society in the 20th century raise several conflicts between the different groups which can cause them to become rivals. In the end, these groups compete with one another to maintain their position. As an example, the upper class will be a master while the lower class will be a slave.

After that, from the late 1970s onward, the number of unemployment arises along with the arising of short-term employment. This fact leads the workers to have less ability to organize themselves and fight for their life sustainabilities. The last choice they can do to continue their living is to work for people who have money and power, being a slave is one of them. To sum up, the act of slavery is the result of the government's actions. The representation of Pozzo and Lucky are symbols of how dominant the government is to society. In socio-cultural life in society, these kinds of symbols are used to connect the relation between one class to another class in one environment (Hasyim, Arafah, & Kuswarini, 2020). In the end, it is still about the class that has power that will control the people from the

lower class. Society is struggling to get a better position but seems useless since the power struggle is always be won by those who have power.

The social background that will be revealed in this study is the act of slavery. Therefore, in applying the sociology of literature, the writers find more information about the real condition of the 20th century and connect the story with the author's biography. It is because the author wrote the story in the 1940s after World War II and the author was one of the soldiers who stand for his country.

III. METHODOLOGY

The technique of data analysis that is used in this study is the descriptive qualitative method. The writers firstly discuss the act of slavery based on the scenes and dialogues from the characters. By explaining the situation, the writers then connect it with the world's real condition in the 20th century. The writers analyze this study by using the Sociology of Literature Approach to see the relation between the condition of the play and the social phenomena that happened while the play was written.

The analysis of the descriptive qualitative method is strongly influenced by the strength of the words and sentences used. It is also used to explain thought and opinion, and dive deeper into the problem. In using this methodology, the writers explain the chosen topic in detail by providing the data from utterances, how the characters act, and the description of the situation. Moreover, the writers also read theses, journals, and articles related to the play and the condition in the 20th century. The writers then took notes to collect the related data (Hasanah, Arafah, & Abbas, 2021). Primary data in this writing is gotten from the original text play of *Waiting for Godot* and secondary data means that the researcher gathers the data from another source as the supporting data (Purwaningsih, Arafah, & Abbas, 2019).

IV. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. Pozzo

Since the first appearance, Pozzo enters by showing how rich and dominant he is toward his slave, Lucky. He drives Lucky by a rope passed round his neck. It shows that Pozzo is a member of upper-class society. Not only is the fact that he can have a slave, but also oppresses Lucky. Some characteristics of upper-class society are the possession of largely wealthy and the ownership of large amounts of property. In other words, upper-class society is also called the bourgeoisie or capitalist because they are the people who have power over the middle and lower class society.

Datum 1:

Pozzo drives Lucky utilizing a rope passed around his neck. Lucky carries a heavy bag, a folding stool, a picnic basket, and a greatcoat, Pozzo a whip. (Beckett, 1982, p.16)

Although there is no information about what Pozzo did for his life or what did his job, his appearance with all the good kinds of stuff and enough food drive him to be the person who is categorized in upper-class society.

Datum 2:

Pozzo: Leave him in peace! (They turn towards Pozzo who, having finished eating, wipes his mouth with the back of his hand.) Can't you see he wants to rest? Basket! (He strikes a match and begins to light his pipe. Estragon sees the chicken bones on the ground and stares at them greedily. As Lucky does not move Pozzo throws the match angrily away and jerks the rope.) (Beckett, 1982, p.24)

The data above shows that Pozzo has kinds of stuff such as a bag, a folding stool, a basket, a greatcoat, a whip, a pipe, even wine. While the other three people, Vladimir, Estragon, and Lucky only watch him enjoy his wealth. In addition, to show more evidence about the fact that he is coming from an upper class, he always asks Lucky to do almost everything rudely. He jerks the rope if Lucky does not do whatever he wants and it will hurt Lucky more and more. Even though it is the way the slave should do, but he treats people just like an animal. He even called Lucky a pig or hog when he does not listen to Pozzo's order. Tying up Lucky in a rope and making him bring all of his kinds of stuff is how he shows the power he has as a master of Lucky. It is very common to happen in the act of slavery when the master treats the slave badly. It shows that he is using his authority to oppress Lucky since Lucky also does not want to separate from him.

Datum 3:

Pozzo: (with a magnanimous gesture). Let's say no more about it. (He jerks the rope.) Up pig! (Pause.) Every time he drops he falls asleep. (Jerks the rope.) Up hog! (Noise of Lucky getting up and picking up his baggage. Pozzo jerks the rope.) Back! Enter Lucky backward.) Stop! (Lucky stops.) (Beckett, 1982, p.20)

Treating people arbitrarily and inhumanely are characteristics of upper-class society. They think that the power that he has by owning properties and gaining a good occupation drives them to do whatever they like to people from the lower class. That is how Pozzo believes that he is the owner of Lucky just because he thinks Lucky depends on Pozzo. The owning that Pozzo shows here is against humanity. He does not even let Lucky take a rest after doing all of his orders. He will jerk the rope tied up to Lucky's neck if he sees Lucky begin to sleep. Otherwise, the order that he asks for is a very useless thing that he actually can do himself. For example, open the basket, hold his whip, clean the stool before he sits, and he even needs Lucky's help to hold his coat when he is wearing it.

All data that are presented above are Pozzo in act I, as a snobby and arrogant bourgeois. Something, in contrast, happened in act II. He becomes blind and cannot do many things since he needs Lucky to lead his way and help him to do everything. Furthermore, he is still as rude to Lucky as before. He is still using his whip to jerk Lucky if he does not listen to him. This is because he wants to show that he is still the master who has the power to control everything he has, including Lucky his slave. It is just very weird that in one night he turns to be blind.

B. Lucky

Lucky is Pozzo's slave. He is the one that exactly reflects the person from lower-class society. He is tied up to Pozzo by a rope and he brings all of Pozzo's stuff. All his life is depending on Pozzo because he has nothing to do in his life. The only way he can continue living is by becoming a slave. Therefore, he can get food from the leftover food that Pozzo threw after eating. He can also have a place to stay beside Pozzo without being afraid of being evicted by people.

Lucky does not have the freedom to decide. It is said that Lucky became stooped because he carried heavy things owned by Pozzo. He is surrender because there is no other choice except to follow Pozzo. He will do everything that Pozzo asks to impress him. Furthermore, if he cannot impress, Pozzo will leave and sell him at the fair. He is willing to let himself hurt with a rope in his neck and becoming not comfortable.

Datum 4:

Pozzo: Why he doesn't make himself comfortable? Let's try and get this clear. . . He wants to impress me so that I'll keep him.

Pozzo: Perhaps I haven't got it quite right. He wants to mollify me so that I'll give up the idea of parting with him. No, that's not exactly it either.

Vladimir: You want to get rid of him?

Pozzo: He imagines that when I see how well he carries I'll be tempted to keep him on in that capacity.

Vladimir: You want to get rid of him?

Pozzo: He imagines that when I see him indefatigable I'll regret my decision. Such is his miserable scheme. As though I were short of slaves!

Vladimir: You want to get rid of him?

Pozzo: I do. But instead of driving him away as I might have done, I mean instead of simply kicking him out on his arse, in the goodness of my heart I am bringing him to the fair, where I hope to get a good price of him.

The truth is you can't drive such creatures away. The best thing would be to kill them. (Beckett, 1982, p.30-31)

Lucky is very afraid of the idea of parting with Pozzo. Therefore, even though he is hurting, he will never let Pozzo down by doing everything that may upset Pozzo. He does not have any other option if Pozzo leaves and sells him. It is still about the class who has power will control the people from the lower class. Society is struggling to get a better position but seems useless since the power struggle is always be won by those who have power.

A lower-class society or also called the urban working class has no other resources than the ability to work with their hands, bodies, and minds. Lucky who has no property at all, to survive, must find employment work. This means he works for a capitalist-employer in an exploitative social relationship, who is Pozzo. Life treats Lucky badly that he chooses to be a slave of Pozzo to stay alive. As a slave, he is very kind to Pozzo and does every single order that Pozzo asks him to do.

He is behaving badly to the strangers because he wants to show that Pozzo is the only person he will be kind to. Therefore, Pozzo will keep him alive and will not bring him to the fest and sell him. Even though Pozzo treats him like garbage or calls him by the name of animals, he is grateful he can continue living in a very bad condition. A very bad condition here means that he only eats the leftover food, such as the chicken bones. Then his posture also becomes worse because he needs to bring heavy stuff and makes his body stooped. Not forget to mention the rope that is tied up to his neck. It hurts him every time Pozzo jerks the rope and leaves scars on his neck.

C. Portrait of the World Condition in 20th Century

World War II that lasted from 1939 to 1945 gave a significant impact on the economic side. The colonization that occurred in many countries remained many people lost their livelihoods because they had to serve the colonists. The people became poor and even lost their places to live. These conditions are reflected in the characters Estragon, Vladimir, and Lucky the slave. Both Estragon and Vladimir are two homeless people who have no place to live and no purpose in life. Most people who live in the period of World War II were surrender to their faith because there was no other choice to stay alive.

The low living standard of Estragon, Vladimir, Lucky, and Boy are the major portrait of 20th-century life in the economic aspect. After that, from the late 1970s onward, the number of unemployment arises along with the arising of short-term employment. This fact leads the workers to have less ability to organize themselves and fight for their life sustainabilities.

The symbolism for a political issue is found in the play by Pozzo and Lucky. These two characters represent a political state of society at that time as an element of the capitalist and his subordinates. Pozzo represents the capitalists who are cruel to their subordinates and Lucky is depicted as a slave who is always persecuted and obeys all the orders of his master.

In addition, this element is further strengthened by Pozzo who turns blind which is an allusion to the capitalists who are blind and intentionally close their eyes to everything that happens around them, in this case, the middle and lower class or what is called the proletarians. The government only cares about the people as dominant as them. For the proletarian, getting attention from the government is very rare. The way Beckett describes Pozzo as blind includes a contradiction in it. Although he uses his power to oppress Lucky, he cannot see and find his way to walk if Lucky does not exist. Beckett satirized the government who were not likely to give attention to their society but they still need people to run their policy or to get supporters.

Meanwhile, Lucky is described as mute or dumb which is also an allusion to his weakness for not being able to voice his aspirations by protesting Pozzo's actions against him. It portrays the condition of lower-class society in the 20th century before World War II, during World War II, and after World War II. People who do not have power cannot speak up for their freedom because they were being oppressed by the colonists. The relationship that was built between Pozzo and Lucky implies the relationship between the capitalists and their subordinates or workers. Although Lucky is silent to voice his aspirations just like the lower class society at the time, he cannot do anything because he has no power to disobey his master. For the society who lived during World War II, disobey the government's policy would bring them into a worse situation. At least that is the picture of oppression that happened at the time when this play was written. Because of witnessing the war himself, Beckett surely knew that politics took over everything.

Another illustration for the 20th-century life during World War II happened in Kiribati Island. Everybody was rounded up near the post office, and some of the captives were tied up with ropes to coconut trees. A popular punishment for failure to carry out orders was to tie up a worker with ropes and place a stick of dynamite between his legs (Highland, 1991). The real situation that happened in Kiribati Island was the same as Lucky's situation. He is tied up to a rope connected to Pozzo who will easily jerk the rope if he thinks Lucky unpleasant him.

The only reason why the oppression and the neglect kept happening was that human rights still did not exist during the period of World War II. Many of the ideas stated that the human rights movement developed in 1948 after World War II and the events of the Holocaust. The ancient people did not have the modern conception of human rights so that it was a bit useless and hard to apply. After applying and about to understand human rights, the modern human rights arguments emerged over the latter half of the 20th century.

For the writers, the existence of human rights in the latter half of the 20th century was not truly give a big impact on the lower class society. Discrimination, slavery, and capitalization were still existed and tortured them in many ways. Even nowadays, the act of slavery of the upper class to the lower class still exists. In all aspects of life, such as in economic, political, and social aspects, it is always the upper class who can take control of how the world will ruin. As a lower-class society, no matter how hard they try, if they do not have properties and wealth, do not have power, and still in the low-standard living, be a human is always be a dream. People will underestimate and being cynical to them.

V. CONCLUSION

The play *Waiting for Godot* tells the story of two homeless men who are waiting for someone called Godot who never comes until the end of the story. The characters that include in the play are Vladimir, Estragon, Pozzo, Lucky, and Boy. To show the act of slavery that happened in the play, Pozzo and Lucky are the representation. Lucky is a lower class society because he is a slave and does not even have the power to control his own life. He does not have a home so he decides to work as a slave to continue his living. While Pozzo as Lucky's master controls the life of Lucky by oppressing and controlling his life. For Lucky, the impact of being a slave is making him surrender to his destiny. Being oppressed by Pozzo is the only way he continues his life other than death or to be sold in the fair. In contrast, Pozzo does not have to do all the things because Lucky will do them and he has the power to control other's life as he wishes.

The portrait of 20th-century life in the act of slavery is reflected in the play. The author poured his view of the world condition while he was also fighting as a soldier during World War II. The portraits after the war also include because slavery still existed while he was writing this play, even until today. The upper-class society can enslave a lower-class society because of their ability to control and use their power to do whatever they want.

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A Comparative Study of Dari Persian and English Language Consonant Sounds

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Abstract— This research article compares the consonant sounds of English and Dari Persian language in terms of state of larynx, place and manner of articulation. This research article aims to determine similarities and differences between the consonant systems of English and Dari Persian language which can be useful for teachers and learners of both languages, especially in listening and speaking skills. In this research article, the qualitative method has been used to find similar and different consonant sounds. In this research article, it was found out that eighteen consonants are similar in between, two consonant sounds are slightly similar, 4 English consonants are not present in Dari Persian, and 3 Dari Persian consonants are not present in English language. It is believed that one's mother tongue obviously has influence on second or foreign language. That is, one's own language pronunciation habits are so strong that they are extremely difficult to break. On the other hand, mispronouncing the sounds in spoken language can cause miscommunication or misunderstanding. Therefore, this research article can help teachers and learners of English with Dari Persian as the first language and vice versa to maintain effective and meaningful communication while listening and speaking with more focus on the sounds which are different between the first and the second or foreign language.

Index Terms— English consonants, Dari Persian consonants, description of consonants, place of articulation, manner of articulation

I. INTRODUCTION

Written language and spoken language are very different from each other. Writing consists of symbols, letters, signs or marks which can be seen by eyes. However, speaking consists of speech sounds taken in by the ears (O'Connor, 2007). Therefore, spoken Language is made up of speech sounds called phonemes. Phoneme is a minimal distinctive sound unit. Although phoneme is meaningless, change in phoneme changes the meaning of a word (Yamin, 2014). For example, the different vowels in the words 'Pin' and 'pen' distinguish these words from each other. Similarly, in the words 'pet' and 'bet' only the first consonant in each word is different (Roach, 2019). That is to say, accurate pronunciation of the speech sounds obviously matter for maintaining effective communication with other people while listening and speaking. Therefore this research article compares the sounds of English language with those of Dari Persian language to find the different consonant sounds in between and recommend focusing more on them. Dari Persian language (the researcher's native language) is one of the major varieties of Persian language (belonging to the Indo Iranian sub-branch of the Indo European family of the languages) spoken in Afghanistan as one of the two national and official languages. In Afghanistan, there are several different geographical dialects of Dari Persian. However, the standard one is the Kabul educated people's dialect (Yamin, 2014). Therefore, the Kabuli standard accent of Dari Persian is used in this research paper as a reference model. Similarly, English language which is spoken as a first, second, foreign or official language worldwide, also has several different varieties of both standard and non-standard accents. For this research article, RP, the standard accent, is used as a reference model. According to Roach (2019), RP (Received Pronunciation), recently known as BBC Pronunciation, is one of the standard varieties of English language around the world and is most often recommended for foreign learners studying British English.

The main objective of this research article is to find out the differences and similarities between English and Dari Persian consonant sounds by comparing them in terms of the status of the larynx, place and manner of articulation to recommend focusing more on the sounds which are difference in between while instructing pronunciation skills. The findings of this research article also help teachers to adapt and supplement their teaching materials especially for pronunciation practices in the classrooms. Moreover, in this research, the qualitative method was used in order to find the similarities and differences between the consonants of English and Dari Persian language in terms of voicing, place and manner of articulation.

It is believed that one's mother tongue pronunciation habits influence second or foreign language (O'Connor, 2007). Therefore, the current research paper answers the following questions:

- Which English and Dari Persian consonant sounds are different?
- Which English and Dari Persian consonant sounds are similar?
- What are the English consonant sounds which are not present in Dari Persian and vice versa?
- How are Dari Persian and English language consonant sounds different in terms of larynx vibration, place and manner of articulation?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As identifying the difficult sounds for learners of English as a second language is important, many researches have been conducted by researchers to help learners of a second or foreign language improve their pronunciation and prosper in verbal communication while listening and speaking. For instance, Sülükçü (2018) studied the problems of pronouncing Turkish sounds spoken by Arabic native speakers who were refugees in Turkey and learned Turkish as a foreign language. For this study, the informants included 20 students attending Necmettin Erbakan University Turkish Instruction Application and Research Center (KONDIL) and 15 students attending a private course in Turkey. It was found out that the informants experienced problems in pronouncing 19 Turkish sounds. It was also determined that the pronunciation problem was resolved to a great extent by comparison of the articulation points in the students' native language (Arabic) and the target language (Turkish) and practical demonstration of these articulation points and repetition. It was also recommended that the focus should be more on the determined sounds during instruction of the Turkish sounds.

Moreover, Usmanyar (2020) conducted a research comparing the pure vowels of Dari Persian (Spoken in Afghanistan as an official language and the researcher's native language) and English language pure vowel sounds to find English sounds which were different from the ones in Dari Persian. It was finally determined that out of twelve English monophthongs, three were slightly similar to Dari Persian monophthongs, and the rest nine were totally different. In other words, there were no any similar sounds in between. Therefore, it was recommended to focus more on the sounds which were determined as different vowels during instructing the English sounds. Also, it was recommended to conduct similar research comparing diphthongs and consonants of the two mentioned languages to find out more different sounds between them. Therefore, the current research article compares the consonants of Dari Persian with the consonants of English language to determine more different sounds between these languages so as to focus more on them in the instruction of the sounds of both languages to their learners as second or foreign language.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Each and every language has got its own sound system, so have Dari Persian and English. Roach (2019) has divided the segmental phonemes of English language first and foremost into two groups: vowels and consonants. He also stated that there are 44 sounds in English language. Out of 44, twenty are vowels and the rest 24 are consonants. In contrast to vowels, consonants are sounds in the production of which there is either a complete or partial closure of air stream in the vocal tract (Yamin, 2014). So, the airflow is either completely blocked or so restricted that audible friction is produced (Crystal, 2008). See table 1 for the 24 consonants of English language below:

TABLE 1: (ROACH, 2019, P. 52)

PLACE OF ARTICULATION		Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-Alveolar	palatal	velar	Glottal
MANNER OF ARTICULATION	Plosive	p b			t d			k g	
	Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
	Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
	Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
	Lateral approximant				l				
	Approximant	w				r	j		

Also, Yamin (2014) has divided the segmental phonemes of Dari Persian language into vowels and consonants. He has stated that there are 39 sounds out of which 23 are consonants and the rest 16 are vowels (eight monophthongs and eight diphthongs). See table 2 for the 23 consonants of Dari Persian below:

TABLE 2: (YAMIN, 2014, P. 49)

Manner of Articulation	In terms of place of articulation In terms of Larynx vibration	Bilabial	Dental	Labio-dental	Alveolar	Post alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Glottal
Plosive	Voiceless	p	t					k	q	
	Voiced	b	d					g		
Fricative	Voiceless			f	s	ʃ			χ	h
	Voiced				z	ʒ			ʁ	
Affricate	Voiceless					tʃ				
	Voiced					dʒ				
Approximant	Voiced				l	r				
Nasal	Voiced	m			n					
Simi vowel	Voiced	w					j			

The consonant sounds are described in terms of voicing, place and manner of articulation (Crystal, 2008). Therefore, the consonant sounds of Dari Persian and English language are compared in the following manner:

A. English and Dari Persian Consonants in Terms of Voicing

In terms of voicing, speech sounds are of two kinds: voiced and voiceless. Voiced sounds are those during the production of which the vocal folds in the larynx vibrate as in /z/. Nonetheless, during the articulation of voiceless sounds, there is no vibration in the larynx. In other words, the focal folds are down apart and the air passes out freely between them as in /s/. The vibration of the larynx can also be felt simply by saying a prolong /z/ and putting your fingers on your neck by the side of your larynx. Now keep your fingers still by the side of your larynx, but say a prolong /s/, you will feel no vibration (O'Connor, 2007).

According to Yamin (2014), out of twenty three consonants, 13 are voiced and the rest 10 are voiceless sounds. However, in English language, out of twenty four consonants, 15 are voiced and the rest 9 are voiceless sounds (Yule, 2016). See Table 3 for the voiced and voiceless sounds of Dari Persian and English language below:

TABLE 3: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

English language consonants	Voiced	/b, d, g, v, ð, z, ʒ, dʒ, m, n, ŋ, l, w, r, j/
	Voiceless	/p, t, k, f, θ, s, ʃ, h, tʃ/
Dari Persian Consonants	Voiced	/b, d, g, z, ʒ, ɣ, dʒ, m, n, l, w, r, j/
	Voiceless	/p, t, k, q, f, s, ʃ, x, h, tʃ/

B. English and Dari Persian Consonants in Terms of Place of Articulation

In terms of place of articulation, there are 4 bilabial sounds, 2 dental, 1 labiodental, 4 alveolar, 5 post alveolar, 1 palatal, 2 velar, 3 uvular and 1 glottal sound in Dari Persian language (Yamin 2014). See table 2 again. However, English language, in terms of place of articulation, consists of 4 bilabial sounds, 2 labiodental, 2 dental, 6 alveolar, 5 post alveolar, 1 palatal, 3 velar and 1 glottal sound (Roach, 2019). See table 1 again.

1. English and Dari Persian Bilabial Sounds

Bilabials are sounds in the production of which both lips are used (Lodge, 2009). English language has 4 bilabial sounds (Roach, 2019) so has Dari Persian (Yamin, 2014). All the four bilabial sounds of both languages are similar. They are: /p/, /b/, /m/ and /w/. See figure 1 for the articulation of /p/ and /b/, figure 2 for the articulation of /m/ and figure 3 for articulation of the sound /w/ below:

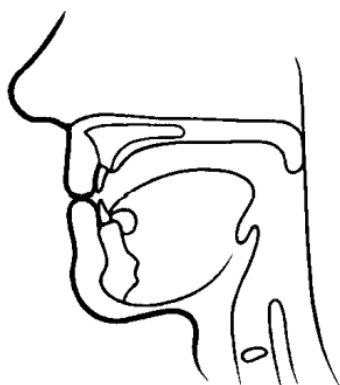


Figure 1: (Lodge, 2009, P. 27)

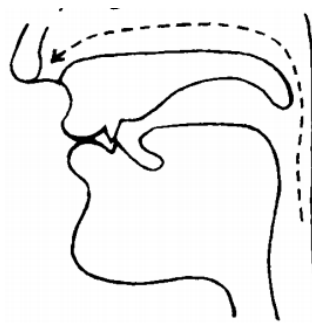


Figure 2: (O'Connor, 2007, P. 49)



Figure 3: (<http://karlita2012pedagogiangles.blogspot.com>)

2. English and Dari Persian Labiodental Sounds

Labiodental sounds are those in the articulation of which the top teeth are placed just inside the bottom lip (Lodge, 2009). There are two labiodental sounds in English: /f/ and /v/ (Roach, 2019). Whereas, Dari Persian has only one labiodental sound: /f/ (Yamin, 2014). In other words, the sound /v/ does not exist in Dari Persian sound system. The place of articulation for the sounds /f/ and /v/ are the same. The only difference between them is voicing, that is, /v/ is voiced and /f/ is voiceless. See figure 4 for articulation of the sounds /f/ and /v/.

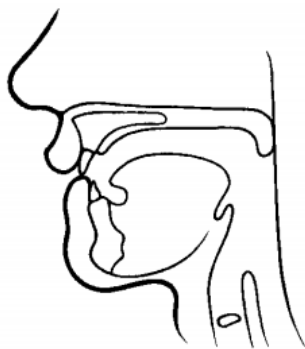


Figure 4: (Lodge, 2009, P. 27)

3. English and Dari Persian Dental Sounds

In the articulation of dental sounds, the tip or blade of the tongue is placed on the back surface of the top teeth or between the teeth (Lodge, 2009). Dari Persian has two dental sounds: /t/ and /d/. During the articulation of these sounds, there is a complete closure in the oral cavity (Yamin, 2014). English language has also got two dental sounds. They are: /θ/ and /ð/. However, in contrast to the two dentals of Dari Persian, in the production of the both dental sounds in English, there is no complete closure in the oral cavity. In other words, the air escapes through the gaps between the teeth and the tongue (Roach, 2019). See figure 5 for articulation of dental sounds below:

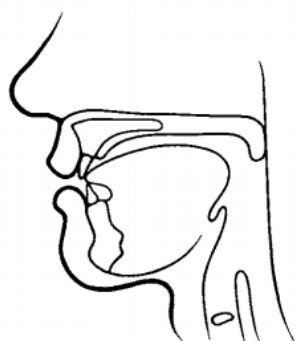


Figure 5: (Lodge, 2009, P. 28)

4. English and Persian Alveolar Sounds

Alveolar sounds are produced when the tip or blade of the tongue is into contact with the alveolar ridge (Lodge, 2009). See figure 6 for articulation of alveolar sound below:



Figure 6: (Lodge, 2009, P. 29)

There are 4 alveolar sounds in Dari Persian language: /s/, /z/, /l/, and /n/ (Yamin, 2014). Nonetheless, the alveolar sounds in English language are six. They are: /t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /n/ and /l/ (Roach, 2019). The sounds /t/ and /d/ are not alveolar in Dari Persian. They are dental (Yamin, 2014).

5. English and Persian Post Alveolar Sounds

Post alveolar sounds are those in the production of which the tongue is in contact with slightly further back than alveolar ridge (Roach, 2019). See figure 7 for articulation of post alveolar sound below:

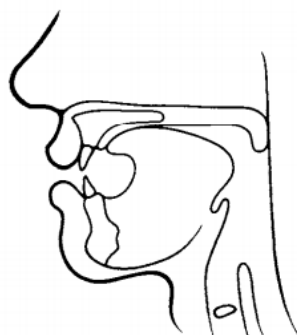


Figure 7: (Lodge, 2009, P.30)

Dari Persian has five post alveolar sounds. They are: /ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ, r/ (Yamin, 2014). English language has the same number and the same post alveolar sounds as Dari Persian (Roach, 2019). See table 1 again.

6. English and Persian Palatal Sounds

The palatal sounds are made when the part between the blade and front part of the tongue is raised against the hard palate (Lodge, 2009). See Figure 8 for articulation of the palatal sound /j/ below:

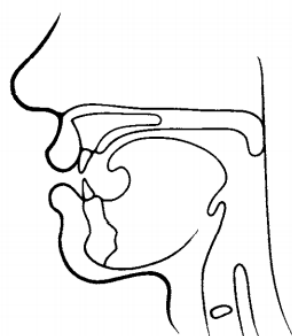


Figure 8: (Lodge, 2009, P.37)

English has only one palatal sound /j/ which is also known as semi vowel as they are phonetically like vowels but phonologically like consonants. In other words, there is no complete closure or friction in the air stream mechanism in the articulation of this sound (Roach, 2019). Similarly, Dari Persian also has one palatal sound /j/ with the same place and manner of articulation as the one in English (Yamin, 2014).

7. English and Persian Velar Sounds

Velar sounds are produced by raising the back part of the tongue against the velum (Lodge, 2009). See figure 9 for the velar sounds below:



Figure 9: (Lodge, 2009, P. 31)

English language has 3 velar sounds: /k, g, & ŋ/ (Roach, 2019). However, there are only two velar sounds in Dari Persian language: /k & g/ (Yamin, 2014). The velar sound /ŋ/ is not present in Dari Persian.

8. English and Persian Uvular Sounds

Uvular sounds are articulated when the extreme back part of the tongue is into contact with the soft palate (Lodge, 2009). See figure 10 for the place of articulation of the uvular sound below:



Figure 10: (Lodge, 2009, P. 32)

There are 3 Uvular sounds in Dari Persian language. They are: /q, χ and ʁ/ (Yamin, 2014). However, as seen in table 1, not any uvular sound has been given for English language.

9. English and Persian Glottal Sounds

English language has only one voiceless glottal sound: /h/ (Roach, 2019), so has Dari Persian (Yamin, 2014). The voiceless glottal sound /h/ is made when the air is passed through the glottis when it is narrowed in the larynx (Roach, 2019).

Apart from voicing (larynx vibration) and place of articulation, consonant sounds are also described in terms of manner of articulation. Therefore, in terms of manner of articulation, Dari Persian and English sounds are compared in the following manner:

C. English and Persian Consonants in Terms of Manner of Articulation

Apart from voicing and place of articulation, consonant sounds are also described in terms of manner of articulation, that is, how they are articulated. For instance, the sounds /t/ and /s/ are both voiceless alveolar sounds. Now, the only description that can differentiate these two sounds is the manner of articulation, that is, in the way they are pronounced. The sound /t/ is a plosive consonant and the sound /s/ is a fricative consonant (Yule, 2016). In this respect, English language has 6 plosive sounds, 9 fricative, 2 affricate, 3 nasal and 4 approximant sounds (Roach, 2019). However, Dari Persian language has 7 plosive sounds, 8 fricative, 2 affricate, 4 approximant and two nasal sounds (Yamin, 2014). The English and Dari Persian consonant sounds are compared in terms of manner of articulation with more details in the following manner:

1. English and Dari Persian Plosives

Plosive sounds (also known as stops) are sounds during the articulation of which the air stream is completely stopped at some point in the mouth (very briefly) by the tongue or lips, and then released abruptly with a slight explosion (O'Connor, 2007). There are 6 plosive consonant sounds in English: 2 bilabial, 2 alveolar and 2 velar (Roach, 2019). Persian language has 7 plosive consonant sounds: 2 bilabial, 2 dental, 2 velar and 1 uvular (Yamin, 2014). See Table 4 for English and Persian plosive sounds below:

TABLE 4: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

Place of Articulation	Bilabial		Dental		Alveolar		Velar		Uvular	
Voicing	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +
English Plosives	B	p			t	d	k	g		
Persian Plosives	B	p	t	d			k	g	q	

Table 4 indicates that the sounds /p, b, k, g/ are the similar plosive consonants between English and Dari Persian. However, the sound /q/ is a Dari Persian Plosive which is not present in English language. Moreover, the plosive sounds /t/ and /d/ are alveolar consonants in English, but dental in Dari Persian.

2. English and Dari Persian Fricatives

Fricative sounds are those in the articulation of which there is no complete or firm closure of the air stream. Instead, the air passes through a very narrow gap between the articulators and causes friction (O'Connor, 2007). See figure 11 for the fricative sound /s/ and figure 12 for the fricative sound /x/ below:

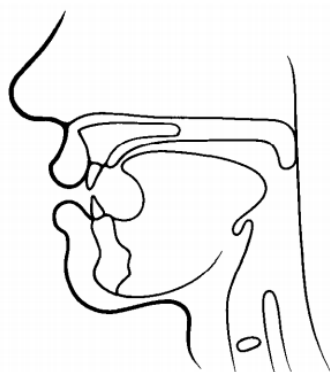


Figure 11: (Lodge, 2009, P. 32)



Figure 12: (Lodge, 2009, P. 32)

There are 9 Fricative sounds in English: 2 are labiodental, 2 dental, 2 alveolar, 2 post alveolar and one glottal sound (Roach, 2019). However, Dari Persian language has 8 fricative sounds: 1 labiodental, 2 alveolar, 2 post alveolar, 2 uvular and one glottal sound (Yamin, 2014). See Table 5 for the English and Dari Persian fricative sounds below:

TABLE 5: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

Place of Articulation	Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Post Alveolar		Uvular		Glottal	
Voicing	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +
English Fricatives	f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ			h	
Persian Fricatives	f				s	z	ʃ	ʒ	χ	ʁ	h	

Table 5 shows that the sounds /f, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h/ are similar between English and Dari Persian language. However, the sounds /v, θ, ð/ are the English fricatives which are not present in Dari Persian, and the sounds /χ/ and /ʁ/ are the Dari Persian fricatives which are not present in English language.

3. English and Dari Persian Affricates

Affricates are sounds that begin as plosives and end as fricatives (Roach, 2019). In other words, during the production of the affricate sounds, the air is stopped for a short time followed by an obstructed release which causes some friction (Yule, 2016). /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are the only affricate sounds of the English language (Roach, 2019). Yamin (2014) has also listed /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ as the affricate sounds of Dari Persian language with the same place of articulation as in English. See Table 6 for the affricate sounds of English and Dari Persian below:

TABLE 6: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

Place of Articulation	Post-alveolar	
Voicing	V -	V +
English Affricates	tʃ	dʒ
Persian Affricates	tʃ	dʒ

Table 6 indicates that the consonants /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are exactly the same in both languages in every respect: voicing, place and manner of articulation.

4. English and Dari Persian Nasals

In the production of the nasal sounds, the soft palate is lowered and simultaneously the mouth passage is blocked at some point and the air passes through the nose. There are 3 nasal consonants in English: /m, n, ŋ/ (O'Connor, 2007). However, /m/ and /n/ are the only two nasal consonants in Dari Persian language (Yamin, 2014). See Table 7 for the nasal consonants of English and Dari Persian below:

TABLE 7: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

Place of Articulation	Bilabial		Alveolar		Velar	
Voicing	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +
English Nasals		m		n		ŋ
Persian Nasals		m		n		

Table 7 shows that the nasals /m/ and /n/ are exactly the same sounds in terms of voicing, place and manner of articulation. However, the voiced velar nasal /ŋ/ is the only nasal consonant in English language which does not exist in Dari Persian.

5. English and Dari Persian Approximants

Approximants are sounds in the articulation of which there is no complete closure in the oral cavity and the air passes through a very narrow gap between the articulators (Lodge, 2009). English language has 4 approximant consonants (Roach, 2019) so has Dari Persian (Yamin, 2014). See Table 8 for the approximant consonant sounds of English and Dari Persian below:

TABLE 8: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

Place of Articulation	Bilabial		Alveolar		Post-alveolar		Palatal	
Voicing	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +	V -	V +
English Approximants		W		l		r		j
Persian Approximants		W		l		r		j

Table 8 shows that all approximants in both languages are voiced and similar in terms of place of articulation.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this research article, the consonant sounds of English and Dari Persian language were compared in terms of voicing, place of articulation and manner of articulation to find out the differences and similarities between the consonant systems of both languages. As a result, it was found out that out of 44 sounds, 24 are consonants in English, while out of 39 sounds, 23 are consonants in Dari Persian language. The consonants of both languages contain voiced and voiceless sounds. In English, out of twenty four, 15 are voiced sounds and the rest 9 are voiceless sounds. Similarly, in Dari Persian, out of twenty three, 13 are voiced and the rest 10 are voiceless sounds.

In terms of place of articulation, English language has 4 bilabial consonants, 2 labiodental, 2 dental, 6 alveolar, 5 post alveolar, 1 palatal, 3 velar, and one glottal consonant sounds. On the contrary, Dari Persian has 4 bilabial sounds, 2 dental, one labio-dental, 4 alveolar, 5 post alveolar, one palatal, 2 velar, 3 uvular and one glottal sound. All the 4 bilabial consonants /p, b, m, w/, one voiceless labio-dental /f/, 4 alveolar /s, z, n, l/, 5 post alveolar /ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ, r/, one palatal /j/, 2 velar /k, g/, and the glottal sounds are similar between English and Dari Persian. However, the voiced fricative labiodental consonant of English /v/, 2 dental /θ, ð/ and the voiced velar nasal /ŋ/ of English do not exist in Dari Persian language. Similarly, the three uvular sounds of Dari Persian /q, χ, ʁ/ do not exist in English language sound system. In other words English language does not have any uvular sounds. In addition, the sounds /t/ and /d/ are dental plosives in Dari Persian, whereas these sounds are alveolar in English language.

In terms of manner of articulation, English has 6 plosive consonants. They are: /p, b, t, d, k, g/. Nevertheless, Dari Persian has seven plosives. They are: /p, b, t, d, k, g, q/. The two plosives /t/ and /d/ are alveolar in English language. However they are dental in Dari Persian language. Also, the voiceless uvular plosive /q/ is the only plosive which is not present in English language. See Table 4 again. Also, there are 9 fricative consonants in English and 8 in Dari Persian. The 6 fricative sounds /f, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h/ are similar between Dari Persian and English language, while the sounds /v, θ, ð/ are the English fricatives which are not present in Dari Persian, and the sounds /χ/ and /ʁ/ are the Dari Persian fricatives which are not present in English language. See Table 5 again. Moreover, both languages have two affricates: /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ which are very similar sounds between English and Dari Persian. See Table 6 again. Furthermore, English has three nasal consonants, while Dari Persian has two. Two of the nasals /m, n/ are similar between the languages, while the voiced velar nasal /ŋ/ is the only nasal in English which is not present in Dari Persian. See Table 7 again. Also, there are four approximant sounds in each of the two languages. They are: /w, l, r, j/. All approximants in both languages are similar between English and Dari Persian. See Table 8 again.

In conclusion, it was found out that there are similarities and differences between English and Dari Persian consonant sounds, that is, 18 consonants are similar /p, b, k, g, f, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h, tʃ, dʒ, m, n, w, l, r, j/, 2 are slightly similar /t, d/, and 7 are totally different between English and Dari Persian /v, θ, ð, ŋ, q, χ, ʁ/. In other words, the 4 consonant sounds of English /v, θ, ð, ŋ/ are not present in Dari Persian language, and the three consonant sounds of Dari Persian /q, χ, ʁ/ are not present in English language. See Table 9 for the different, slightly similar, and similar sounds between the two languages below:

TABLE 9: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

Languages	Different sounds	Slightly Similar sounds	Similar sounds
English	v, θ, ð, ŋ	t, d	p, b, k, g, f, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h, tʃ, dʒ, m, n, w, l, r, j
Dari Persian	q, x, ɣ		
Total	7	2	18

The detailed description for each of the 7 different consonants is given in the following table:

TABLE 10: (DESIGNED BY ME, 2021)

English and Dari Persian Different sounds			
	sounds	Description	Total
English	/v/	voiced labiodental fricative	4
	/θ/	voiceless dental fricative	
	/ð/	voiced dental fricative	
	/ŋ/	voiced velar nasal	
	/q/	voiceless uvular plosive	
Dari Persian	/x/	voiceless uvular fricative	3
	/ɣ/	voiced uvular fricative	

V. SUGGESTIONS

This research article which shows the similarities and differences between the consonant sounds of English and Dari Persian, makes the following suggestions:

- During pronunciation instructions, teachers of both languages are suggested to focus more on the sounds which are either very different or not present in the second or foreign language.
- Teachers of both languages can adapt the text books' pronunciation exercises based on the findings of this research article. That is, the sounds which are different from the ones in the second language should be considered and practiced more.
- Similar research is required to be conducted comparing the sounds of English and other national and official languages of Afghanistan.
- Another research needs to be done on the problems of pronouncing English vowels and/or consonant sounds by afghan speakers of English as foreign language.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank the conscientious and kind-hearted guide, Professor Zubair Omary (English lecturer in Rabani Education University of Afghanistan), without whose support and friendliness this research would have not been possible to be conducted successfully. I appreciate him for his guidance, insistence on perfection and his immense patience with my constant questioning during conducting this research article. I wish him all the best.

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Action Verb *Nosi* `Cooking` in Bima Language: A Study of Natural Semantic Metalanguage

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Abstract—There are two subordinate structures in action verbs, namely uncompositional polysemy. Action verbs to do and happen are action verbs with uncomposed polysemy, including Cooking Nose. This research aims to find out the mapping and explication of the 'cooking' action verb. The method used is qualitative. The data source consists of oral data taken from key informants, written data collected from storybooks in the Bima language and language intuition. The technique used is interview and literature study. The data collection method is advanced, namely the agih method with the application of transformation and insertion techniques used to reveal the original meaning contained in BBM. The default meaning is used to determine the semantic structure of VBBm by explication or paraphrasing techniques. Each verb *nosi* cooking is based on: the tool, the model of movement, the part of the entity that is being treated, the result that the agent wants to achieve. The results show that the Bima language action verb 'Cooking' in general has a component mapping 'X Doing something to Y' and therefore 'Something happened to Y'. A number of words that contain the meaning of cooking: *lowi*, *mbako*, *danda*, *salunga*, *puru*, *sanggowo*, *sanggapi*, *suje*, *ncango*, and *tumi*, *gule*. This variant has unique semantic characteristics so that the meaning content of each word is different even though it is still in the same field of meaning (Cf. Adawiyah, 2021).

Index Terms—action verbs, cooking, natural semantic metalanguage

I. INTRODUCTION

Each regional language has its uniqueness and potential that needs to be explored more deeply, one of which is the Bima language. The Bima language is spoken by the Bima Tribe on the East Sumbawa Island, West Nusa Tenggara, and is used by its speakers as a means of communication both within the family and in the community. The Bima language as Indonesian has a semantic structure, namely verbs and nouns. Leech (1981) states that verbs are the central element because they can determine the structure of a sentence. The meaning of a verb in a proposition varies, depending on its relation to the argument, with the various meanings of the verb (Ola, 2021), so the meaning discussed in this study is focused on the conceptual meaning (Adawiyah, 2021).

Moreover, Adawiyah (2021) states that verbs in the Bima language still have many semantic features that need to be studied and developed with various theories. BBM verbs are grouped based on time stability scales. Based on the time stability scale, VBBm is classified into three: state verbs, process verbs and action verbs. This study is more devoted to action verbs. Action verbs are not time stable, for example, *weli* 'buy', *lao* 'go', *rai* 'run', *nono* 'drink', *ngaha* 'eat'. In the Bima language, there are 34 letters; a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, mb, mp, n, nc, nd, ng, gg, nt, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, y, and z. (Alwi, 2003; Adawiyah, 2021).

The verbs discussed in this paper are Action verbs with the word Interesting because they have specific semantic features and characteristics. How to find out the meaning? Only with the help of metalanguage theory can we understand it. The description of the theory will be described in the theoretical study section. Based on this description, it can be stated here that the fundamental reasons behind the urgency of this research, namely (1) A lot of wealth or features owned by BBM. (2) It has not been studied or analyzed in more depth so that the Natural Semantic Metalanguage theory can bridge this problem with mapping and explication analysis (Adawiyah, 2021).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Natural Semantic Metalanguage Theory

This study uses the theory of Natural Semantic Metalanguage. There are three reasons why this theory was chosen. (i) Natural Semantic Metalanguage theory is designed and used to exclude all lexical, illocutionary, and grammatical meanings. This theory can, of course, be used to explain the meaning of a verb. (ii) proponents of the Natural Semantic Metalanguage theory believe in the principle that the natural condition of a language is to maintain one form for one meaning and one meaning for one form. This principle is not only applied to grammatical constructions but also words. (iii) in the theory of Natural Semantic Metalanguage, the meaning explication is framed in a metalanguage, which comes from natural language. This explication can be understood by all native speakers of the language concerned. Goddard and Wierzbicka, (2014) argues that Natural Semantic Metalanguage examines the minor components of every language, which consists of 65 semantic primes and more than 50 universal semantic molecules, as shown in the table below.

TABLE 1
DEFAULT MEANING DEVICE

No	Component	Semantic Element
1	Substantives	I-ME, YOU, SOMEONE, PEOPLE, SOMETHING/THING, BODY
2	Relational Substantives	KIND OF PART
3	Determiners	THIS, THE SAME, OTHER-ELSE-ANOTHER
4	Quantifiers	ONE, TWO, SOME, ALL, MUCH/MANY, LITTLE/FEW
5	Evaluators	GOOD, BAD
6	Descriptors	BIG, SMALL
7	Mental predicates	THINK, KNOW, WANT, DON'T WANT, FEEL, SEE, HEAR
8	Speech	SAY, WORDS, TRUE
9	Action, Events, Movement, Contact	DO, HAPPEN, MOVE, TOUCH
10	Location, Existence, Possession, Specification	BE (SOMEWHERE), THERE IS, BE (SOMEONE) 'S, BE (SOMEONE/SOMETHING)
11	Life and Death	LIVE, DIE
12	Time	WHEN/TIME, NOW, BEFORE, AFTER, A LONG TIME, A SHORT TIME, FOR SOME TIME, MOMENT
13	Space	WHERE/PLACE, HERE, ABOVE, BELOW, FAR, NEAR, SIDE, INSIDE, TOUCH (CONTACT)
14	Logical Concepts	NOT, MAYBE, CAN, BECAUSE, IF
15	Intensifier, Augmentator	VERY, MORE
16	Similarity	LIKE/US/WAY

Wierzbicka claims that the set of 'original meaning' above is universal because it reflects the essential human mind regardless of the level and level of culture possessed by each nation. Wierzbicka began to emphasize that he was looking for a mini-lexicon and a complete mini-language for semantic analysis. The 'default meaning' consisting of lexicon items should have a universal syntactic pattern that can and must be determined. The term 'natural meaning of metalanguage' was adopted to reflect this. Thus, the term 'natural meaning of metalanguage' that is used can be interpreted as a mini-language formed by lexicon and syntax that comes from natural language because it comes from natural language (Adawiyah, 2021).

B. Semantic Structure

The formation of the semantic structure is related to the semantic component, and this component determines the structure of language birth. Tampubolon (1979) argues that the process of its formation is considered a description of the mental process of the speaker-hearer so that the process is called universal. In line with that, Weinreich (1966) says that the syntactic structure is a pattern for semantic components so that the semantic structure has the types of categories and syntactic relations found in natural language syntax (Allan, 1998).

Cross-language, if the meaning of a language corresponds one to one with the meaning of another language, the two languages are semantically considered isomorphic or have the same semantic structure (Latupeirissa, 2016; 2019; 2020). However, it should be realized that the degree of isomorphism between languages is not the same. This is because the vocabulary structure reflects the cultural peculiarities of the people who use that language. Therefore, all meanings in a language are unique and do not apply or relate to other languages. Wierzbicka (1996) also argues that each element has a unique network in a language and occupies a special place in that network. According to him, it is difficult to find the same network of relationships by comparing two or more languages. What can be expected is the discovery of a related set of 'default meanings'. Furthermore, if a word is compared with other words, which are intuitively felt to be related, the word's true meaning can be found. Even if the comparison is made correctly so that each distinct element can be identified, two possibilities will be encountered, namely (1) finding symmetry and regularity in the semantic structure or (2) finding irregularities in the network of elements.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research is qualitative type. Sources of data were taken from oral data collected through interviews with key informants. Researchers involved direct contact with key informants. Conduct interviews and record data used by

the Bima community directly in the field. When conducting interviews, researchers used tools, such as a list of questions about cooking verb fuel and an explanation of the answers to these questions was recorded manually (Cf. Adawiyah, 2021).

A. Sample and Participants

The research location is in Parado District, consisting of 5 villages (Parado Rato Village, Parado Wane, Kanca, Kuta and Lere), Bima Regency, West Nusa Tenggara. The participants are key informants who understand Bima language action verbs, religious leaders, regional language teachers, and religious teachers (Spradley, 1980).

B. Instruments

The list of words has verb types, subtypes, and sub-types that refer to the universal default lexicon (see appendix). This list is sequentially asked using a structured interview technique to obtain information wholly and systematically. The advantage obtained from interviews with several informants shows that the same data can be cross-checked among the informants to make the results more convincing. This can be used as a means of verification or testing to determine whether the meaning of a lexicon is specific or universal. Apart from the above data collection methods, a participatory approach was also used. The participatory approach is carried out with researchers being directly involved in the event of the language of the BBM community speakers and bringing a list of questions to be verified by key informants. In addition to this, literature studies and documentation studies are also used (Adawiyah, 2021).

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The method used to collect data is the proficient method (Bungin, 2003; Merriam, 2009). The data collected follows the research objectives. The descriptive method used as a qualitative research paradigm is based on converting, inserting paraphrase and parsing (Cf. Oeinada et al., 2021). The Agih method with the application of transformation and insertion techniques is used to reveal the original meaning of BBM. The default meaning is used to determine the semantic structure of VBBm by explication or paraphrase technique (Adawiyah, 2021).

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Based on the methods and means used in Cooking, these verbs are divided into several groups, namely (1) "Cooking" with water: *lowi*, *mbako*, *danda*, *salunga* (2) "Cooking" utilizing fire: *puru*, *sanggowo*, *respond*, *suje*, *kato*, (3) "Cooking" with oil and without oil: *nango*, *and tumi*, *gule*.

A. By Means of Water: *Lowi*, *Mbako*, *Danda*, *Salunga*

- (4-1) *Ahma, lowi ja pu kalo ese meja re,*
Ahmad, please boil the bananas on the table,
wa'u nggori ede lowi wali uta mbea
it's done, boil the vegetables again
`Ahmad, please boil the bananas on the table, then cook the vegetables`



Activity *lowi* 'boiling' is the activity of cooking food ingredients, bananas in hot water in a moment. Non-animate entities that can be subject to this activity are bananas, spinach, kale, bean sprouts, and long beans, used as food such as urab and a mixture of lawar. By immersing the vegetables in boiling water for a matter of seconds, the vegetables are said to be cooked. This activity may or may not take longer and the entity can be in the form of various types of food ingredients, such as bananas (certain fruits), tubers, eggs, ketupat/lontong, meat, and certain vegetables. The cooking method is usually done by cooking the food ingredients before the water boils until the water boils, and in a matter of minutes, the food ingredients can be said to be cooked.

- (4-2) *Mbako ja pu bongi dei wonca, loku ra ngaha*
Please cook rice in the gerabag, so you can eat
sama labo kaluarga ma mai pede si
the same as the family who will come later
`Cook rice in kula, so we can eat with family who come`



- (4-3) *Lowi ulu toge, bue di ndawi kai laḡa*
 Boil the sprouts, long beans to make urab
 `Boiled vegetables first if you want to make urab`

At that time, X did something to Y

Because of this, at the same time, something happened to Y

X does this with something (means: water, fire, and a pot)

Y is ripe (boiled). X wants this

X did something like this

- (4-4) *Aina nefa danda oha bai da*
 Do not forget to dress the rice, so it doesn't
ngenta na, ma`alumu sato`i oina
 raw know a little water
 Do not forget to cook the uncooked rice, because the water is a little.



Cooking activities by steaming are carried out using a steamer (cone-shaped woven), a cork, cubluk or pot equipped with a filter inside that cooks rice with hot water vapor under the nest. Non-animate entities that can be subject to this work are rice, sticky rice, tubers, and several bananas and vegetables. This cooking activity works by inserting the food ingredients into the steamer, then placing it on a pot or pan filled with water. In a matter of minutes, the entity can be said to be mature.

Explication

At that time, X did something to Y

Because of this at the same time, something happened to Y

X does this with something (means: water, fire, saucepan, pot, and steamer)

Y is ripe (steamed) X wants this

X did something like this

- (4-5) *Dou ma do`a naisi re, aina nefa salunga mena oha mu,*
 Person pray tomorrow do not forget to cook rice
 `Tomorrow there is a prayer, do not forget to **cormorant** the rice



The lexicon of *mbako*, *danda*, *salunga* and *lowi* is doing activities with rice as the main entity included in the non-animate entity, then after a while, the entity will turn into rice so that it can be said to be mature. These actions occur assisted utilizing water and fire as well as pots or pots as tools. In general, someone does this activity intentionally and consciously by mapping the "X" component wants this", and someone expects good (mature) results. As a result of this activity ", something good happened to Y". The end of this activity is marked by a change in entity 'Y' so that 'X' wants this.

Explication

At that time, X did something to Y

Because of this, at the same time, something happened to Y
 X does this with something (means: water, fire, and a pot)
 Y is getting cooked (rice). X wants this
 X did something like this

B. By Means of Fire: Puru, Sanggowo, Sanggapi, Suje, Kato

To "cook" this second represents the corpus of transitive verbs the prototype of intent as the primary means of fire. lexicon *puru, sanggowo, sanggapi, suje* 'burn' describes a semantic structure with subcomponents "X does something to Y", "something good happens" and at the same time, something happens to Y", X does something", "something good happens". The following describes the method of "cooking" with fire.

- (4-6) **Puru** *wa`u pu ni`u re, lokura caruna in the issue*
Burn first this coconut, so it's good for shampooing
 First, burn the coconut so that it is good for shampooing



- (4-7) **Sanggowo** *ja pu uta aka*
 Burn the fish please
 `Please burn the fish`



Cooking activities in this way use fire as the primary means. With the help of the heat of the fire, the food ingredients cooked in this way will be cooked. Non-animate entities subject to this work can be fish, tubers, and other cooking ingredients. This activity is done by bringing the food ingredients closer to the fire and in a matter of minutes the texture of the food ingredients will change and become cooked. The *Sanggowo* lexicon cooks using a pot made of earth, without using water.

Explication

At the time,
 X did something to Y
 Because of this at the same time, something happened to Y
 X does this with something (means of fire) Y gets ripe (burns)
 X wants this
 X did something like this

From the data said *puru, sanggowo, sanggapi, suje* is done using firewood or dry coconut husk. The facilities are burned until they become coals, on top of the coals, then the activity is ready to be carried out. Non-animate entities that can be subject to this work can be fish, meat, or animals such as buffalo, cows and goats. This activity will change the texture of the entity's form, in a sufficient amount of time based on the type of entity, food ingredients cooked in this way can be said to be cooked. There is a slight difference with the *kato* lexicon, which lies in the use of banana leaves on burnt entities such as *kato uta* 'fish *pepes*'. Rice paste, etc.

Explication

At that time, X did something to Y
 Because of this at the same time, something happened to Y
 X does this with something (means of embers)
 Y is ripe (toasted) X wants this
 X does something like this.

*Sanggapi**Suje**Kato*

Lexicon *puru, ka'a* (burning food in coals)

(4-8) *Jago ka'a pu aka kama'a, loku ra caru mami na*

Corn burnt in coals, so that they are cooked well
'Bananas are burned in coals to make them tastier'

(4-9) *Ka'a pu masaki re, loku ra raso na sarei re*

Burn trash, to clean the yard

'Please burn the garbage in the yard to keep the yard clean'

Cooking activities with the term *puru, ka'a* this is also done using coals, but the entity used is put into the embers. Non-animate entities subjected to this work can be several types of bananas, eggs, and tubers. The entity is cooked this way takes a few minutes. Then it can be cooked.

Explication

At that time, X did something to Y

Because of this, at the same time, something happened to Y

X does this with something (means of embers)

Y is ripe (metaphor) X wants this

X does something like this.

C. With Oil and without Oil Means: *Ncango, Tumi, Gule*

To "cook", the third represents the corpus of transitive verbs the prototype means as the main means with oil and without oil. Lexicon *ncango, tumi, gule* 'frying' describes a semantic structure with subcomponents "X does something to Y", "something good happens" and at the same time, something happens to Y", X does something", "something good happens". The following describes the method of "cooking" with oil and without oil. *ncango, tumi, gule* 'frying'.

Describing cooking activities using coconut oil as the main ingredient is generally referred to as 'frying'. Likewise in the Bima language. This activity is done by heating cooking oil (coconut oil) in a frying pan, then putting the entity into the hot oil, then within a few minutes, the entity will turn crispy and can be said to be cooked. Non-animate entities that are subject to this work are in the form of pre-dried food ingredients such as crackers, nuts, salted fish, and several other food ingredients that do not need to be dried before frying.

Tumi Explication

At that time, X did something to Y

Because of this at the same time, something happened to Y

X did this with something (means of cooking oil)

Y is getting cooked (fried) X wants this



Cooking with this method uses only the heat of the pot and stirs the entity until it changes color and becomes dry. After all parts of the entity are dry, the entity will undergo further processing before being consumed. Non-animate entities subject to this work are in the form of seeds or nuts, such as coffee beans, belinjo beans, etc.

Ncango Explication

At that time, X did something to Y

Because of this at the same time, something happened to Y

X does this with something (heated pot or pan)

Y goes dry (roasts) X wants this

X does something like this.



Cooking *gule*, this method uses the heat of a pot and stirs the ingredients like cooking spices until they change color and don't dry out. After all parts of the entity are cooked and fragrant, the entity will undergo the next process, which is to enter ingredients such as meat. Animate entities that are subject to this work are in the form of animal meat such as krbau, beef, horse or goat. After the entity is cooked, it is immediately served to eat

Gule Explication

At that time, X did something to Y

Because of this at the same time, something happened to Y

X does this with something (heated pot or pan)

Y doesn't get dry, or half cooked until it smells good X wants this

X does something like this.



V. CONCLUSION

Verbs Action discusses the semantic structure of the Bima language, explicitly dealing with the original meaning of doing 'to do'. Two non-compositional polysemes are representing Doing are (i) Doing and Occurring and (ii) Doing and Moving. Cooking verbs are included in the uncomposed polysemy of Doing and Happening. The verb *noci* Cooking is based on: the tool, the model of movement, the part of the entity being treated, the result the agent wants to achieve. The results show that the Bima language action verb 'Cooking' in general has a component mapping 'X Doing something to Y' and therefore 'Something happened to Y'. Based on the methods and means used in cooking, these verbs are divided into several groups, namely (1) "cooking" with water: *lowi*, *mbako*, *danda*, *salunga* (2) "cooking" with fire: *puru*, *sanggowo*, *s Responsi*, *suje*, (3) "Cooking" with oil and without oil: *ncango*, and *tumi*, *gule*. This variant has unique semantic characteristics so that the meaning content of each lexicon is different even though it is still in the same field of meaning (Cf. Adawiyah, 2021).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to thank the publisher for reviewing and accepting this paper and the suggestions from Prof. I Nengah Sudipa, Dr Sri Satyawati, and Dr I Made Rajeg.

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<https://scholar.google.com/citations?hl=en&user=IzMPIWUAAAAJ>.

EFL Teachers' Perceptions on the Implementation of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning in Saudi Arabia During COVID-19: Challenges and Affordances

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Abstract—This study aimed to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) in elementary schools in Saudi Arabia, including their attitudes, levels of proficiency, and challenges they experienced regarding the use of MALL. The study also sought to investigate whether EFL teachers' backgrounds have any significant impact on their perceptions of MALL. To this end, survey data were collected from 123 EFL teachers who have worked in elementary schools in Saudi Arabia. The results revealed teachers' positive perceptions of MALL, particularly during the COVID-19 pandemic. Overall, participants stated that mobile learning is beneficial and has the potential to support and enhance EFL teaching. Most EFL teachers reported that they did not have a sufficient level of skills/abilities required to develop MALL activities and cited some challenges they faced. The results also indicate a significant difference among participants' perceptions of MALL based on their professional development and teaching experience, but no difference based on their gender was found. These results indicate that placing a greater emphasis on offering professional development in MALL for Saudi EFL teachers could cultivate both greater proficiency and the ability to overcome challenges. This study concludes by providing recommendations on how to improve MALL implementation as well as directions for future research.

Index Terms—English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL), COVID-19 pandemic

I. INTRODUCTION

The educational process has changed due to technological developments and the digital revolution of the 21st century. Some researchers have stated that there have been transformations from the PC age to the age of mobilism in which teaching in the classroom has changed from an 'I Teach' teacher-centered method to 'We Learn' (Norris & Soloway, 2011, p.3). Along the same lines, Prensky (2001) asserted that students today frequently use mobile phones and are described as digital natives. The mobile learning strategy is considered a recent trend of the digital age, and it can be used to enhance education (Chang & Hwang, 2019). Mobile learning helps educators to enhance and promote learning and performance both inside and outside the school setting (Martin & Ertzberger, 2013). When applied specifically to language learning, mobile learning is termed mobile-assisted language learning (MALL).

In early 2020, the World Health Organization announced that COVID-19 had become a global pandemic. As in other nations, the pandemic affected education in Saudi Arabia, as schools were shut down. As a result, the Saudi Ministry of Education decided to use online learning with students to help them complete their academic studies. This was the first time that online learning was utilized in Saudi K-12 schools. Currently, many Saudi EFL teachers and students use their mobile phones as a medium through which they learn.

However, research on mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is still in its initial stages (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008), and most of the current research on MALL focuses on its effectiveness and its impact on EFL learners (Hazaea & Alzubi, 2016, Khubyari & Narafshan, 2016). Saudi students' perspectives on using MALL have been discussed (Alkhudair, 2020), but there is a lack of research that examines teachers' perspectives on the utilization of MALL in Saudi schools. The current study aimed to fill this gap and contribute to the existing literature by exploring Saudi EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the use of MALL, including their attitudes, proficiency, and challenges that might hinder MALL implementation in Saudi schools. We also examined the factors that affect MALL adoption among EFL teachers.

A. Significance of the Study

The findings of this research provide researchers, curriculum designers, and policymakers with valuable information to understand the perceptions of EFL teachers regarding MALL in order to provide them with adequate professional development, effective instructional strategies, and interactive technology-based curriculums. Investigating the factors that affect teachers' perceptions regarding using MALL may help in understanding the process of its application and the

challenges related to MALL. The results of this study are hoped to inspire educational institutions to provide effective and adequate programs of professional development that help to integrate MALL successfully in EFL teaching.

B. Research Questions

- Q1. What are the attitudes of Saudi EFL teachers toward using MALL in EFL learning in elementary schools?
- Q2. What are EFL elementary teachers' perceptions regarding their proficiency in developing MALL activities in EFL learning?
- Q3. What are the perceptions of EFL teachers regarding the challenges of using MALL in EFL learning in elementary schools?
- Q4. How do teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding their proficiency vary based on gender, professional development, and teaching experience?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition of MALL

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is the first term that comes to mind when discussing the digitalization of language learning. MALL is viewed as a subset of CALL and a new phase in foreign language learning (Taj, Sulan, Sipra & Ahmad, 2016). CALL-associated skills should be updated continuously to keep up with the rapid development of technology (Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013). Thus, mobile phones are registered as a large growth segment in linguistic fields. Rahimi and Miri (2014) defined MALL as a technology-supported approach to second-language teaching and learning which has the potential to aid in the development of linguistic skills, as well as to further improve communication via recent advances in mobile technology.

B. Benefits and Drawbacks of MALL

Regarding MALL's associated benefits, mobile phones represent a modern technology that provides many opportunities for language learning. Mobile technology is viewed as a technique that provides students with many substantial advantages, including flexibility, portability/small size, low cost, and user friendliness (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012). It also gives learners a chance to learn no matter where they are, supporting anywhere-and-anytime learning, as opposed to traditional learning. Due to their small size and weight, mobile phones can also be carried easily and taken to different places (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012). Thus, mobile technology is non-restrictive and accommodating to personal circumstances. Moreover, a great deal of previous research has examined MALL's benefits in learning a language (Gharehblagh & Nasri, 2020, Al-Jarrah, Talafhah & Al-Jarrah, 2019, Chen, Jia & An, 2020). It has been asserted that using mobile phones for language teaching purposes has been both successful and helpful, particularly in improving students' listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills. Krivoruchko et al. (2015) stated that MALL use increases learners' participation, engagement, and motivation in language learning. Moreover, Kukulska-Hulme and Viberg (2018) found that MALL helps to enhance communication and collaboration between students, allowing teachers to interact with all students simultaneously, potentially leading to more motivated and effective language teaching.

Despite the potential advantages, mobile learning is not without its drawbacks. Shortcomings cited as obstacles to MALL use as an educational approach include small screen size, an untrusted system of data storage, and limited presentation of graphics (Bachore, 2015). Chartrand (2016) also noted that dependence on the Internet is a problem for some EFL students. Considering that Internet connections can be unstable and may not always provide high transmission capacity, this may result in some students retaining less knowledge and understanding of the subject. Chartrand (2016) also stated that using mobile phones in the classroom could disrupt the learning process if irrelevant activities distract students from class content.

C. Teachers Perceptions of Using MALL

Positive perceptions and attitudes are the most powerful incentives for adopting MALL. Many studies have been conducted globally in an attempt to examine teachers' attitudes toward the implementation of mobile technology in their classes. For example, a study by Nariyati, Sudirman, and Pratiwi (2020) investigated EFL pre-service teachers' attitudes regarding MALL utilization. The participants expressed positive attitudes and believed that using mobile technology could enrich the language learning process. Due to such positive attitudes, the EFL teachers expressed a preference for MALL use in teaching English, in line with Nuraeni (2021) who found that most teachers had a positive attitude toward MALL use as a means of supporting classroom activities in teaching the English language during the COVID-19 pandemic. They believed that MALL was a good learning strategy to support their teaching process, perceiving it as a beneficial tool. They also hoped that EFL teachers would continue to use MALL in EFL teaching.

Nevertheless, other research (Oz, 2015) found that significant differences existed among Turkish EFL teachers in terms of their attitudes toward MALL use. This research also highlighted how female teachers expressed more positive attitudes and perceptions regarding MALL use in EFL classes as they believed that they could achieve increasingly satisfactory results using a mobile phone, as it removed time and space limitations and provided further opportunities for practicing and developing English language skills. Baek, Zhang, and Yun (2017) found that female EFL teachers

were more positive than male ones in terms of attitudes. Additionally, more experienced educators (i.e., those with over 15 years of experience) expressed more positive perceptions of mobile learning than those who were less experienced. However, Dehkordi (2018) found no significant differences between male and female perceptions. Both expressed positive attitudes toward the use of MALL in the EFL learning process.

It is crucial to understand teachers' perspectives regarding applying MALL to teaching in EFL classrooms, particularly in terms of their proficiency and efficacy in developing MALL activities in EFL learning. According to Bandura (1977), the term 'self-efficacy' encompasses individuals' beliefs in their abilities as well as whether they possess the skills needed to complete tasks. Thus, teachers with high efficacy use instructional strategies that motivate students to learn and overcome the obstacles they encounter. Khan, Radzuan, Shahbaz and Ibrahim (2018) found that most Saudi university instructors lack the knowledge and skillset needed to develop and implement MALL activities. Most participants reported that using mobile devices can help to facilitate EFL learning, but some indicated that mobile phones cannot support EFL teaching. Many EFL educators reported inefficiencies among learners using mobile phones for academic purposes, with small screen sizes and unstable Internet connectivity cited as the key challenges in MALL use. In Dashtestani's (2013) study, EFL teachers reported that they needed to improve their skills to develop MALL activities. These findings also suggest that they encountered some challenges with MALL use, which might explain non-use of mobile devices for EFL teaching. These challenges include using mobile devices for non-educational purposes, students' lack of knowledge on how to use mobile device for academic purposes, the high cost of Internet connections, and slow Internet speeds. As the literature review indicates, very few studies have examined MALL use from Saudi EFL teachers' perspectives, as the COVID-19 crisis was the first-time online learning was used in Saudi K-12 schools, particularly in elementary schools. This study attempted to fill the aforementioned research gap by examining EFL teachers' perceptions of MALL use in elementary schools that potentially impact MALL implementation.

III. METHODS

To answer the present study's research questions and collect meaningful information about Saudi EFL teachers' perceptions about MALL use, this study used a quantitative design for the data collection, data analysis, and interpretation of the findings.

A. Instruments

This study used a survey developed by Khan et al. (2018) from the pre-existing literature. Essential changes were implemented in the questionnaire to match the Saudi EFL context. The survey was valid, as it was sent to five researchers and university teachers in the Saudi context, and appropriate corrections were made in accordance with their comments (Khan et al., 2018).

The survey included 4 parts and 25 items, with the first part focusing on EFL teachers' demographics, including gender, teaching experience, and whether they had received professional development training for MALL. The second part entailed teachers' attitudes regarding MALL use. The third part included questions about the challenges of MALL integration. The last part focused on determining EFL teachers' ability to develop MALL activities. The second and third parts comprised four-point Likert scales with the following options: (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) agree; and (4) strongly agree. The fourth part comprised a scale with five possible responses for each question: (1) not proficient; (2) fairly proficient; (3) undecided; (4) proficient; and (5) very proficient. In Khan et al.'s (2018) study, three questionnaire sections (teachers' attitudes, their ability to develop MALL activities, and challenges with MALL use) demonstrated reliability through Cronbach's alpha scores of 0.86, 0.83, 0.79, and 0.86, respectively. In the present study, the Cronbach's alpha scores for these three sections were 0.69, 0.85, and 0.97, respectively.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

The survey was uploaded to Google Forms and sent to EFL teachers via various modes of social media. The data were collected in the spring semester of 2021 and imported into SPSS 27.0 for analysis. Descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) were computed (for the first, second, and third questions) to examine Saudi EFL teachers' attitudes, perceptions of their proficiency, and challenges in using MALL. For the fourth question, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to examine whether difference existed among EFL teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding their proficiency in MALL use, specifically based on their gender, teaching experience, and professional development, which were independent variables. Gender comprised two groups: male and female. Professional development comprised two groups: teachers who had received MALL professional development and those who had not received it. Three groups were established for teaching experience: 0–10 years; 11–20 years; and 21–30 years. The dependent variables were teachers' attitudes toward MALL and perceptions of their proficiency in MALL use.

C. Participants

The population sampled in this study consisted of EFL teachers from elementary schools in Saudi Arabia. The random method of sampling was used for the selection of the participants in this study. An online survey was distributed

to 205 EFL teachers via a link; 123 participants returned the survey, with a response rate of 60%, which is a good sample size for data analysis purposes.

The results of the descriptive statistics indicated that of the 123 participants who took the survey, 79 were female and 44 were male. The majority of the participants in this study (39.8%) reported that they had 11 to 20 years of teaching experience, followed by participants with 0 to 10 years of teaching experience (35.8%) and participants with 21 to 30 years of teaching experience (24.4%). Of the 123 respondents, 76 of the teachers had not received professional development training for MALL, and 47 had received professional development training for MALL (Table 1).

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANT CHARACTERISTICS

Measure	Item	Total Number	Percentage
Gender	Male	44	35.8%
	Female	79	64.2%
Years of teaching experience	0–10	44	35.8%
	11–20	49	39.8%
	21–30	30	24.4%
MALL Professional Development	Yes	76	62%
	No	47	38%

IV. RESULTS

A. Attitudes of EFL Teachers toward Using MALL

The first research question was designed to examine Saudi EFL teachers' attitudes toward using mobile-assisted language learning to help facilitate EFL learning in elementary schools. A high score indicates a positive attitude toward MALL, while a low score indicates a negative attitude toward MALL. As seen in Table 2, the total mean for Saudi EFL teachers' attitudes toward MALL use was 3.012, indicating that Saudi EFL teachers have positive attitudes toward MALL utilization in elementary schools. Most of the teachers also expressed favorable attitudes regarding the advantages of MALL. The results also found that the statement "Mobile phones can be used to teach/learn different language skills" elicited the highest rating, with a mean of 3.10, while "Mobile phone usage can create collaborative learning environments" elicited the lowest rating, with a mean of 2.98 (Table 2).

TABLE 2
ATTITUDES OF EFL TEACHERS TOWARD MALL

Item	Mean	St. Deviation
Mobile phone usage will facilitate the language learning process	3.05	0.839
Portability is a key feature of mobile phones	3.02	0.779
Mobile phone usage can create collaborative learning environments	2.98	0.839
Multimedia attributes of mobile phones are useful for EFL teaching	3.02	0.839
Mobile phones can provide scaffolding for each learner	3.01	0.830
Mobile phones can be used to teach/learn different language skills	3.10	0.844
Mobile phone integration is cost effective in EFL teaching	3.05	0.768
Mobile phones usage for language teaching is time efficient	3.00	0.820
Mobile phones can be connected to the Internet at any time	3.04	0.834
Mobile phones can facilitate learning for ESL learners	3.02	0.789

B. EFL Teachers' Perceptions Regarding Their Proficiency in Developing MALL Activities

The total mean for the teachers' perceptions regarding their ability to develop and use MALL activities was 2.48, indicating that most Saudi EFL teachers did not have a high level of proficiency in using MALL and lacked the skills/abilities necessary to develop MALL activities. The results also show that the item "Ability to evaluate MALL software tools" elicited the highest rating from respondents, with a mean of 2.58, while the lowest-rated item was "Designing and creating MALL activities", with a mean of 2.44 (Table 3).

TABLE 3
EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THEIR PROFICIENCY

Item	Mean	St. Deviation
Designing and creating MALL activities	2.44	1.175
Ability to adapt teaching styles to MALL	2.48	1.203
Ability to evaluate MALL software tools	2.58	1.192
ICT knowledge to use mobile phones for EFL	2.45	1.175
Ability to use MALL software tools	2.56	1.255

C. EFL Teachers' Perceptions on the Challenges of Using MALL

The Saudi EFL teachers showed agreement regarding most of the challenges of MALL usage in elementary schools, including the following perceived challenges to the implementation of MALL: students' non-use of mobile phones for academic purposes, students' lack of skill/knowledge to use mobile phones for academic purposes, internet connectivity

obstacles, small screen size, slow internet speed, and lack of MALL activities and software tools. The findings show that the statement “Students’ lack of skill/knowledge to use mobile phones for academic purposes” had the highest rating with a mean of 3.20; the lowest-rated statement was “Incompatibility of mobile software with language teaching/learning” with a mean of 2.37 (Table 4).

TABLE 4
EFL TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS ON THE CHALLENGES OF USING MALL

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation
The small screen size of mobile phones	3.04	0.794
Internet or data speed	3.00	0.698
Internet connectivity obstacles	3.15	0.651
Students’ non-use of mobile phones for academic purposes	3.18	0.794
Price of mobile phones	2.50	0.762
High cost of data bundles or Wi-Fi Charges	2.37	0.704
Students’ lack of skills to use mobile for academic purposes	3.20	0.821
Incompatibility of mobile software with language teaching	2.37	0.716
Students’ resistance to the use of mobile for academic purposes	2.51	0.704
Lack of mobile-based language learning software and activities	2.58	0.694

D. Teachers’ Attitudes and Perceptions Regarding Their Proficiency Based on Professional Development

A MANOVA model was used to examine whether significant differences existed in teachers’ attitudes toward MALL, as well as their perceptions regarding their proficiency based on receiving professional development. A statistically significant difference was found in teachers’ attitudes toward using MALL and perceptions of their MALL proficiency based on receiving professional development ($F[2, 120] = 37.14, p < 0.0005$; Wilk’s $\Lambda = 0.618$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.38$). As for teachers’ attitudes, the EFL teachers who received professional development in general education scored higher than those who did not receive it, with a difference of 6.66 between them. This finding was found to be statistically significant ($F[1, 121] = 34.16, p < 0.0005$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.22$). As for teachers’ perceptions regarding their proficiency, EFL teachers who received professional development scored higher than those who did not receive it, with a difference of 6.08 between them. This finding was found to be statistically significant ($F[1, 121] = 48.20, p < 0.0005$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.28$) (Table 5).

TABLE 5
MANOVA PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT MODEL

Multivariate Test							
Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Professional development	Pillai’s Trace	0.382	37.135 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.000	0.382
	Wilk’s Lambda	0.619	37.135 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.000	0.382
	Hotelling’s Trace	0.619	37.135 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.000	0.382
	Roy’s Largest Root	0.619	37.135 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.000	0.382
Test of Between-Subjects Effects							
Source	DV	Type III Sum of Squared	df	Mean Squared	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Attitude	1363.253 ^a	1	1363.253	34.655	0.000	0.223
	Proficiency	1136.100 ^b	1	1136.100	48.188	0.000	0.285
Intercept	Attitude	112,137.757	1	112,137.757	2850.61	0.000	0.959
	Proficiency	20,699.872	1	20,699.872	877.996	0.000	0.879
Professional Development	Attitude	1363.253	1	1363.253	34.655	0.000	0.223
	Proficiency	1136.1	1	1136.1	48.188	0.000	0.285
Error	Attitude	4759.917	121	39.338			
	Proficiency	2852.729	121	23.576			
Total	Attitude	117,725.000	123				
	Proficiency	24,465.000	123				
Corrected Total	Attitude	6123.171	122				
	Proficiency	3988.829	122				

^a R Squared = 0.223 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.216). ^b R Squared = 0.285 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.279).

E. Teachers’ Attitudes and Perceptions Regarding Their Proficiency Based on Gender

A MANOVA model was also conducted to investigate whether significant differences existed in teachers’ attitudes toward MALL, as well as their perceptions regarding their proficiency based on based on their gender. There was no significant difference in teachers’ attitudes and perceptions regarding their proficiency based on their gender, ($F[2, 120] = 1.83, p = 0.165$; Wilk’s $\Lambda = 0.970$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.030$). As for teachers’ attitudes, the result was insignificant ($F[1, 121] = 3.1, p = 0.083$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.025$). As for teachers’ perceptions regarding their proficiency/ability, the result was also insignificant ($F[1, 121] = 1.71, p = 0.193$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.014$) (Table 6).

TABLE 6
MONOVA GENDER MODEL

Multivariate Test							
Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Gender	Pillai's Trace	0.030	1.830 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.165	0.030
	Wilk's Lambda	0.970	1.830 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.165	0.030
	Hotelling's Trace	0.030	1.830 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.165	0.030
	Roy's Largest Root	0.030	1.830 ^b	2.000	120.000	0.165	0.030
Test of Between-Subjects Effect							
Source	DV	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Attitude	151.191 ^a	1	151.191	3.063	0.083	0.025
	Proficiency	55.791 ^b	1	55.791	1.716	0.193	0.014
Intercept	Attitude	100,336.557	1	100,336.557	2032.948	<0.001	0.944
	Proficiency	18,239.596	1	18,239.596	561.142	<0.001	0.823
Gender	Attitude	151.191	1	151.191	3.063	0.083	0.025
	Proficiency	55.791	1	55.791	1.716	0.193	0.014
Error	Attitude	597.979	121	49.355			
	Proficiency	3933.038	121	32.504			
Total	Attitude	17,725	123				
	Proficiency	24,465	123				
Corrected Total	Attitude	6123.171	122				
	Proficiency	3988.829	122				

^a R Squared = 0.025 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.017). ^b R Squared = 0.014 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.006).

F. Teachers' Attitudes and Perceptions Regarding Their Proficiency Based on Teaching Experience

A MANOVA model was used to examine whether significant differences in teachers' attitudes toward MALL existed, as well as their perceptions regarding their proficiency based on the years of teaching experience (three groups: 0–10 years of experience, 11–20 years of experience, and 21–30 years of experience). There was a statistically significant difference in teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding their proficiency based on teaching experiences, Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.626$, $p < 0.0005$. The findings of the MANOVA tests are as follows: teachers' attitudes ($F[1, 121] = 25.49$, $p < 0.0005$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.29$) and teachers' perceptions regarding their proficiency ($F[1, 121] = 14.17$, $p < 0.0005$; partial $\eta^2 = 0.19$) (Table 7).

TABLE 7
MANOVA TEACHING EXPERIENCE MODEL

Multivariate Test							
Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Teaching Experience	Pillai's Trace	0.378	13.992	4.000	240.000	0.000	0.189
	Wilk's Lambda	0.626	15.679 ^b	4.000	238.000	0.000	0.209
	Hotelling's Trace	0.589	17.379	4.000	236.000	0.000	0.228
	Roy's Largest Root	0.576	34.585 ^c	2.000	120.000	0.000	0.366
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects							
Source	DV	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Attitude	1826.145 ^a	2	913.072	25.499	0.000	0.298
	Proficiency	762.165 ^b	2	381.083	14.173	0.000	0.191
Intercept	Attitude	109,850.326	1	109,850.32	3067.712	0.000	0.962
	Proficiency	20,787.186	1	20,787.186	773.078	0.000	0.866
Teaching Experience	Attitude	1826.145	2	913.072	25.499	0.000	0.298
	Proficiency	762.165	2	381.083	14.173	0.000	0.191
Error	Attitude	4297.026	120	35.809			
	Proficiency	3226.664	120	26.889			
Total	Attitude	3226.664	123				
	Proficiency	117,725	123				
Corrected Total	Attitude	6123.171	122				
	Proficiency	3988.829	122				

^a R Squared = 0.298 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.287). ^b R Squared = 0.191 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.178).

In order to investigate where these significant differences occurred, Tukey post hoc tests were conducted on all four factors. Tukey post hoc comparisons revealed that for teachers' attitudes, the results of the tests indicate that those who had 21–30 years of experience showed significantly higher values than those who had from 0 to 10 years of experience (mean diff. = 9.52, p -value = 0.000). Additionally, the values among those who had 11–20 years of experience were significantly higher than those who had from 0 to 10 years of experience (mean diff. = 6.50, p -value = 0.000). However, those who had 11–20 years of experience did not significantly differ from those who had 21–30 (p -value = 0.079).

As for teachers' perceptions of their ability, the results of the tests indicated that those who had 21–30 years of experience showed significantly higher values than those who had 0 to 10 years of experience (mean diff. = 6.51,

p -value = 0.000), and those who had 11–20 years of experience (mean diff. = 3.51, p -value = 0.012). Additionally, those who had 11–20 years of experience showed significantly higher values than those who had from 0 to 10 years of experience (Mean diff. = 3.00, p -value = 0.017) (Table 8).

TABLE 8
POST HOC TEST (TUKEY HSD)

Dependent Variable	Teaching Experience		Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower	Upper
Attitude	0–10 years	11–20 years	–6.5097 *	1.24283	0.000	–9.4592	–3.5603
		21–30 years	–9.5288 *	1.41684	0.000	–12.891	–6.1664
	11–20 years	0–10 years	6.5097 *	1.24283	0.000	3.5603	9.4592
		21–30 years	–3.019	1.38723	0.079	–6.3111	0.2731
	21–30 years	0–10 years	9.5288 *	1.41684	0.000	6.1664	12.8912
		11–20 years	3.019	1.38723	0.079	–2.731	6.3111
Proficiency	0–10 years	11–20 years	–3.0088 *	1.07697	0.017	–5.5646	–0.453
		21–30 years	–6.5197 *	1.22776	0.000	–9.4334	–3.606
	11–20 years	0–10 years	3.0088 *	1.07697	0.017	0.453	5.5646
		21–30 years	–3.5109 *	1.2021	0.012	–6.3636	–0.6581
	21–30 years	0–10 years	6.5197 *	1.22776	0.000	3.606	9.4334
		11–20 years	3.5109 *	1.2021	0.012	0.6581	6.3636

* The mean difference is significant.

V. DISCUSSION

This study examined Saudi EFL teachers' attitudes toward MALL, as well as perceptions regarding MALL proficiency and challenges in elementary schools. Additionally, the study investigated whether any of these demographics (gender, teaching experience, and professional development) have any effect on EFL teachers' perceptions regarding MALL utilization. The results demonstrated that teachers generally had a positive attitude toward utilizing MALL in elementary schools in Saudi Arabia. The teachers agreed on using mobile phones for teaching and integration, stating that using mobile phones offers many advantages, including "portability, learning opportunities, multimedia functions, accessibility, scaffolding, availability, and connectivity of data." After MALL was initially applied to teaching lessons during the COVID-19 pandemic, EFL teachers reported an overall positive attitude toward MALL use among elementary students, and they viewed it as beneficial for learning activities. These results concerning the first research question are in line with research on teachers' attitudes toward MALL use in other contexts (Nariyati et al., 2020, Nuraeni, 2021), further confirming teachers' positive attitudes toward MALL use to support classroom activities, particularly those concerning learning the English language in the middle of the COVID-19 pandemic.

The findings also indicated that most Saudi teachers did not have sufficient abilities or skills to develop MALL activities in EFL learning, which is in line with other research (Dashtestani, 2013, Khan et al., 2018). Dashtestani (2013) highlighted that educational institutions should provide EFL teachers with the ICT skills needed for the proper implementation and use of MALL. Based on Bandura's theory, teachers with high efficacy use new instructional strategies (such as MALL) that motivate students to learn (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003). According to Kent and Giles (2016), teachers with low levels of self-efficacy and skills in using new methods such as ICT will experience a negative effect on their ability to implement such methods in their classrooms. Therefore, providing Saudi teachers in elementary schools with MALL training and professional development training is key to improving MALL utilization proficiency in EFL teaching.

Considering that Saudi teachers felt that their proficiency in using MALL in EFL teaching was low, they inevitably experienced some challenges that affected MALL utilization. As Bandura (1977) stated, those with high self-efficacy can overcome challenges and difficulties. EFL teachers in elementary schools reported that they encountered some difficulties, including students' not using mobile phones for academic purposes, a lack of skills in the use of mobile phones for academic purposes among students, Internet connectivity obstacles, and lack of MALL activities and software tools. These findings are consistent with previous studies (Khan et al., 2018, Bakhsh, 2015 & Bozorgian, 2018) indicating that EFL teachers encountered some of these difficulties while implementing MALL. Therefore, placing a greater emphasis on and working toward offering MALL training for Saudi EFL teachers could potentially cultivate both greater self-efficacy in using MALL and the ability to overcome challenges.

The results demonstrated no significant gender-based differences among the participants in terms of their attitudes toward MALL and their perceptions regarding their MALL proficiency. Male and female teachers both had positive perceptions of MALL use in EFL teaching and learning. However, a portion of this research was inconsistent with these findings and suggested that gender affected teachers' attitudes toward and perceptions of MALL (Nuraeni, 2021 & Oz, 2015). Females reported stronger positive perceptions regarding mobile learning in EFL teaching as they believed that they could reach increasingly satisfactory results through its use.

The current study's results revealed a difference among participants in their attitudes and perceptions toward MALL utilization based on their professional development and teaching experience. The EFL teachers who received professional development training were more positive than teachers who did not receive it regarding both their attitudes

toward MALL and perceptions of their proficiency in developing MALL activities. As reported previously, 76 participants had not previously attended MALL training, i.e., not all Saudi EFL teachers in elementary schools receive MALL training, which can affect their MALL practice. This finding is consistent with those of previous studies reporting that receiving training impacts teacher perception, particularly regarding MALL utilization (Nazari & Xodabande, 2020). Thus, continued MALL-related training courses, conferences, and workshops can be effective in supporting teachers in MALL's use, which could lead to more successful MALL implementation. As Carless (1999) stated, "Without sufficient retraining, even teachers initially enthusiastic about an innovation method can become frustrated by problems in implementation and eventually turn against the project." (p. 23).

Moreover, these findings indicate that Saudi EFL teachers' teaching experience significantly affects both their attitudes and perceptions regarding MALL in elementary schools. EFL teachers who had 21–30 years of experience were more positive than those with less teaching experience concerning their attitudes toward MALL and their perceptions of their proficiency in developing MALL activities. These results align with those of Baek et al.'s (2017) study that found EFL teachers with more than 15 years of teaching experience showed higher positive perceptions regarding mobile MALL use than other less experienced groups. According to Rosa (2016), experienced EFL teachers are more positive toward using technology than novice teachers and shows more support regarding the advantages of technology in language teaching.

VI. CONCLUSION

MALL is the latest method to emerge in language learning and entails the use of applications to support students' learning, particularly during the COVID-19 pandemic (Nuraeni, 2021). As elementary schools were required to shift to online learning and MALL utilization, this study focused on Saudi teachers' perspectives, particularly on MALL utilization among English -language teachers. Therefore, it is important that Saudi policymakers, curriculum designers, and educators take into account teachers' perceptions when applying changes to teaching techniques and methods. It is clear that teachers play a crucial role in effectively applying MALL in practice, and, for this reason, it is essential to consider their views on it. Generally, teachers in Saudi elementary schools tend to express positive attitudes toward MALL use in EFL classrooms.

To implement MALL effectively, it is vital to consider the context in which it operates. Thus, the Ministry of Education should attempt to minimize constraints and challenges associated with MALL adoption in the Saudi context and increase teachers' proficiency levels, including their ability to develop MALL activities, particularly considering that they do not possess the required skills. According to Dashtestani (2013) and Nazari and Xodabande (2020), a need exists to provide EFL teachers with the necessary skills by coaching them on the use of technology (such as MALL) in language teaching, both practically and theoretically. Therefore, Saudi EFL teachers should attend pedagogical and practical training for the design and evaluation of MALL activities. The Ministry of Education should organize successive, continued, and practical MALL workshops intended to develop and design MALL activities and tasks. This would be a better approach to encourage language teachers to participate in collaborative projects on MALL implementation. Furthermore, a wide range of MALL software programs should be available to EFL teachers, facilitating access to effective and reliable MALL activities and software programs.

Conducting this study provided an opportunity to determine the literature gaps in this topic, as well as to recommend possible directions for future research. Based on a review of the literature, there is a lack of research exploring Saudi EFL teachers' perceptions of MALL implementation in K-12 schools. In the future, this study could be replicated, but it could include teachers' perceptions on MALL use at all school levels, rather than solely elementary schools. Researchers could potentially also study Saudi EFL teachers' MALL perceptions and practices using different methodologies, such as a qualitative method or mixed methods. Researchers should investigate both EFL teachers and students' perceptions regarding actual MALL practices, as this would help to examine the difficulties and challenges potentially affecting both parties. The present study's results contribute to the field by improving EFL teaching.

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Foreign Language Enjoyment and Classroom Anxiety of Chinese EFL Learners With Intermediate and Low English Proficiency

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Abstract—Driven by Positive Psychology, research on emotions in second language acquisition has moved from The Anxiety-Prevailing Phase to Positive and Negative Emotions Phase (Dewaele & Li, 2020). A growing number of scholars begin to study learners' emotions from a more holistic perspective. The present study investigated the levels and sources of foreign language enjoyment (FLE) and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) of 231 Chinese EFL undergraduates with intermediate and low English proficiency. The study found moderate levels of both FLE and FLCA among participants. However, the level of FLE was much lower than the international and domestic samples, while the level of FLCA showed the opposite pattern. There was no significant gender difference emerged for FLE, while female participants reported more FLCA than their male counterparts. Moreover, no significant difference was found in the levels of both FLE and FLCA between intermediate and low English proficiency students. Qualitative data analysis confirmed that FLE was closely related to teacher factors while FLCA was more related to learners themselves. Based on these findings, pedagogical implications were provided for EFL teaching in China.

Index Terms—Positive Psychology, foreign language enjoyment, foreign language classroom anxiety, intermediate and low English proficiency, Chinese EFL undergraduates

I. INTRODUCTION

For a long time, scholars have been keen to explore the impact of cognitive factors on second language acquisition (SLA), but seldom paid attention to emotion which was regarded as an irrational factor in SLA research. Although the vital role of emotions in learning was later recognized (Scovel, 1978; Krashen, 1985), the focus of research in this field has always been on problematic, distressing aspects, especially on learner anxiety. In 2012, the introduction of the concept of Positive Psychology (PP) stimulated a positive psychology movement in applied linguistics (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). In the past few years, researchers in the SLA field have gradually expanded their concentration upon anxiety in the past to a study of both positive and negative emotions in the classroom setting, the complexity and dynamic interaction between emotions as well as learners' well-being (Dewaele & Li, 2020).

Enjoyment and anxiety are two common emotions experienced by foreign language (FL) learners. Since Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) first explored the relationship between foreign language enjoyment (FLE) and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), the two emotions have always been examined together in different learning settings. As two different dimensions, studies have revealed that the increase of one emotion was not simply followed by the decrease of the other (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Boudreau, MacIntyre, & Dewaele, 2018). Hence, it was suggested that both positive and negative emotions should be investigated together in the same study (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, Witney, Saito, & Dewaele, 2018).

To date, A few studies have explored FLE and FLCA of Chinese EFL learners in high school or higher education contexts (e.g., Jiang & Dewaele, 2019; Li, 2020; Li, Huang, & Li, 2020). However, no such study has targeted at intermediate and low English proficiency learners in China. China is currently the country with the largest number of English learners in the world, among which intermediate and low English proficiency learners account for a large proportion. Such a research is worthwhile because it can provide a better understanding of L2 emotions experienced by Chinese EFL learners and also shed light on improving foreign language education in China. With a mixed method, the present study seeks to examine the levels and sources of both FLE and FLCA of Chinese EFL learners with intermediate and low English proficiency.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Foreign Language Anxiety

As a psychological construct, anxiety is defined as “a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object and an emotional state generated through the arousal of the limbic system, the primitive, subcortical ‘chasis’ of the cerebrum” (Scovel, 1978, p.134). Spielberger (1983) referred to anxiety more specifically as “subjective feelings of

tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry, and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (p.1). As a multi-faceted concept, several types of anxiety have been differentiated by psychologists, such as trait anxiety, state anxiety, situation-specific anxiety.

Categorized as a type of situation-specific anxiety, foreign language anxiety (FL anxiety) is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, referring to “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p.128). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994a) defined it as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (p.284). Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) identified three varieties of FL anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

Anxiety might interfere with the process of learning and acquiring a language (Krashen, 1982). Horwitz (2000) believed that the interference of anxiety on learning and performance is one of the most commonly accepted phenomena in psychology and education. For decades, the negative emotion of anxiety has attracted much attention and has become the most studied emotion in the field of SLA. While some studies confirmed anxiety as a crucial affective barrier in language learning achievement (e.g., Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a, 1994b), some revealed the effects of facilitative anxiety (e.g., Chastain, 1975; Bailey, 1983). In short, the relationship between FL anxiety and FL learning is complex. Although the earlier studies have yielded some ambiguous and contradictory results in terms of the relationship between anxiety and FL performance, it is generally admitted that FL anxiety negatively affects FL achievement (Horwitz, 2010; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018).

Anxiety may not only have a destructive effect on learners’ behavior but also an interference with interpersonal communication, cognition and learning (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002), research probing into its impact on FL learning has always been crucial. Studies on identifying the sources of anxiety have emerged greatly since anxiety came into the sight of SLA researchers. FL anxiety was found to be bound up with some of learners’ personality traits like competitiveness, perfectionism, and trait anxiety (e.g., Bailey, 1983; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Horwitz, 1986; Chiang, 2010). Classroom environment was also identified as a potential anxiety contributor (Cohen & Norst, 1989; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2011). In addition, FL anxiety may also have a correlation with some societal variables like family’s social status (Dewaele, 2002). As FL anxiety is the result of a combination of internal and external factors, it’s of great necessity to continue conducting researches that compare the effects of different variables on FL anxiety to enhance our understanding towards this negative emotion of FL learning.

B. Foreign Language Enjoyment

The concept of PP was introduced into SLA by MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012), which stimulated a positive emotional movement in the field of SLA research. PP is a rapidly developing branch of psychology. It strives to develop tools to build positive emotions, greater engagement, and an appreciation of meaning in life and its activities (Seligman, 2006; MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014). Among positive emotions, enjoyment is a prevalent emotion experienced by learners in learning (Elahi Shirvan & Taherian, 2018). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) differentiate “pleasure” from “enjoyment”. Dewaele and MacIntyre (2016) further clarified that “enjoyment” is not simply an agreeable feeling as “pleasure”. It can be defined as a complex emotion which occurred “when people not only meet their needs, but exceed them to accomplish something new or even unexpected” (p. 217). The role of enjoyment was grounded on positive psychologist Barbara Fredrickson’s Broaden-and-Build Theory (2001, 2003). Fredrickson (2003) proposed that certain discrete positive emotions, such as joy, interest, contentment, pride, and love can broaden people’s momentary thought-action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources.

Currently, FLE is the most concerned positive emotion in SLA field (Dewaele & Li, 2018). Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) developed a 21-item Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLE Scale) to reflect learners’ positive emotions towards learning experiences, peers and teachers. They gathered data from 1746 participants from all over the world and found that FLE and FLCA were two relatively independent emotions with a moderately negative correlation. Since then, many studies have shown that these two emotions were not only closely correlated with learners’ FL performance (e.g., Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018; Li, Dewaele, & Jiang, 2019), but also affected by various individual factors (e.g., gender, personality, proficiency level) and social factors (e.g., teacher, classroom environment, cultural background) (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, Witney, Saito, & Dewaele, 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019).

Compared with studies abroad, PP has developed slowly in China and is still in its infancy (Jiang & Li, 2017). Studies on the FLE of Chinese students have begun to emerge in recent years. With a mixed-method approach, Li, Jiang, and Dewaele (2018) developed a Chinese Version of the Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale and investigated the levels and sources of FLE of Chinese high school students. A 3-factor structure of FLE, namely *FLE-Private*, *FLE-Teacher* and *FLE-Atmosphere*, was identified after a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. The results of descriptive analyses showed that the participants scored highest on the dimension of *FLE-Teacher*, followed by *FLE-Private* and *FLE-Atmosphere*. The study also revealed that FLE experienced by Chinese EFL learners was mainly related to the teachers, the learner and the classroom atmosphere (controlled by the teacher).

Jin and Zhang (2018) investigated the dimensions of foreign language classroom enjoyment and their effect on FL achievement. Participants were 320 Chinese senior high school students. They found a 3-factor solution for the adapted

FLE scale: Enjoyment of Teacher Support, Enjoyment of Student Support, and Enjoyment of FL Learning. Further analysis revealed that FLE had a direct effect on EFL learners' FL achievement.

In a qualitative study, Jiang (2020) examined the teacher-related factors in 646 Chinese college students' FLE with the focused essay technique. They found that there were mainly five categories of teacher-related factors, which were classroom activity organization, teacher characteristics, teacher skills, teaching content, and teacher support. The types of teacher-related factors that affected students' FLE had different proportions, and the ways in which they affected FLE were also different.

What emerged from the literature review is that although a few studies have investigated foreign language (classroom) enjoyment of Chinese EFL learners, the examination of both FLE and FLCA in the same study is still greatly needed. Besides, no study has yet specifically investigated the classroom emotions of intermediate and low proficiency Chinese EFL learners. Considering the large proportion of this learner group in EFL learners in China, the study of their anxiety and enjoyment in the FL classroom is of great necessity.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following questions were addressed in this study.

RQ1: What are the levels of FLE and FLCA of Chinese EFL learners with intermediate and low English proficiency?

RQ2: Are there any gender differences in FLE and FLCA among participants?

RQ3: Are there any significant differences in FLE and FLCA between the intermediate and low English proficiency students?

RQ4: What are the sources of FLE and FLCA for Chinese EFL learners with intermediate and low English proficiency?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 231 second-year non-English major undergraduates in a Chinese university, including 115 females and 116 males, participated in the research. Their average age was 19.95 years old ($SD = 0.747$). They came from 4 intact College English classes (Class A, B, C, and D) randomly chosen. College English courses are compulsory courses for non-English major freshmen and sophomores in this university. Each semester, students are grouped and placed in English classes of different levels based on the results of their last College English final exam (Total score: 100 points). Class A and B were targeted at intermediate English proficiency students, with an average score of 67.92 (see Table 1). Class C and D were for students with low English proficiency, the average score was 53.03. In this study, Class A and B constituted the intermediate level group while Class C and D was the low level group. Independent t -tests revealed a significant difference in the average scores of the two groups ($p = .000$).

TABLE I
BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Class	<i>N</i>	Female	Male	Average age (<i>SD</i>)	Average score of English final
A	60	34	26	19.87 (.791)	67.23
B	60	36	24	19.95 (.811)	68.60
C	50	16	34	20.04 (.727)	55.22
D	61	29	32	19.97 (.657)	50.84
In total	231	115	116	19.95 (.747)	60.47

B. Instruments

1. Composite Questionnaire

The composite questionnaire consisted of two sections. The first section was to collect participants' sociobiographical information (such as gender, age, class, etc.). The second section had 19 items in total, which included the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and the Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (revised Chinese version) (see Appendix).

a. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) extracted 8 items from the 33-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) devised by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986). It retained the reliability and validity of the original scale and have been verified and used in several studies (e.g., Dewaele & Alfawzan, 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019). This study adopted the reduced 8-item FLCAS as a tool to measure EFL learners' FL anxiety in classroom settings. It is a standard 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strong agree". After replacing the term "FL" in the original scale with "English", all the items were translated into Chinese by the author referring to the previous research. The translation was then checked by an experienced Chinese-English bilingual teacher and a consensus was reached after discussing the discrepancies. A scale analysis indicated a very high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .801$, $n = 15$).

b. Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (revised Chinese version)

This study used the Chinese version of Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (CFLES) developed by Li, Jiang, and Dewaele (2018). 11 positively phrased items were extracted from the original 21-item Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale (FLE Scale) developed by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014). The modified 11-item Chinese version scale is a 5-point Likert scale, covering three factors of FLE: private, teacher and atmosphere (Li, Jiang, & Dewaele, 2018). It has been tested to be an effective tool to measure learners' FLE in a Chinese EFL context. In this study, the internal consistency of the scale was good (Cronbach's $\alpha = .805$, $n = 15$).

2. Open-Ended Questions

The open-ended questions employed in this study were composed of two items: "1. Please describe a learning experience that you really enjoyed in a college English course. Give as much detail as possible about the situation and your feelings at that time; 2. Please describe a learning experience that you really felt anxious in a college English course. Give as much detail as possible about the situation and your feelings at that time." The questions were in Chinese to ensure that the participants can understand the questions accurately and express their opinions freely and clearly.

C. Data Collection

There were two stages for data collection. In the first stage, the researchers distributed the composite questionnaire to the participants in the four classes after class. The research purposes of the study were only partially disclosed before distributing questionnaires to avoid participants giving answers based on their anticipations of the researcher's inclination. It was collected in a traditional paper-and-pencil way. Students were guaranteed to participate voluntarily and anonymously. A total of 240 copies of questionnaires were distributed and 236 were returned with a response rate of 98.3%. 5 copies of questionnaires with incomplete information were abandoned. Therefore, there were 231 cases left in the database. Data collection in the second stage was carried out one week later. 60 students were randomly selected from the four classes to participate in the open-ended questionnaire survey on a voluntary and anonymous basis. After checking the 58 questionnaires returned, it was found that 54 participants (90%) gave answers to the episode of enjoyment, and 55 participants (91.7%) to anxiety.

D. Data Analyses

Quantitative data were analyzed with the SPSS statistical software. First, 231 composite questionnaires were coded with the following way: "strongly agree" = 5, "agree" = 4, "neither agree nor disagree" = 3, "disagree" = 2, "strongly disagree" = 1. Among all 19 items, item 4 and 5 which suggest low anxiety were reverse-coded. Therefore, in this study, a higher score indicated a higher level of anxiety or enjoyment. After all the questionnaire data were input into SPSS 19.0, one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were conducted to examine the distribution of data. Results showed that both FLE ($KS = 0.978$, $P = .294$) and FLCA ($KS = 1.211$, $P = .106$) followed the normal distribution. Therefore, this study opted for parametric statistics.

Qualitative data collected from two open-ended questions were entered into Word document. With the help of NVivo 11.0, the data were coded and node statistics were performed. In order to ensure the consistency and effectiveness of the coding, the author and another English teacher with research experience first coded the writing fragments independently. Afterwards the two parties checked the inconsistent codes and discussed them until a consensus was reached.

V. RESULTS

A. Levels of FLE and FLCA

In response to Research Question 1, descriptive analyses and normality tests were conducted with SPSS 19.0. As presented in Table 2, both the mean scores of FLE (36.22) and FLCA (27.16) of the participants were in the middle area of the score segment (33-44, 24-32), indicating that the participants of this study had moderate levels of FLE and FLCA (slightly higher than the critical value). Besides, the mode and median in Table 2 reflected the overall characteristics of the two emotions of the research subjects, while the standard deviation, maximum and minimum were reflections of individual differences.

TABLE II
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSES AND NORMALITY TESTS OF FLE AND FLCA ($N = 231$)

	Possible range	Mean (SE)	SD	Min	Max	Mode	Median	Skewness (SE)	Kurtosis (SE)
FLE	11-55	36.22 (.30)	4.61	21	51	34	36.19	.06 (.16)	.81 (.32)
FLCA	8-40	27.16 (.34)	5.17	11	40	29	28.00	-.25 (.16)	.27 (.32)

After calculation, the average FLE was 3.29 ($SD = .42$) and average FLCA was 3.40 ($SD = .65$). A paired t -test revealed that there was no significant difference between the level of FLE and FLCA ($df = 230$, $t = -1.906$, $p = .058 > .05$).

B. Gender Differences in FLE and FLCA

Independent *t*-tests found that gender difference was not significant in FLE ($df = 229$, $t = -.709$, $p = .479 > .05$) (Females FLE = 3.27, $SD = .37$; Males FLE = 3.31, $SD = .47$), but it was significant in FLCA ($df = 229$, $t = 4.552$, $p = .000 < .001$). Female learners' anxiety in English classes was much higher than that of their male counterparts (Females FLCA = 3.58, $SD = .63$; Males FLCA = 3.21, $SD = .61$).

C. Differences in FLE and FLCA between Intermediate and Low English Proficiency Groups

In order to examine whether there were differences in FLE and FLCA between the intermediate level group (Class A and B) and low level group (Class C and D), independent *t*-tests were performed. The results revealed that there were no significant differences for either FLE or FLCA between intermediate and low English proficiency groups (see Table 3).

TABLE III
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSES AND INDEPENDENT T-TESTS OF FLE AND FLCA

	Group	N	Mean	SD	t	p	df
FLE	Intermediate level	120	3.26	.42	-1.113	.267	229
	Low level	111	3.32	.42			
FLCA	Intermediate level	120	3.44	.63	1.167	.244	229
	Low level	111	3.34	.66			

D. Sources of FLE and FLCA of Learners with Intermediate and Low English Proficiency

Learners' emotional experience in FL classrooms collected through open questions was complex and diverse. After carefully reading and combing the content of the collected writing fragments, the sources of FL learners' FLE and FLCA were mainly classified into three categories: self, teacher and peer. Since many fragments covered multiple topics and contained different types of sources of emotion, repeated coding was used when coding writing fragments. The results of data coding and node statistics of the writing fragments were shown in Table 4 and Table 5.

TABLE IV
STATISTICS OF SOURCES AND FREQUENCIES OF FLE

Category	Self	Teacher	Peer
Sources (frequency)	Excellent classroom performance (4) Making progress (3) Feeling of freshness (3) Successful self-challenge (2) Sense of fun (1) Other (3)	Classroom activities (31) Teacher support and approval (7) Teaching contents (7) Classroom atmosphere created by teacher (7) Teacher skills (5) Teacher personality (2)	Peer interaction (6) Peer support (1)
In total (percentage)	16 (19.5%)	59 (72%)	7 (8.5%)

As shown in Table 4, 54 learners with intermediate and low English proficiency reported a total of 82 writing fragments (including repetitive coding fragments) of FLE. The most mentioned was teacher factors (72%), followed by self factors (19.5%) and peer factors (8.5%).

Teacher-related sources of FLE reported by participants in this study can be classified into 6 categories: classroom activities (e.g., group discussion, role play), teacher support and approval (e.g., praise, reward), teaching contents (e.g., daily topic, anecdote), classroom atmosphere created by teacher (e.g., relaxed, active atmosphere), teacher skills (e.g., teaching method, classroom organization and management) and teacher personality (e.g., humorous, easy-going). Among them, classroom activities were mentioned the most times. According to students' feedback, FL classroom activities in novel and interesting styles can stimulate their interest in learning, enliven classroom atmosphere, and boost enjoyment. Many students described the gains and enjoyable experience brought by a certain classroom activity, for example, as S48¹ experienced:

During an English class, we learned a text about spatial sequence. The teacher asked several students in each group to present the content of the text in pictures on blackboard. Each student had a different understanding and drawing style. The atmosphere in the classroom was very active and my understanding of the text was also deepened." (male, 19 years old)

As for self-factors, students usually feel happy because of their outstanding performance or progress achieved by self-effort, as a male learner (S1, 20 years old) explained: "*I memorized the new words carefully after class. When dictating, I got the highest score in the class, and the teacher said she would add me extra points as a reward.*" Besides, the feelings of freshness can bring FL learners joyful learning experience:

I enjoyed the viewing part of the listening class the most. Although the videos played didn't have subtitles, I can watch many interesting things. What impressed me most is a video clip about a man traveling to an African tribe. What he saw and heard there was very interesting to me. (S36, female, 19 years old)

Peer interaction was mentioned six times as a main category of peer factors evoking enjoyment in FL classroom. Peer

¹ Anonymous survey was adopted in this qualitative study. The letter "S" refers to "student" and the number represents participant's number.

interaction can enhance the relationship between students and make the learning atmosphere more harmonious. One participant described in detail the process and feelings of interacting and communicating with peers:

When dividing study groups in English class, the teacher asked each of us to take a picture out of a box. Then the students having the same picture formed a group. Group members would work out a presentation together. Other groups would ask questions after the presentation. It might be a little embarrassing to meet other students and communicate with each other during this process, but we still felt very enjoyable. (S16, female, 19 years old)

TABLE V
STATISTICS OF SOURCES AND FREQUENCIES OF FLCA

Category	Self	Teacher	Peer
Sources (frequency)	Failed to finish task (14) Speaking without (adequate) preparation (13) Poor English language proficiency (9) Bad classroom performance (9) Examinations or quizzes (6) Fear of failure (5) Speaking in public (3) Other (4)	Teacher questioning (9) Classroom activities (5) Teaching methods (4) Ways of achievement evaluation (4) Teaching contents (1)	Peer nonsupport (2) Peer pressure (2)
In total (percentage)	63 (70%)	23 (25.6%)	4 (4.4%)

Different from the sources of enjoyment, in 90 writing fragments involving anxiety, the most mentioned by respondents was self factors (70%), followed by teacher factors (25.6%) and peer factors (4.4%) (see Table 5). According to feedback from participants, a lot of anxiety in FL classroom was largely due to their own reasons. Among them, anxiety caused by not completing the learning task is the most common. One of the participants remembered the worry and guilt that arose when he forgot to do his homework and encountered the teacher's random check:

Once I forgot to finish my homework, I was very anxious when the teacher carried a random check. I was worried that I would give a bad impression on the teacher and I might get a low grade. I was also afraid of not being able to keep up with the teacher's pace when reviewing the exercises in class. I really felt guilty at that time. (S37, male, 21 years old)

In addition, unprepared or insufficiently prepared speeches were also a main source of anxiety in FL classroom repeatedly mentioned by learners.

Compared with self factors, anxiety caused by teacher factors wasn't mentioned too much by participants. Among the category of teacher factors, teacher questioning was mentioned most frequently. Some students described the feelings of being asked in class and the self-doubt and frustration after answering a question:

I often feel anxious and flustered when English teacher was naming someone to answer questions. Even if I was well prepared, I still felt flustered, nervous and uneasy, especially when looking at the teacher. I remember one time after answering a question in class, I guessed that my performance was not good and I won't get a high score this time. My English is so poor. It must be difficult to pass the final exam. I felt really depressed on thinking of that. (S47, female, 19 years old)

With regard to peer factors, some learners mentioned the anxiety and discouragement caused by peer pressure: *"There was a period of time when everyone was preparing for College English Test in class. Looking at students around me who were working hard on it, I felt quite anxious. I thought I couldn't make it. My English was so poor."* (S30, male, 19 years old)

VI. DISCUSSION

The first research question focused on levels of FLE and FLCA of Chinese EFL learners with intermediate and low English proficiency. Participants reported moderate levels of FLE and FLCA with no significant difference between these two variables. Compared with the findings of Dewaele and MacIntyre's (2014) investigation of 1746 FL learners around the world, the mean level of FLE in the present study ($M = 3.29$) was much lower than that of the international sample ($M = 3.82$), but FLCA ($M = 3.40$) was much higher than the mean FLCA level reported in their study ($M = 2.75$). This further confirms that Asian FL learners have high anxiety and low enjoyment in FL learning (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Besides, the enjoyment level reported in this study was far below the mean FLE level of the Chinese EFL undergraduates ($M = 3.94$) in Jiang and Dewaele (2019), but anxiety level was higher than the domestic sample reported in their study ($M = 3.14$).

The low enjoyment presented by Chinese EFL learners with intermediate and low English proficiency might be attributed to the teaching methods, teaching contents and classroom atmosphere which cannot arouse learners' interests. This suggests that English teachers need to tailor instructional strategies to the needs of different learners for effective teaching. Students with low FL levels need more flexible and interesting ways to stimulate enthusiasm and classroom participation, and eventually increase enjoyment. As for the high anxiety presented by participants in this study, it might be related to the lack of self-discipline, learning autonomy, self-confidence as well as the fear of losing face. In addition,

it might be also largely due to the stressful educational environment in higher education in China. At present, some Chinese colleges and universities still take passing the CET-4 (College English Test Band 4) as one of the conditions for granting degree certificates. Repeated failures and the increase of grade levels may cause a stronger sense of anxiety for intermediate and low English proficiency learners in classroom settings.

The second research question dealt with the gender differences in FLE and FLCA. While no significant gender differences were found in FLE, there were obvious differences in FLCA, with females' anxiety levels much higher than that of males. These results are only partially consistent with previous studies (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau, & Dewaele, 2016; Dewaele, Witney, Saito, & Dewaele, 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019). Some studies mentioned above revealed significant gender differences in both FLE and FLCA, with female respondents experiencing both higher FLE and FLCA than male respondents (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau, & Dewaele, 2016; Dewaele, Witney, Saito, & Dewaele, 2018). It was explained as more emotional involvement in FL learning by female learners, and they would experience more emotional ups and downs than male learners (Dewaele, Witney, Saito, & Dewaele, 2018). On the contrary, Jiang and Dewaele (2019) found no gender differences in FLE and FLCA among Chinese EFL learners. One possible explanation for the inconsistent results is that it might be related to sample size, participants' FL levels, learning environment, cultural background and other FL-related factors. This also suggests that the gender effects on emotions in SLA still merit further exploration.

The third research question examined the differences in FLE and FLCA between intermediate and low English proficiency groups. Independent *t*-tests revealed that there were no significant differences for either FLE or FLCA between these two groups. This is partly consistent with the results of Dewaele, Witney, Saito, and Dewaele's study (2018) on learners' FLE and FLCA where low intermediate and intermediate learners were only found to have significant differences in FLE. This further confirms that the trend of an increase in enjoyment and decrease in anxiety is more likely to occur on learners above intermediate level (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014).

The final research question focused on the sources of FLE and FLCA for Chinese EFL learners with intermediate and low English proficiency. The results of qualitative data analysis showed that there were obvious differences in the factors that affect learners' FLE and FLCA. In the current study, while teacher factors were the main source of enjoyment in FL classroom, it accounted for only a quarter of the anxiety experiences reported by participants. Consistent with existing research results (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019; Jiang, 2020), classroom activities were found to be the most frequently mentioned source of enjoyment for FL learners. The findings also confirm that enjoyment is a positive emotion that can be easily provoked in teaching activities or tasks (Pekrun, 2006). It indicates that when FL learners participate in classroom activities that are interesting and controllable, their positive emotions are more likely to be aroused. In contrast, participants' reports revealed that most FLCA was caused by self factors. Failing to complete learning tasks or speaking without (adequate) preparation in class will greatly trigger the anxiety and panic of intermediate and low proficiency learners. The above findings of this study also corroborate the view that FLE is more related to teacher factors, while FLCA is more related to learners' self factors (Dewaele, Witney, Saito, & Dewaele, 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019).

The present study was not without some limitations. First, the research sample was only from one Chinese university, which was limited in size and diversity. Hence, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to all intermediate and low proficiency Chinese EFL learners. Further research could expand the number and coverage of participants, gathering data from different regions or different levels of universities in China. Second, only self-report was used to collect participants' enjoyment and anxiety episodes. Future studies can combine it with other instruments such as classroom observations or in-depth interview so that the sources of FLE and FLCA can be explored more broadly.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study has investigated the FLE and FLCA of intermediate and low proficiency Chinese EFL undergraduates. In general, moderate levels of FLE and FLCA were found among participants. However, the level of FLE reported in this study was much lower than the overall international and domestic samples, while the level of FLCA was the opposite. This further confirms that FL learners in Asia have high anxiety and low enjoyment in learning. No significant gender difference was found in FLE, but female learners reported much more FLCA than their male peers. Moreover, there were no significant differences in the levels of FLE and FLCA among intermediate and low proficiency group. Finally, qualitative data analysis revealed that respondents' FLE was related to teacher factors to a large extent, while FLCA was more related to self factors.

The findings of the current study have some pedagogical implications for EFL teaching and research in China. First, given to the important role of emotion in SLA, the low enjoyment and high anxiety presented by intermediate and low proficiency Chinese EFL learners deserves the attention and alertness from FL practitioner and scholars. Intervention strategies should be explored to improve the current situation. Second, although teacher factors are not the main source of students' anxiety in class, FL teachers should keep developing the self-control ability and learning habits of students with poor academic performance, give them adequate time to prepare for answers and create a friendly, enjoyable classroom environment. Thus it would be helpful for controlling learners' negative emotions in FL class and eventually achieving a balance between anxiety and enjoyment. Finally, schools are suggested to combine academic goals with happiness goals and promote Positive Education, enhancing students' positive emotional experience, and ultimately

achieving the goal of improving learners' happiness, well-being as well as teaching effectiveness.

APPENDIX CLASSROOM EMOTION QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Item	Chinese	English
1	即使已经为英语课做好充分的准备,我还会感到焦虑。	Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.
2	我总觉得其他同学的英语说得比我好。	I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
3	英语课上老师点到我的名字让我回答问题时,我会感觉到紧张。	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.
4	英语课上我不担心犯错误。	I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.
5	英语课上,我讲英语时感到自信。	I feel confident when I speak English in English class.
6	当我在英语课上讲英语时我感到紧张和困惑。	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
7	英语课上,在没有准备而又不得不发言的情况下,我开始恐慌。	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.
8	英语课上,主动回答问题让我觉得尴尬。	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.
9	我不厌倦英语学习。	I don't get bored.
10	我享受英语学习。	I enjoy it.
11	学英语的过程中,我学了很多有趣的事情。	I've learnt interesting things.
12	在班里,我为自己的英语成绩感到自豪。	In class, I feel proud of my accomplishments.
13	周围英语学习的氛围很积极。	It's a positive environment.
14	学英语很有趣。	It's fun.
15	老师总是鼓励我们。	The teacher is encouraging.
16	老师很友善。	The teacher is friendly.
17	老师总是支持我们。	The teacher is supportive.
18	我身边有很好的英语学习氛围。	There is a good atmosphere.
19	我们有紧密的学习小组。	We form a tight group.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was supported by the 2021 Young Scholars Cultivation Project of Hainan University (Grant No. 21XS GG7). The author would also like to thank all the participants for their collaboration in this study.

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EFL Learners' Pedagogical Views on the Online Social Networks in EFL Classrooms

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Abstract—This present study aims to explore EFL learners' pedagogical views towards the utilization of online social networks in EFL classrooms. It specifically elaborates the EFL learners' preferences of online social networks for learning English. Moreover, the EFL learners' English skills enhanced by utilizing online social networks were also investigated. Ten EFL learners participated in the qualitative study which employed observations and interviews in collecting qualitative data. The results show that the learners' preferences include Facebook, blogs, WhatsApp, Twitter, podcasts and Instagram. The learners' English skills improved include listening, writing, reading, and speaking. In conclusion, online social networks are not only designed for general communication among EFL learners, but also for engaging EFL learners to work collaboratively in learning English via online environments.

Index Terms—EFL classrooms, EFL learners, online social networks, pedagogical views

I. INTRODUCTION

Online social networks (OSN) such as Facebook, Wikipedia, WhatsApp, Blog, Twitter, Podcasts or Youtube have been widely used as easy, cheap, and fast communication tools for both written and oral communication in English (Chakowa, 2018; Habibi et al., 2019; Mukminin et al., 2019). Due to the advantages, OSN not only become the main topic of a talk (Silius et al, 2010), but also begins to be more popular among EFL learners who utilize OSN as simple, advanced tools for communicating in English lessons. In educational context, OSN have been accepted as well-known tools which are advantageous for English learning (Fewkes& McCabe, 2012; Fischer, 2013; Mukminin et al., 2020). OSN which consist of many kinds of interesting platforms give several benefits for both EFL teachers and learners during teaching and learning process. The teachers and learners obtain various materials from different resources, discuss learning materials, and allow learners to work with the teacher and other learners in the EFL classroom (Mudra, 2018; Smith, 2006; Prasojo et al., 2018; Prasojo et al., 2019).

Advancement of online technology helps to encourage the development of online applications and websites such as OSN which promote EFL learners' autonomous learning in terms of multimodal literacies (Pegrum, 2009). Moreover, it is important for EFL teachers and learners to work with different kinds of OSN during the English lesson as it helps to improve English learning (Cifuentes & Lents, 2011), encourages learners to increase motivation (Sweeny, 2010; Mukminin et al., 2020), and allows both learners and teachers to discuss what they are going to do in the EFL classroom

(Cifuentes & Lents, 2011). Such different kinds of OSN are designed for different functions and the EFL teachers are expected to select a tool that meets the learning objectives (Calvo, Arbiol & Iglesias, 2014). Little research has been conducted in terms of pedagogical views of OSN in the EFL classroom. This current study was undertaken to shed light upon the importance of social networks in enhancing EFL learners' English skills. Therefore, it is a need to formulate several guided questions as the focus of the current study, as follows: 1) What kind of OSN do the EFL learners prefer in learning English? And 2) What learners' English skills are improved by employing OSN in the EFL classroom?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Online Social Networks and English Language Teaching*

There is a widespread use of OSN in communicating information and messages. This trend has moved forward as the EFL teachers and learners increase their awareness to improve English skills via OSN. OSN are designed based on the need of easy and fast communication for peer users or community. OSN, which are also called social networking sites, are defined as "web-based sites that provide services which enable people to do three things: "(a) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (b) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (c) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system" (Boyd & Ellison, 2007, p. 211). Interconnected systems designed in OSN ensure that EFL teachers and learners obtain more experiences to communicate in English and improve English skills simultaneously. They also create both public group which are open for many people and private group which are limited on particular teachers or learners.

Online learning environment allows teachers and learners to actively participate in learning community or group and build learning behaviors as they perform in offline learning environment (LeNoue, Hall, & Eighmy, 2011). Likewise, the use of OSN for learning English skills is determined by five standards of OSN, namely communication, collaboration, community, creativity, and convergence (Friedman & Friedman, 2008). Communicating knowledge is employed by collaborating with other teachers or learners. Collaborative English learning develops positive results of learning as it helps to accommodate learning styles (Chen, Jones, & Xu, 2018). Particular group of community should be created via OSN and each member is allowed to take a part in it. Creativity is important in communicating information and messages among teachers and learners as group members. This is to achieve similar goals for improving learners' English skills. In short, social networks encourage EFL teachers and learners to work in group and share and discuss information online that reflect the goal in education (Robinson, 2008; Leach, 2013).

B. *Online Social Networks in EFL Classrooms*

In the EFL classroom, various types of OSN are paramount to be utilized as the tools for learning English. Each type of OSN is proposed to help EFL learners to join in online conversations or tasks, give their ideas or thoughts toward the messages or texts, watch videos, listen to audio files, and be engaged in online peer or group discussion (Chotipaktanasook, 2016). The following types of OSN are popular and appropriate for teaching and learning English online. OSN, which include online social networking sites (e.g Facebook), photo sharing (e.g Flickr, Instagram), recording audios and videos (e.g podcasts), blogs (e.g blogspot, wordpress), and microblogs (e.g WhatsApp, Twitter), are designed for enhancing EFL learners' English skills (Forlano, 2009; Blattner & Fiori, 2009; Lomika & Lord, 2009; Stevenson & Liu, 2010; Mills, 2011; Brick, 2011; Meskill & Quah, 2012; Grahl, 2013; Lamy & Zourou, 2013).

C. *Social Networking Sites (SNSs)*

EFL learners are now offered with most widely used OSN. Social Networking Sites (SNSs) are mostly used in communicating messages or information. For EFL learners, Facebook has become the most popular network for learning English through online group discussion. Facebook as one of the SNSs application is another better option for EFL learners who expect a more organized system of communicating knowledge. It is because Facebook indulges EFL learners to work collaboratively and actively, and it is 'even more robust ways to create, connect, and collaborate around teaching and learning in the classroom' (Morin, 2007).

The reason why Facebook is widely used in EFL classrooms is because it has been well-known by many teachers and learners and it provides learners with fast online communication for learning and teaching (Castells, 2007; Calvi, Cassella, & Nuijten, 2010). Likewise, Selwyn (2009) states that the use of Facebook as popular OSN for learners is because it offers simple platform system and it serves learners with safety and user-friendliness. In learning environment, Facebook improves EFL learners' skill in writing by allowing the learners to have ideas brainstorming and participate in positive discussion (Yunus & Salehi, 2012). Another way of learning English through Facebook is that the EFL learners join online discussion forum via Facebook group and ask other learners to view task description and online discussion which provide fast track of communicating knowledge (Kosik, 2007). As for EFL teachers, Facebook application is used to share information about class assignment, homework, and course materials which can be easily accessed by the EFL learners online (Nicole, 2007).

D. *Microblogs*

One of the most important learning networks in term of microblogs is WhatsApp application. This OSN enables EFL teachers and learners to send a message or text related to EFL courses. They can also create a particular group which

allows each member to interact with each other. In WhatsApp EFL learners are able to work with short messages which enable them to come up with precise ideas. Besides, the learners can also send, comment, and discuss every text, recorded files, and other attachments. It is important to note that WhatsApp also enables the learners to have an online discussion forum via this online environment. This is, of course, a particular objective of online learning (Dehghan, Rezvani, & Fazeli, 2017).

WhatsApp as a type of OSN has become a widely used online application in the EFL classroom. The reason is because WhatsApp allows EFL teachers or learners to send or receive short texts easily. It does not take a long time for EFL learners to communicate messages or information via such online application as long as signal remains stabilized. Each learner can also enhance both English skills and social learning behaviors (Church & de Oliveira, 2013). In this case, the learners not only learn how to be fluent English learners, but also how to use polite, appropriate, and qualified utterances or messages. Moreover, EFL learners who utilize WhatsApp as online learning application are able to develop their motivation to learn English collaboratively and to enhance online learning behaviors as they manifest the application as a daily communication tool (Bere, 2013; Rambe & Chipunza, 2013).

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this current study were ten EFL learners in a public school in Indonesia. They were attending English courses in semester two. The reason for selecting the participants is because they were fresh EFL learners who began learning English in an undergraduate program and working with other learners collaboratively. Purposive sampling technique allowed the selection to be more accurate and considerable. They were also selected based on previous observation and pre-research which showed that they were legible to participate in the qualitative study. More importantly, the participants were actively engaged in online networks and by this reason they were considered to have more experiences in utilizing social networks as online tools for communication.

B. Data Collection and Instruments

To collect qualitative data, both participants and non-participants observations and semi-structured interviews were administered intensively. Both techniques in collecting the data were undertaken respectively. First, participant observation enabled the researchers to join an English club group created by EFL teachers and learners. In this case, passive interaction with the learners and paying attention towards the learners' online discussion were focused. Another technique was by analyzing how the learners work with each other toward assignment, explanation, information, or other messages sent by either teachers or other learners. This technique was done by asking for permission from the learners to read and analyze their created group. The group consisted of Facebook and WhatsApp group community learning.

Another important technique for collecting the qualitative data was by interviewing each learner regarding their experiences in utilizing OSN, preferences for using particular types of OSN, and impact of OSN on their English skills. These semi-structured interviews were employed after observing the learners' online activities. One-by-one learners as participants were interviewed and asked to describe what they truly knew about learning via online environments and why they tended to keep doing such online learning.

C. Data Analysis

To analyze the data, several steps were accomplished. First, the data obtained from the observations and interviews were coded and this helped to accurately select the data among the raw data. Second, the data were categorized in terms of focused and saturated data. Third, the data were configured by undertaking data triangulation. The data were checked based on its field certainty, completeness, and qualitative quality. Fourth, the data were interpreted by connecting each finding with related, suitable references. In short, the data were coded, reduced, displayed, verified, and reflected (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2002; Mukminin, & McMahon, 2013; Mukminin, 2019).

IV. FINDINGS

In this subpart, the results of the present study were categorized based on emerging topics from the interviews. The results show that there were preferences of OSN. Moreover, the results also present learners' experiences in enhancing their English skills during the utilization of preferred OSN.

A. EFL Learners' Preferences towards Online Social Networks

The following results of interviews show EFL learners' preferences include Facebook, WhatsApp, blogs, podcasts, Twitter, Instagram.

1. Facebook

Facebook is one of the preferences of OSN as viewed by EFL learners in learning English. L1, for example, utilized Facebook to write in English. His main goal was to join giving English comment to his teacher's wall. L1 states:

I like Facebook. It helps me a lot. My English teacher writes a status update. I comment on her wall. Wow, really good for me English. (L1)

Different from previous learner, L6 preferred Facebook to interact with many people from various countries such as from native countries.

Of course, I prefer Facebook and always Facebook. Why? Because it gives learning experiences for me. I can learn many things from many people. I have some friends from other countries as well. (L6)

As stated by L6, interacting with other people whose language is the target language of the EFL learners helps to extend learning experiences. Facebook as one of the types of OSN allows the EFL learners to chat with native English speakers.

2. WhatsApp

The strength of WhatsApp has gone through its ease and access. L2 believes that learning English via WhatsApp is interesting. L2 comments:

WhatsApp is open everytime in my smartphone. It is easy for everyone to use it. We can chat in English, talk about tasks and homework from lecturers easily. It is not expensive and it is fast. (L2)

L2 mentions the benefits of WhatsApp for EFL learners. Each EFL learner who was registered can discuss in English collaboratively. Its effectiveness helps learners to share English lessons via online environment.

If I am asked to choose, yes, I choose WhatsApp application to learn English. I and my friends usually make a group and learn English there. We share many materials of English in there. What I know is WhatsApp goes faster than another application. (L10)

L10 is no exception. She created a group which allows every member to use English when they are in. L10 believed that learning English via WhatsApp enables each learner to upload and download materials for their English learning.

3. Blogs

Blog as a type of OSN is useful for keeping files safely and keeping written thoughts. L4 has more experiences in a blog. Better EFL learners indulge themselves to English world. English is regarded as proper tool for learning.

The answer is my blog and long time ago I made my blog. My blog is fun. I put everything about English in my blog. I even write and post everything about English. What I want there. (L4)

However, L5 has another focus when working with blogs. For him, blog helps EFL learners to utilize free, proper tool for learning. Self writing in a blog is important for EFL learners.

Blog, blogging, blogger. I am a blogger. Using blog is cheap, free, no payment. I express myself. I share my mind in my blog wall. It lasts for longer time. (L5)

4. Podcasts

Several EFL learners are aware of authentic materials for their English learning. L7, for example, preferred listening to natural speeches by native speakers such as president speech. American accent directed the EFL learner to listen to American voice only. This does not look harmful.

Hmmm..... I prefer recording files from the internet. I like listening to Obama's speech. I think his speech is clear voice. I do not like listening to western songs. I think the song is not worthy for me. I like listening to American sound recording. Their voices are really good to hear. (L7)

5. Twitter

One of the participants, L3, preferred to use Twitter as online learning tool for learning English. Learning is successful when simple-designed online tool is utilized by other members of Twitter application. L3 states:

I never stop loving Twitter. Twitter, we know, Twitter is simple and design is simple. I just find it easy and simple to discuss English topics via twitter. (L3)

6. Instagram

It is not easy to redefine the use of Instagram in EFL classroom. Fortunately, Instagram as one of OSN tools can be used by posting a picture. Some learners, then, are asked to give some comments towards the achievement. L8 admits:

Do not you think Instagram is interesting with colorful design? I think so. We can post our English picture to be discussed with our friends. We can see English pictures from many countries. Just use it for learning. (L8)

The EFL teacher can also post some pictures and ask EFL learners to write a comment or retell a story based on the picture.

Many English drawing pictures in Instagram. So, it is not a problem to use Instagram to learn English. I myself know my language, but I comment to the picture in Instagram. I use my English. Sometimes, people from other countries talk to me after comment their pictures. (L9)

B. Enhanced Learners' English Skills

The following results of interviews show English learners' skills improved via online social networks. It includes listening, writing, reading, and speaking.

1. Listening

Listening as one of complicated skills faced by EFL learners is important to be enhanced via online learning environments. L5 improved listening skills by watching videos via Youtube. The videos let the EFL learners to figure out some paralinguistic features. One of the strategies to get knowledgeable with listening is by synthesizing language and context in the video.

My English listening is improving. I success to improve it. How to do it is by watching many videos like videos from Youtube. Many videos are good for listening. In Youtube, I watch expressions and actions and I listen to its language. I can listen better because I combine watching and listening. (L5)

There are many features that can be learnt via podcasts. L7 argued that podcasts were valuable to be a good listener in English. It is because podcasts contain authentic language which is used by native English speakers in their everyday life. These authentic materials are paramount for EFL learners who are supposed to be active listeners like L7.

Again, podcasts are my popular files to learn English. I love listening to music, speech, story. When I listen to recording of podcasts, I learn much. I learn many things. We know that language used in podcasts is natural and native. It makes me confident to listen to podcasts. (L7)

2. Writing

Learning English via social networks such as WhatsApp has positive impacts on EFL learners' writing skill. L2 believed that writing was challenging when it is integrated with OSN such as WhatsApp. Writing a text to be read by other learners is also challenging. The learner has to write correct grammar and proper dictions if the texts are expected to be understood. L2 faced an ambiguous situation. Shortening a word might be simple, but reduce quality of correct grammatical sentences.

First, I never like writing. Fortunately, WhatsApp brings me to a new world of writing. Writing a message, writing information, writing materials in WhatsApp are challenging for me. Many models of writing are found in writing in WhatsApp. I shorten some words like "and" becomes "n", "because" becomes "bcs". I do not know it is wrong or correct. I just try the best for grammar. I type many sentences faster in WhatsApp. (L2)

Unlike previous learner, L3 who preferred to write in Twitter has pedagogical experiences in learning English via online application. Twitter was used by EFL teacher in writing a sentence. The sentence or statement should be responded with a comment which was also in English. Such strategy motivates learners to think about grammatical sentence and proper vocabulary before posting a comment to teacher's statement.

I get experiences to write something in Twitter or to give comment to my teacher and classmates. Twitter wants me as EFL learners to write better. I always try to write in English in Twitter. But, I look up dictionary online before I post my writing. Some classmates and teachers and other people comment for me. I always try to use good grammar, because I believe it is not easy for others to understand my writing with bad grammar. Then, I always respond in good English with good grammar because I want to train my English. (L3)

The use of Facebook as an online network in learning English has enhanced EFL learners' writing skill. The learners are motivated to share knowledge via Facebook. This allows them to write faster, but the writing follows the rules.

I have used Facebook for long time. I am not shy to write in English. My classmates and I make a group in Facebook. We share materials for English lessons from our teacher. We talk about homework. Those who work with difficult question can teach us. Really simple, but give more motivation for me. I give comments to classmates who post something. The point is writing in Facebook is simple to do. Nobody forces us as learners to learn English. (L6)

L9 tended to write by referring abstract ideas to physical pictures. Writing an abstract idea can be difficult for some EFL learners. Fortunately, Instagram helps the learners to work with both picture and its caption.

I like writing in Instagram wall. In the wall, there is always pictures that use English language. My teacher asks us to work in pair and we are asked to give comment to a picture. Besides, we are also asked to post a picture, and other groups must write a comment for our picture. This activity is fun and enjoyable. That is why writing is not too difficult for me to do. (L9)

3. Reading

L1 liked reading various texts via OSN such as Facebook. The texts were mostly authentic and the learner was motivated to learn real usage of English as used by native English speakers.

Facebook provides features to upload reading files. I tend to upload many reading texts in my Facebook wall. I want to help other EFL learners who need the materials. I also read the materials when I have much time. I also like to read reading texts in Facebook. I can easily find links to online newspapers, advertisements, announcements, and many more I can find in my Facebook wall. Well, I like reading online news. It has good grammar to learn. I can learn grammar from every reading text I surfed. It is update via my Facebook wall. (L1)

WhatsApp is useful in sharing reading files such as novels and short stories. L10 obtained advantages from WhatsApp application in increasing reading skill.

My hobby is reading English novels and shorts stories also in English. I have many classmates and other friends from other campuses who have same hobby. We always talk about English novels and short stories in

our online WhatsApp group. I enjoy talking about that. We share novels and short stories each other. We read the novels or short stories. We discuss the reading files. (L10)

4. Speaking

L4 believed that blog gave a positive experience for enhancing oral skills. This social network is also beneficial for keeping video and audio files for speaking skill.

About my speaking, I am honest that my spoken ability is developing from days to days. I watch videos and listen to audios I uploaded in my blogs. One day, I have a task from my teacher to retell a story. Because I always practice it in my blog, I did it pretty well. I ensure that I apply grammatical rules in my utterances. My blogs also provide many links to conversation examples made by educators from native countries. I learn speaking from the link and its websites. (L4)

Speaking skill can be enhanced via Instagram. Shortened English videos in Instagram allow learners to give some comments which can increase their oral skill.

I and my classmates have some groups in Instagram. We have many shortened videos there in the groups. Once a week, we learn how to speak well via the group. The videos are interesting. We watched the videos. We give our opinions. Our teacher even motivates to watch short videos in Instagram and retell the video story in front of the class (L8)

V. DISCUSSION

This present study focuses on two objectives, namely EFL learners' preferences towards OSN and English skills enhanced via OSN. As for the findings, it is noted that EFL learners prefer various online application for learning English. They include Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter, Instagram, blog, and podcasts. Each type of OSN gives positive impacts on EFL learners' English skills. These online networks are proper tools for developing skills in listening, writing, reading, and speaking. Facebook as the most widely used online application is an appropriate tool for EFL learners to enhance their writing skill. The EFL learners become motivated to write in English as they are free to share their ideas. This is in line with a study by White (2009) who found that Facebook improves EFL learners' writing skill and increases their motivation to write in English. Moreover, Facebook enables EFL learners to be indulged in learning English and to be able to adapt themselves in learning situation (Roblyer, 2010). This study also reveals that Facebook helps EFL learners to keep writing a sentence with correct grammatical rules. The EFL learners are aware of each grammatical element such as parts of speech, formula, diction, and sentence structure. In the same vein, Blattner and Lomicka (2012) state that discussion forum in Facebook gives EFL learners some clear description on how to write with high-quality grammatical rules. Moreover, learners can develop their socio-pragmatic competence which is useful for their writing styles. In short, Facebook is valuable for developing pedagogical process and motivation of learning English in the EFL classroom by sharing ideas and describing what has already been known (Ulf, 2010; Kabilan, Ahmad, & Abidin, 2010).

A type of OSN which enhances learners' reading skill is WhatsApp. The EFL learners become motivated to read a text via WhatsApp since the online application is fast, cheap, but smart. In line with that, the finding of Plana et al (2013) proved that WhatsApp as OSN gives much motivation for learners to read various texts in English. The use of Facebook is advantageous for enhancing learners' reading skills. To get successful in reading, the EFL learners are expected to be active to work with peers or groups and share information via online application. This is supported by a study of Blattner and Fiori (2009) who believed that Facebook increases EFL learners reading skill through collaborative work, peer discussion, knowledge integration, and group discussion forum. Moreover, online discussion forum enhances EFL learners' collaborative work which results in mutual understanding towards English skills (Chadha, 2017).

This current study also shows that learners' oral skills can be enhanced via blog as a communicative tool for learning how to speak. The EFL learners are motivated to create a blog, save videos and audios, and interconnect several links to other websites that enable them to increase their oral skills. Such finding is in harmony with a study by George and Dellasega (2011) who proved that blogging is communicative in nature. It serves as one of the online networks for teaching and learning oral English skills. The EFL learners act as active users who develop oral skills through sharing information or describing past experiences with classmates. However, a result of Campbell's (2007) study warned that online discussion community might divide EFL learners into those who have better spoken ability and those whose oral skills are lower. Above all, social networks have better impacts on pedagogical process in learning English skills including writing, grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, and oral skills. Learners' motivation to write, listen, talk, and read is developed as they are engaged in online learning environment. The social networks can also develop English competence and enable EFL learner to be engaged in practical application for learning English (Dieu, 2004; Lee, 2010; Wu & Wu, 2011). As for accessibility, the use of smartphones has shed light upon the importance of OSN in improving EFL learners' English skills (Alkhezzi, 2016; Mudra, 2018).

VI. CONCLUSION

To sum up, social networks which are administered as online applications are designed not only for the purpose of daily communication, but also serve as a pedagogical tool in the EFL classrooms. As proper online tools for learning English, each type of social networks contains advantages and disadvantages. The EFL learners are expected to select OSN they consider to be appropriate for their English learning enhancement. This means that no social networks have more strength and, otherwise, no social networks have more weaknesses. The social networks act as tools for learning English. The online networks do not work by themselves or do not create contents automatically. EFL teachers are expected to guide EFL learners before utilizing any kind of OSN. In this case, the teachers' strategies are highly needed to promote interactive and communicative classrooms. Such strategies enhance the learners' motivation to learn English and they become autonomous learners (Jacobi, 2018). Positive learning situation is always contributed by active collaboration between teachers and learners. On the other hand, advanced technology is managed, planned, developed, and reflected by the teachers who consider learners' English skill improvement.

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Hedging in the Results and Discussion Section of English Applied Linguistics Research Articles by Vietnamese and Foreign Writers

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Abstract—Hedging in academic writing in general and in research article (RA) in specific has a vital role in enabling writers to minimize their opposing claims and negotiate the meaning. Nevertheless, hedging can be different from one discipline to another and from culture to another. This study, therefore, aims at examining the deployment of hedges in the Results and Discussion (R-D) section of English Applied Linguistics (AL) RAs by Vietnamese writers and their foreign counterparts. Two corpora consisting of 30 RAs written by Vietnamese writers and the other 30 ones by foreign writers were collected. The results revealed that both Vietnamese and foreign writers deployed hedges in the R-D section of English AL RAs at a similar frequency. Moreover, they shared common senses of utilizing the hedges' types and functions in the R-D section of English AL RAs. This study has confirmed that the norms and practices of the AL, a soft science, were common among non-native English writers regardless of their culture-bound.

Index Terms—applied linguistics, Hedge, non-native English writer, results and discussion, soft science

I. INTRODUCTION

Hedges have been deemed as important devices that help writers to show their viewpoints in academic writing in general and in research articles (RAs) in specific. When writers employ hedges in their writing, they can integrate their assertions and argumentation through their writing (Hyland, 1998). Moreover, hedges can help researchers to defend their viewpoints and still help them use the probability and certainty to their claims (e.g., Lakoff, 1972; Hyland, 2000, 2005).

Within the academic research, the presentation of the content of RAs varies from one discipline or discourse community to another to suit the depiction of the subject matter and the audience basing on in accordance with the conformed methods and ideology (Bazeman, 1988). Regarding the field of English Applied Linguistics (AL), RAs usually consist of five main components, namely introduction, literature review, methodology, results and discussion (R-D) and conclusion. Among these components, the R-D section in RAs is considered one of the most pivotal parts as it is the place where writers can “highlight findings and situate them in a context of a wider body of knowledge by relating the results to the work of others” (Hyland, 1998, p. 33). Additionally, it is the R-D section where writers can claim how the findings can contribute to the body to literature (Basturkmen, 2012), and where writers tend to employ hedges the most (Salager-Meyer, 1994).

Within the context of Vietnam, English is used as a foreign language, which can cause Vietnamese writers difficulties in deploying appropriate hedges in their RAs. Therefore, Vietnamese writers may use hedges in their RAs differently from native English ones. What is more, it is noticed that prior studies have failed to scrutinize the hedges' use and functions in the R-D section of the English AL RAs by Vietnamese writers although many studies analyzing the utilization of hedges in RAs have been found. Given the aforementioned reasons, this study attempts to scrutinize the deployment of hedges in the R-D section of English AL RAs by Vietnamese writers and their foreign counterparts. The questions to be addressed are formed as follows:

1. How are hedges deployed in the R-D section of English AL RAs by Vietnamese writers and their foreign counterparts?
2. How do hedges function in the R-D section of English AL RAs by Vietnamese writers and their foreign counterparts?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

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The term hedge has been variously defined. Lakoff (1972) defines hedges as “words whose meanings involved fuzziness –words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy” (p. 471). Fuzziness can enable writers or speakers to avoid losing face in confusing situations (e.g., Salager-Meyer, 1994; Tran & Duong, 2013), and it can provide readers or listeners with the chances for different interpretations (Crompton, 1997). In the similar vein, Hyland (1998) states that hedges are “the means by which writers can present a proposition as an opinion rather than a fact: items are only hedges in their epistemic sense, and only when they mark uncertainty” (p. 5). Sharing the same view, Yagiz and Demir (2014) delineate hedges as a type of tentative language to obtain from any certainty or to mitigate the claims or propositions avoiding negative criticism from readers or research partners.

Many researchers (e.g., Salager-Meyer, 1994; Hyland, 1998a, 2000; Varttala, 2001; Hinkel, 2005) have proposed different categories of hedges. Significantly, Salager-Meyer’s (1994) classification of hedges includes seven categories (1-Modal auxiliary verbs; 2-Modal lexical verbs; 3-Adjectival, nominal, and adverbial modal phrases; 4-Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency, and time; 5-Introductory phrases; 6-If clauses; 7-Compound hedges). Meanwhile, Varttala (2001) has classified hedges in eight categories (1-Modal auxiliary verbs; 2-Full verbs; 3-Adverbs; 4-Adjectives; 5-Nouns; 6-Clausal elements; 7-Questions; 8-Others. Differently, Farrokhi and Emami (2008) compiled five types of hedges (1-modal verbs; 2-lexical verbs; 3-adverbs; 4- adjectives; 5-nouns).

As hedges have various types, they have different functions. Salager-Meyer (1994) classified the functions of hedges as Shields (e.g., *to appear, can, could*), Approximators of degree, time and frequency (e.g., *approximately, generally, usually*), Authors’ personal doubt and direct involvement (e.g., *I believe, to our knowledge*), Emotionally- charged intensifiers (e.g., *extremely difficult/interesting, of particular importance*), and Compound hedges (e.g., *it could be suggested, it would seem likely*). In another aspect, Hyland (1998a) has created a clear model of hedges called the poly-pragmatic model by dividing hedges into two main functions: *content-oriented* including two sub-functions: *accuracy-oriented* (Attributes hedges & Reliability hedges) and *writer-oriented* and *reader-oriented*.

For the purposes of this study, hedges can be seen as lexical devices used to signal the writers’ lack of confidence and mitigate their certainty about or reduce their commitment to a proposition. Based on Salager-Meyer’s (1994), Varttala’s (2001) and Farrokhi and Emami’s (2008) classification of hedges, hedges can be classified in Modal auxiliaries, Epistemic lexical verbs, Epistemic adjectives, Epistemic adverbs, Nouns, and Others (e.g., phrases, if clauses). Hyland’s (1998a) taxonomy in function is used in this study, encompassing *content-oriented* with two sub-functions: *accuracy-oriented* (Attributes hedges & Reliability hedges) and *writer-oriented*, and *reader-oriented*. *Accuracy-oriented hedges* are used to present information, points of view as precisely, fully and objectively as possible; *writer-oriented hedges* to shield themselves from the oppositions by limiting the personal commitments; and *reader-oriented hedges* are to create good relationships and facilitate the effective communication between writers and readers.

Several studies (e.g., Farrokhi & Emami, 2008; Nasiri, 2012; Tran & Duong, 2013; Nguyen, 2018) have been carried out to seek for the differences in native English and non - native English writers’ use of hedges in academic writing. Hyland (2008) conducted a study of a corpus consisting of 240 RAs from eight disciplines. The results showed that the number of hedges and boosters in the soft fields appears more than that in the hard fields. Among eight disciplines, writers in AL used hedges and boosters most. Farrokhi and Emami (2008) analyzed the utilization of hedges and boosters in four main sections (Abstract, Introduction, Discussion, & Conclusion) of 10 Electrical Engineering and 10 AL RAs by native and non-native English writers. The results indicated that native English writers used hedges and boosters differently from their non-native English counterparts. Nasiri (2012) did a study on the frequency of hedges used in the field of Civil Engineering between Americans and Iranians. The study focused on two chapters Introduction and Discussion in 20 RAs, and the findings showed that both American and Iranian writers used hedges in RAs similarly. Tran and Duong (2013) analyzed the use of hedges in the R-D section of 30 RAs in English AL and Chemical Engineering. They found out that writers in the field of English AL used hedges more frequently than those in Chemical Engineering. Nguyen and Nguyen (2015) conducted a study of American and Vietnamese celebrities’ hedges in responses to questions in interviews. They collected data from 96 online interviews from American and Vietnamese celebrities. The researchers found that out of five categories under investigation, quality hedges were most frequently used with a rather high rate. Nguyen (2018) analyzed Vietnamese writers and native English writers’ use of hedges in RAs. Two corpora from 50 RAs in AL written by Vietnamese writers and 50 RAs written by native English writers were designed. The findings revealed that the frequency of occurrence of hedges in RAs written by Vietnamese writers was relatively lower than that of native English writers because of the divergence of culturally different backgrounds. In brief, many studies on hedges in different disciplines have been found. However, the studies on the use of hedges in English AL RAs between Vietnamese writers and non-native English ones are still rare. Regarding the context of Vietnam, it is assumed that Vietnamese writers with their own characteristics and culture-bound may write English AL RAs differently from other writers. This study, therefore, attempts to analyze Vietnamese writers and their foreign counterparts’ deployment of hedges in the R-D section of English AL RAs.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Materials

There were two corpora: One corpus consisting of 30 R-D sections (total words: 62,545) of English AL RAs written by Vietnamese writers, and one corpus with 30 R-D sections (total words: 57,300) of English AL RAs written by foreign writers who were non-native English speakers. All selected 60 RAs were published from 2012 to 2020. The articles were selected from journals in AL or related to linguistics.

B. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

To collect data, all the materials for this study were selected according to the following criteria: (1) The RAs must be published from 2012 to 2020; (2) The R-D section must be extracted from English AL RAs; (3) The R-D section of each article must have the length between 1,500 words and 2,500 words. As for data analysis, lists of hedges and their functions adapted from Hyland (1998), Salager-Meyer (1997), Varttala (2001), and Farrokhi and Emami (2008) were used. The software AntConc version 3.5.8, was used to identify hedges. All the RAs were coded as FW1, FW2 to FW30 for RAs written by foreigners and VW1, VW2 to VW30 for RAs written by Vietnamese. To assure the validity and reliability of the data analysis, inter-rating was employed. Two other researchers in the field of English AL were invited for re-analyzing five randomly chosen pieces of data. The accepted convergent results were set at 95%.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

1. The Deployment of Hedges in the R-D Section of English AL RAs Written by Vietnamese and Foreign Writers

As seen in Table 1, the frequency of hedges in the R-D section of English AL RAs was 1,452 out of 62,545 words (accounting for 2.32% per 1,000 words) for Vietnamese writers and 1374 out of 57,300 words (making up 2.40% per 1,000 words) for foreign ones. This means that both Vietnamese and foreign writers used hedges in the R-D section of English AL RAs at a similar frequency.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY OF HEDGES IN THE R-D SECTION OF ENGLISH AL RAS WRITTEN BY VIETNAMESE WRITERS AND FOREIGN WRITERS

Types	Corpus – Vietnamese writers (62,545 words)			Corpus – Foreign writers (57,300 words)		
	F	%	% per 1,000 words	F	%	% per 1,000 words
Hedges	1452	80.35	2.32	1374	82.42	2.40

2. Hedge Categories in the R-D Section of English AL RAs Written by Vietnamese Writers and Their Foreign Counterparts

The results in Table 2 reveal that both Vietnamese and foreign writers used hedge categories in their R-D sections of RAs relatively similarly. They employed Modal auxiliaries the most with .85% and .76% per 1,000 words respectively, followed by Epistemic Lexical verbs (.50% per 1,000 words vs. .55% per 1,000 words) and Epistemic Adjectives (.30% per 1,000 words vs. .38% per 1,000 words). Additionally, they also deployed Epistemic Adverbs (.18% per 1,000 words vs. .20% per 1,000 words) and Others (.31% per 1,000 words vs. .35% per 1,000 words) in their R-D sections of RAs in a similar way. It is, nevertheless, noticed that Vietnamese writers utilized more Nouns in their R-D sections of RAs than their foreign counterparts (.24% per 1,000 words vs. .07% per 1,000 words).

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF HEDGE CATEGORIES IN THE R-D SECTION OF ENGLISH AL RAS WRITTEN BY VIETNAMESE AND FOREIGN WRITERS

CATEGORY	Corpus – Vietnamese writers (62,545 words)			Corpus – Foreign writers (57,300 words)		
	F	%	% PER 1,000 WORDS	F	%	% PER 1,000 WORDS
MODAL AUXILIARIES	491	33.82	.76	487	35.44	.85
EPISTEMIC LEXICAL VERBS	315	21.69	.50	317	23.07	.55
EPISTEMIC ADVERBS	114	7.85	.18	114	8.30	.20
EPISTEMIC ADJECTIVES	186	12.81	.30	216	15.72	.38
NOUNS	149	10.26	.24	42	3.06	.07
OTHERS	197	13.57	.31	198	14.41	.35
TOTAL	1452	100	2.29	1374	100	2.40

3. Vietnamese Writers and Their Foreign Counterparts

Table 3 illustrates the distribution of the hedge functions in the R-D section of English AL RAs written by Vietnamese and foreign writers. It is seen that the function of Reliability hedges was most employed by Vietnamese writers (7.91% per 1,000 words) and foreign writers (8.64% per 1,000 words), followed by Writer-oriented hedges (7.24% per 1,000 words vs. 7.38% per 1,000 words) and Attribute hedges (5.00% per 1,000 words vs. 6.07% per 1,000 words). The least used function of hedges belongs to Reader-oriented hedges (Vietnamese writers: .30% per 1,000

words; foreign writers: .40% per 1,000 words). Overall, both Vietnamese and foreign writers tended to employ the functions of hedges in a similar way.

TABLE 3
HEDGE FUNCTIONS IN THE R-D SECTION OF ENGLISH AL RAS WRITTEN BY VIETNAMESE WRITERS AND THEIR FOREIGN COUNTERPARTS

FUNCTIONS	CORPUS – VIETNAMESE WRITERS (62,545 WORDS)			CORPUS – FOREIGN WRITERS (57,300 WORDS)		
	F	%	% PER 1,000 WORDS	F	%	% PER 1,000 WORDS
ATTRIBUTE	313	24.45	5.00	348	27.00	6.07
RELIABILITY	495	38.67	7.91	495	38.40	8.64
WRITER-ORIENTED	453	35.39	7.24	423	32.82	7.38
READER-ORIENTED	19	1.49	.30	23	1.78	.40
TOTAL	1,280	100	20.47	1,289	100	22.50

4. Accuracy-Oriented Hedges - Attribute Hedges

The attribute hedges such as *about*, *approximately*, *generally*, *quite*, and so on are found in the R-D section of English AL RAs written by both Vietnamese and foreign writers. As seen the examples (1), and (2), both Vietnamese and foreign writers used attribute hedges to show the estimate value to avoid showing the precise figures or numbers which cannot be precisely idealized. These attribute hedges can help them to show their claims or propositions with acceptable degrees.

- (1) “All participants in both groups had *approximately* similar performance on proficiency test and the obtained means and standard deviations of both groups were to some extent, similar.” (FW 18)
- (2) “Overall, Vietnam’s forests contain *about* 800 tree, 60 bamboo and more than 1500 medicinal plant species.” (VW7)

5. Accuracy-Oriented Hedges - Reliability Hedges

The reliability hedges (e.g., *may*, *possible*, *possibly*, *apparent*, etc.) are used to help writers convey the reliability of their proposition or claims. The examples (3) and (4) indicate that Vietnamese and foreign writers tended to use reliability hedges *may* or *could* to acknowledge their uncertain knowledge in a proposition.

- (3) “An adolescent will engage in social interaction in order to achieve particular goals, and some regulation strategy usage *may* be transferred across situations, from school to social interactions.” (FW1)
- (4) “However, it *could* be argued that the emphasis given to the researchers/authors by these Vietnamese writers through their preferred use of Discourse....” (VW26)

6. Writer-Oriented Hedges

Both Vietnamese and foreign writers tended to use writer-oriented hedges (e.g., epistemic lexical verbs, passive voice, agentless or impersonal subject, etc.) to shield themselves from the oppositions by limiting the personal commitments. In the example (5), the foreign writer employed *appear*, a tentative verb, for tentative approximation.

- (5) “Regard to the second research question, learners *appeared* to be motivated to study the skills according to their weighting on the test.” (FW3)

In the example (6), the foreign writer used *seem* as a main device or tool which helps him avoid personal proposition.

- (6) “*It seems that* formal training did influence teachers’ beliefs and their instructional practices.” (FW15)

Vietnamese writers deployed the writer-oriented hedges to avoid personal responsibility for statements or limit the damage which may result from the categorical commitments in terms of passive voice forms, impersonal subjects or lexical verbs. The example (7) is as follows:

- (7) “I *thought* that they understood everything, but in reality, there was something that they just didn’t understand.” (VW23)

7. Reader-Oriented Hedges

The example (8) shows that foreign writers employed reader-oriented hedges such as *I think*, *it can be inferred that*, *we believe that*, etc. to avoid conflicts in negotiation between writers and readers.

- (8) “*It can be inferred that* when the students’ ability to use English for communication is limited, learning grammar seems to be more secure to deal with their linguistic limitation and to reduce their performance anxiety.” (FW15)

B. Discussion

The results have unraveled some major findings. The first finding is that both Vietnamese and foreign writers used hedges in the R-D section of English AL RAs in terms of frequency in similar ways. This may show a common agreement among scholars in the field of English AL RAs known as the soft science. In another aspect, the writers (both Vietnamese and foreigners) of the analyzed RAs in this study could be non-native English writers, so there could be some limitations in their English language use. This finding is not in alignment with that of Farrokhi and Emami (2008) who conducted a study to explore the use of hedges and boosters by native and non-native writers in RAs of two disciplines of Electrical Engineering and English AL RAs and found that native English writers used more hedges than

that of non-native English writers. This difference may result from the fact that native English writers have a higher level of English proficiency than their non-native English counterparts. Additionally, non-native English writers may deploy the hedges less flexibly than their native English writers. However, this finding is partially contradictory with that of Nasiri (2012) who found that both American and Iranian writers had similar use of hedges in Civil Engineering RAs. This may be due to the fact that the field of Civil Engineering is a hard science, so the use of hedge may not be common deployed in the studied RAs.

Regarding the hedge categories in the R-D section of English AL RAs, it was found out that the categories of hedges were similarly distributed in the R-D section of English AL RAs written by both Vietnamese and foreign writers. The Modal auxiliaries were most employed, followed by Epistemic Lexical verbs. This finding resonated with that of Tran and Duong (2013) who have found that hedges in forms of Modal auxiliaries were most used in the R-D section of English AL and Chemical Engineering RAs. Nonetheless, this finding was inconsistent with that of Farrokhi and Emami (2008) when their finding showed that Modal auxiliaries were not used the most in Electrical Engineering and English AL RAs by both native English and non-native English writers. This may be due to the scope of the study. This study and Tran and Duong's (2013) study focused only on the R-D section, while Farrokhi and Emami's (2008) study analyzed the hedge use in the four main components of RAs.

Another major finding is that the functions of hedges which were similarly deployed in the R-D section of English AL RAs by Vietnamese and foreign writers. The most used function of hedges was Reliability hedges, and the least one belonged to Reader-oriented hedges. This finding was corroborated with that of Nguyen (2018) which scrutinized the use of hedges in RAs written by Vietnamese writers, and that of Musa (2014) which analyzed the functions of hedges in English and Chemistry Masters' theses written by Ghanaian students whose English is an official language in their country. There are some plausible explanations for this finding. First, although the AL belongs to the soft science, writers in this study may attempt to use Reliability hedges to increase the degree of their confidence which could result in the validity of their claims. Second, the use of Reader-oriented hedges is to facilitate the effective communication between writers and readers (Hyland, 1996a), but the RA and Master's thesis are two genres of the academic writing. Therefore, one of the features of the academic writing is that the language use should be formal and impersonal (Tiersma, 2008).

V. CONCLUSION

This study has confirmed the norms and practices of the discipline of AL, a soft science. The use of hedges in the R-D section in English AL RAs is common among scholars who are non-native English writers regardless of their unique characteristics and culture-bound. Both Vietnamese and foreigners in this study tend to use hedges in terms of frequency, types and functions in similar ways. Some pedagogical implications are made. First of all, the teaching of academic research writing should highlight the writing convention of different disciplines and show their differences. Additionally, the importance of hedging and its use in the field of soft science should be emphasized as hedging is one of the useful tools in negotiating the meaning and creating a room for different interpretations.

Some limitations are still found in this study. This study focuses only on the use of hedges in one discipline between Vietnamese and foreigners, English AL, so the further extensive study may get involved in analyzing more variables (e.g., boosters) in RAs across different disciplines. Besides, there are different categories and functions of hedges, but this study adapted the categories and functions of hedges. Thus, the future study can examine the use of hedges within different categories and functions of hedges in order to see if there are any similarities or differences or not.

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Integrating Machine Translation Into EFL Writing Instruction: Process, Product and Perception

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Abstract—Although there is a great demand for machine translation (MT) among language learners, its potentials as a computer-assisted language learning aid remain under-explored. Against this backdrop, this study adopted a mixed research method and conducted a semester-long empirical investigation into how EFL learners in mainland China used MT to assist their writing, whether MT helped improve their writing competence and how they perceived MT in EFL writing instruction. The major findings comprise: 1) By using MT students made more lexical and grammatical changes in essay revision; 2) MT helped improve the learners' overall writing competence, and particularly had a greater effect on writing accuracy and lexical complexity than on other dimensions; 3) Students generally held a positive attitude towards incorporating MT into EFL writing instruction.

Index Terms—EFL writing instruction, machine translation, writing processes, written products, students' perceptions

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional EFL (English as a foreign language) writing instruction attaches greater importance to students' written products than to their writing processes or to their stances of a certain teaching approach. This pedagogical problem has been particularly prominent in mainland China's EFL teaching setting where English writing instruction "operates" mechanically by following the "task assignment--task completion--final draft submission" mode with delayed or even no corrective feedback from teachers or other sources. This long-standing product-oriented teaching tradition has its deficiencies and drawbacks, since it remains unknown how students employ meta-cognitive and cognitive writing strategies in the whole process. To remedy this situation, EFL writing instruction in the information age is required to cast away obsolete teaching methods and embrace computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools as revolutionizing catalysts. What language teachers are faced with is how best to apply these tools to produce favourable outcomes for language learners. Among them, machine translation (MT) has gained popularity both inside and outside the classrooms.

The concept of MT was formally put forward by Warren Weaver in 1949 (Chéragui, 2012), which refers to the process of transforming a source language into a target language by using computer software generally compatible with the systems of personal computers and smart phones (Alhaisoni & Alhasysony, 2017). Presently, MT is seldom used in writing classrooms, largely due to its questionable reliability, as was pointed out by Bahri and Mahadi (2016) that MT engines might misuse lexical and grammatical items and couldn't infallibly convey cultural meanings. However, the tremendous demand for MT in the language learning context tells us quite another story, as language learners increasingly regard MT as a useful CALL aid for acquiring vocabulary, completing translation exercises, and finishing reading comprehension and writing tasks (Alhaisoni & Alhasysony, 2017). Specifically, MT has the following upsides: 1) aiding language learners in making preliminary translation and reducing cognitive load in the reading process (Baraniello et al., 2016; O'Brien et al., 2018); 2) providing learners with a target language model and deepening L2 writers' interlanguage knowledge in the lexical, semantic, syntactic and pragmatic aspects (Amaral & Meurers, 2011; Bahri & Mahadi, 2016; Bernardini, 2016); 3) helping students convey and communicate messages more smoothly in the process of L2 writing, improve their writing fluency, reduce errors in their essays, and provide "scaffolding support" in their writing process (Godwin-Jones, 2015); 4) offering direct feedback like lexical and syntactic alternatives, instead of just giving negative or general feedback (Lee, 2020); and 5) providing learners with a less threatening language learning environment, reducing their language learning anxiety, and enhancing their learning motivation and self-confidence (Kliffer, 2005; Niño, 2009). Undeniably, dramatic technological breakthroughs have enabled MT engines to provide more accurate and readable translations, so the effectiveness of MT cannot be completely ignored and proper use of MT is beneficial to language learners' learning processes.

To this end, this study conducts a preliminary investigation into MT's potentials as a CALL tool for ameliorating EFL learners' writing competence, learners' way of utilizing MT to facilitate the writing process, and their stances of introducing MT into writing instruction. Another rationale for this study consists in the scant combination of MT and writing instruction in mainland China's EFL teaching setting.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

To learn about the state of the art in applying MT to L2 writing, we performed a retrieval on Web of Science and China National Knowledge Internet with the keywords of "MT+L2 writing" and "机器翻译+二语写作" respectively, only to find a handful of empirical studies having set foot on this territory. The following is a panorama of relevant literature directly associated with the current study.

A. MT in the L2 Writing Process

A usual way to comprehend students' writing process is to compare the first and final drafts of an essay and identify any changes made by the writers. Closely related to our area of interest is Lee's (2020) study which found that Korean EFL learners compared their manual and MT versions, noticed errors, identified alternative items, and rewrote some parts of their essays, and these processes assisted these learners in acquisition of grammatical knowledge, use of new words in appropriate contexts and retention of the newly learned items by using them in the final version. The results of Lee (2020) confirmed Wong and Lee's (2016) observation that language learning with MT could foster students' language awareness and noticing skills such as perceiving their lack of L2 knowledge and discerning corresponding items to be learned from the MT version which will be employed in new contexts to craft novel sentences. As Carroll and Swain (1993) claimed, error detection and correction improves grammatical accuracy in L2 writing and facilitates interlanguage development. Likewise, exposure to alternative language items can raise students' awareness that there are no one-to-one equivalents between the source and target languages (Baraniello et al., 2016).

Lee's (2020) study showcased the changes in students' first and final drafts and stated that the subjects commenced to center more on post-translation editing and began to shift their view of writing from a product to a process. The study further pointed out that the subjects even started to place more emphasis on their L1 writing after recognizing that their source text could determine the quality of the MT version. Despite such findings, this study did not display the writing processes in a real sense, or at least we have no way of knowing how the subjects were engaged in the writing activities with MT engines. Therefore, more in-depth information on research design should be straightened out.

B. Impacts of MT on Students' Writing Proficiency

Research shows that MT can promote writing, but most of the conclusions are merely based on open or semi-structured questionnaires. Very few studies have designed teaching experiments to explore MT's impact on learners' overall writing level. O'Brien et al. (2018) took 10 non-native English speakers from different research fields as the research subjects, and the research comprised two stages, lasting for six weeks. In the first stage, the subjects completed a 500-word abstract which was divided into two parts with similar length (one in subjects' mother tongues and the other in English). In the second stage, researchers used Google Translate to translate the mother tongue parts into English, then returned the complete English abstract to the subjects and asked them to revise the whole abstract. The results showed that MT and post-translation editing practices had no negative effects on the quality of academic writing.

Garcia and Pena (2011) required nine native English-speaking Spanish beginners to write in English first, translate English into Spanish with MT, and then edit the translated text, while the other seven native English-speaking Spanish intermediate learners wrote in Spanish directly. It was found that the scores of the L2 texts produced with the help of MT were higher than those produced directly in Spanish. The study also found that compared with intermediate learners who wrote directly in Spanish, junior learners writing with MT had fewer pauses in the writing process, indicating that MT could reduce L2 writers' cognitive load.

O'Neill (2012) divided 32 native English-speaking college French learners into two experimental groups and a control group. The first experimental group received training in MT and used translation software, the second experimental group was permitted to use MT but did not receive training, and the control group was neither trained nor allowed to use MT. All three groups of subjects completed two short essays, and the researchers reviewed the essays from six dimensions: comprehensibility, content, spelling, syntax, grammar and vocabulary. It was found that the total scores of the first experimental group in the second writing task was significantly higher than those of the control group, and four out of six dimensions were significantly better in the two experimental groups than in the control group.

Lee (2020) conducted a six-week teaching practice, and asked 34 Korean English majors to produce an essay in Korean after watching a 15-minute TED video and then translate the essay into English both manually and automatically. Finally, the students revised their own translations with MT. The results showed that MT helped reduce lexical and grammatical errors in essays, draw students' attention to the writing processes and improve their writing strategies. However, due to lack of a pretest, a post-test, and a control group, it remained unknown whether students' writing competence had really improved and whether it was MT that could make a difference.

C. Students' Stances of MT in Writing Classrooms

Generally, most subjects in the literature feel positive towards integrating MT into L2 writing. For example, most of Lee's (2020) subjects credited MT for its accuracy, provision of authentic expressions and effectiveness for lexical choices. However, some turned up their noses at MT due to its abundant grammatical errors, problematic syntactic structures and awkward literal translations. Moreover, the attitudes of EFL learners with differing writing proficiency levels were mixed. More proficient English learners praised MT's effectiveness at the vocabulary level rather than at the sentence level, while less proficient learners commended MT's usefulness for grammatical and lexical error correction. Bahri and Mahadi (2016) reported on most participants' agreement with using Google Translate for acquiring the writing skills, their slight disagreement with using it for learning grammar and their preference to use it for vocabulary acquisition. Niño (2009) investigated tutors' and learners' perceptions of using MT for Spanish teaching and learning and obtained similar research results.

To date, MT is still criticized for its low accuracy, but language teachers can't ignore students' tremendous demand for its auxiliary functions. Considering this, this study is intended to optimize the research design of the studies in this field and empirically explore the possibility of incorporating MT into EFL writing instruction in mainland China. Specifically, this study tests whether MT can improve learners' writing ability, how EFL learners utilize machine translations to assist their writing processes, and how they respond to such a novel teaching and learning practice.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

- (1) During the semester-long teaching experiment, how do EFL learners use MT to assist their writing process?
- (2) Can MT improve EFL learners' writing competence?
- (3) How do learners perceive integrating MT into EFL writing instruction?

B. Subjects

The subjects came from two intact classes of second-year English majors in a university in Southwest China, and they were divided into an experimental class (6 boys and 36 girls) and a control class (5 boys and 35 girls). Their writing teacher rated them as low-intermediate EFL writers with weak lexical and grammatical foundations. *T*-test shows that no significance existed between both classes' average scores of the course *Basic Writing II* ($p > .05$). In the fall semester of 2020-2021 academic year, all subjects attended the course *Intermediate English Writing I* lectured by the second author of this article.

C. Experimental Design

This teaching experiment lasted for 16 weeks. The teacher of *Intermediate Writing I* lectured on the same amount of writing knowledge to both classes. During the teaching process, all subjects were required to finish the same topic every three weeks, and complete five writing tasks in total. The third week for each topic was the classroom writing time (90 minutes). The teacher demanded students in both classes to participate in pre-writing discussions, brainstorming and other activities. The differences in writing activities for both classes are displayed in Figure 1.

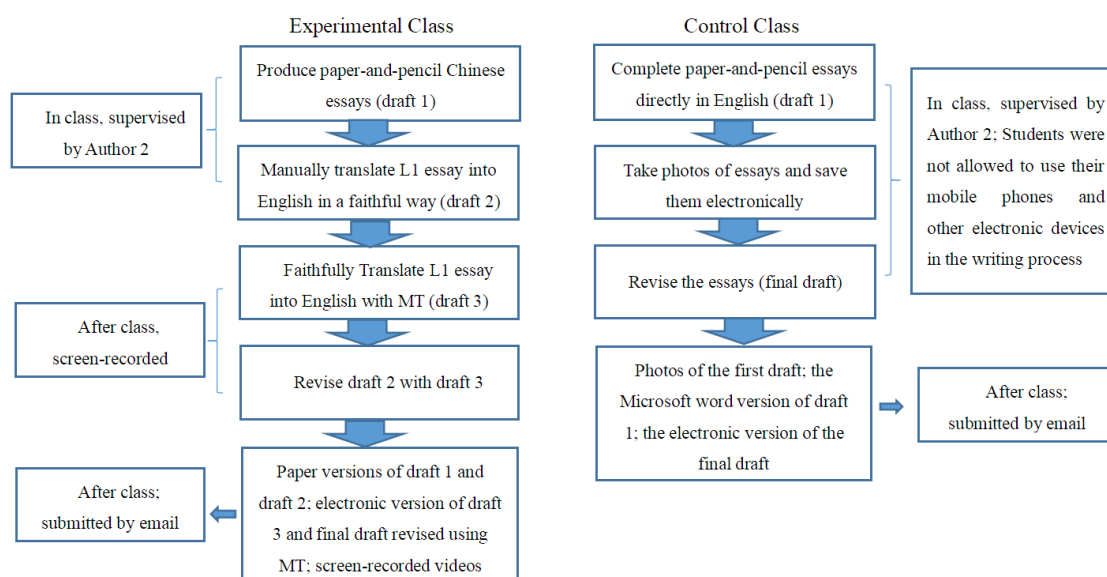


Fig.1 Differences in writing activities for both classes

D. Instruments, Data Collection and Analysis

First, the screen-recording tool *Screencast-O-Matic* was used to keep track of the post-translation editing and revising processes of the experimental class. Based on the classification standard of the revising process proposed by Ferris (1997), we established an analysis framework suitable for this study (see Table 1), including four types (*i.e.* replace, add, delete and transpose) and four levels (*i.e.* writing mechanics, vocabulary & phrase, sentence & grammar and discourse coherence). The second author analyzed the first and final drafts for each task submitted by students in the experimental class and the screen-recorded videos to classify and count the students' post-editing operations in terms of the revision types and levels. The first author did the checking work. Where differences arose, both researchers discussed and negotiated with each other until a consensus was reached.

TABLE 1
EXAMPLES FOR REVISION TYPES AND LEVELS

Revision types	Revision levels	Examples	
		First draft	Final draft
Replace	Mechanics	It is true education will <i>style</i> creativity...	It is true education will <i>stifle</i> creativity...
	Vocabulary	Education make children smarter than...	Education <i>enables</i> children <i>to be</i> smarter than...
	Sentence	Parents and teachers should guide their children correctly...	It is parents' and teachers' responsibility to guide their children...
	Coherence	Despite it poses threat to one's development...	Although it poses threat to kids' development...
Add	Mechanics	However school education does kills creativity.	However, school education does kill creativity.
	Vocabulary	Parents and teachers should guide their children correctly...	It is parents' and teachers' <i>responsibility</i> to guide their children...
	Sentence	No one is supposed ignore the role of education.	No one is supposed <i>to</i> ignore the role of education.
	Coherence	It is true education will style creativity, we should be cautious about...	It is true education will stifle creativity, <i>so</i> we should be cautious about...
Delete	Mechanics	Education is " <i>key</i> " to our mental and physical health.	Education is <i>key</i> to our mental and physical health.
	Vocabulary	Parents and teachers should guide their children <i>correctly</i> ...	It is parents' and teachers' responsibility to guide their children...
	Sentence	However school education <i>does kills</i> creativity.	However, school education <i>does kill</i> creativity.
	Coherence	/	/
Transpose	Mechanics	/	/
	Vocabulary	<i>I also would like</i> to hold the idea that...	<i>I would also like</i> to hold the idea that...
	Sentence	Only by receiving schooling <i>kids can</i> acquire sufficient knowledge necessary in life.	Only by receiving schooling <i>can kids</i> acquire sufficient knowledge necessary in life.
	Coherence	/	/

We conducted a pretest and a post-test in week 1 and week 16 respectively. Both tests were of the same topic and required students in both classes to finish an in-class time-limited paper-and-pencil writing task (see Appendix 1). The test results were used to compare the writing scores and the quantitative indices of the written texts prior to and after the experimental teaching. The essays were independently scored by two veteran essay raters based on the rating rubrics (see Appendix 2) of the Test for English Majors Band 4, a standardized test for second-year English majors in mainland China. Any disagreement was resolved through negotiation between both raters and the final score of each essay was the average of the scores assigned by both raters. The agreement between both raters reached 92.68%.

The language accuracy figure of each essay was computed with the formula: $100 - (\text{total number of errors} \div \text{total number of words}) \times 100$ (Bai & Ye, 2018). Essay errors were automatically analyzed and counted by Antidote, a kind of software which can identify three types of errors in English and French, namely language use, typography and style. We only calculated errors in language use in the current study. Both authors double-checked the language errors identified by Antidote in the same batch of articles (20 articles in total) one by one to ensure the validity of the errors. The agreement rate of error discrimination between the two authors was 95.67%. Where disagreement occurred, both discussed and solved the differences, and the task involving error discrimination of the remaining 144 essays was completed by the second author.

12 textual quantitative indices in four dimensions were gleaned, including fluency, lexical complexity (Paul, 2005; Lu, 2012), syntactic complexity (Lu & Xu, 2016) and discourse coherence (Jiang, 2016). The principles of selecting indices are economy and representativeness. Detailed information on the indices is listed in Appendix 3.

The research instruments also include an open-ended questionnaire and a quantitative one. The former was mainly designed to see whether the control group would use MT engines while revising their essays after class (see Appendix 4). The latter is a five-point Likert scale with 20 sub-questions concerning the attitudes of the experimental group towards MT's role in EFL writing (see Appendix 5). Both questionnaires were administered in week 16 on the Tencent QQ platform, a widely used social networking medium in mainland China.

SPSS 20.0 was run to compare the scores, accuracy figures and 12 textual quantitative indices of all the essays, and the significance value was set at the $p < .05$ level. Questionnaire statistics were calculated in Excel worksheets.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

A. Results of Students' Writing and Revising Behaviors

Figure 2 shows a Chinese essay and its manual English translation produced by one of the students in the experimental class. As can be seen, this student made quite a lot of self-directed modifications in both versions prior to automatic translation even though such revisions were not required by the teacher.

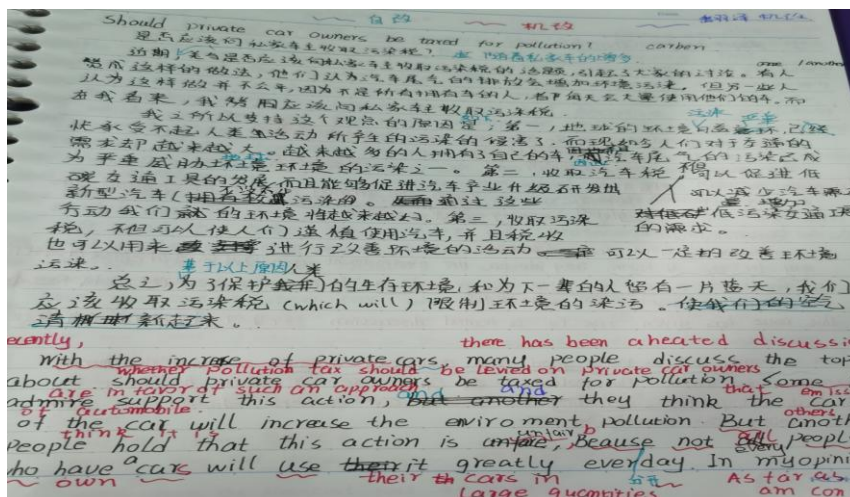


Fig.2 A snapshot of a Chinese essay and its manual translation

Figure 3 displays the interface of Google Translate where the source and target languages are listed in the form of parallel texts.

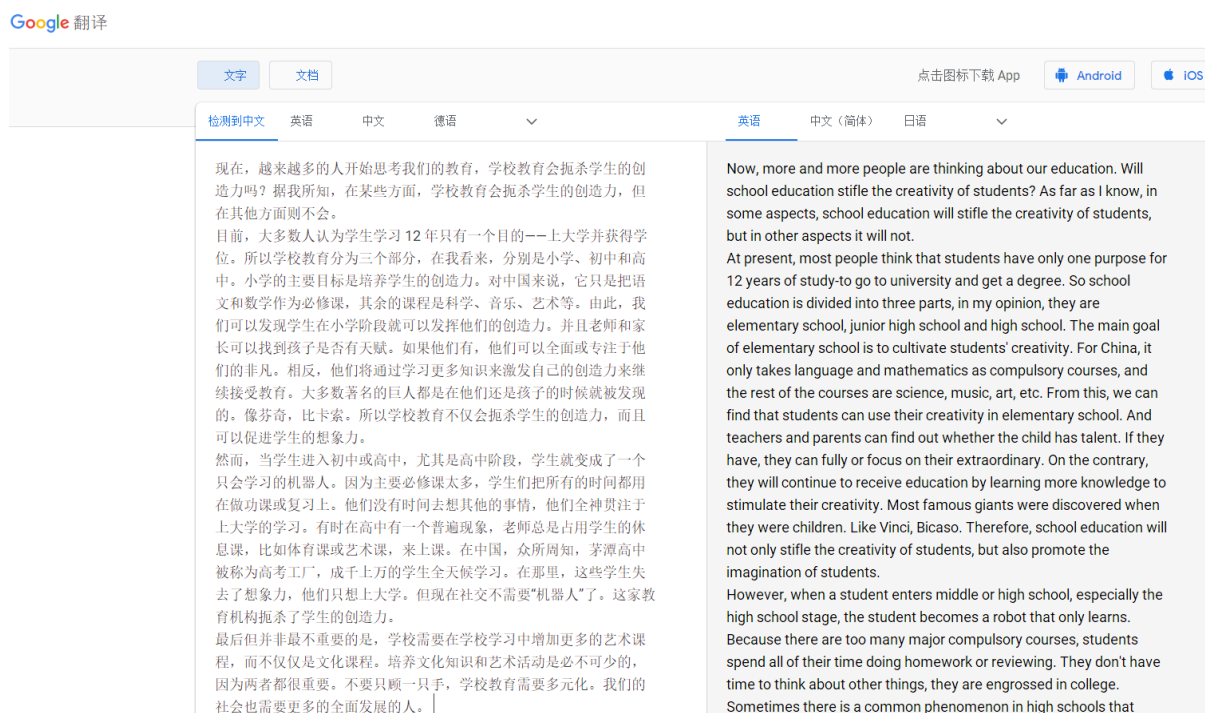


Fig.3 A screenshot of a Chinese essay and its MT version by Google Translate

Figure 4 presents how students revised their manual translations by using MT versions. Students typically compared the MT version with the manual version and decided whether to make changes. If any change was made, they would highlight it in the form of comments juxtaposed in the margin of a Microsoft word document.

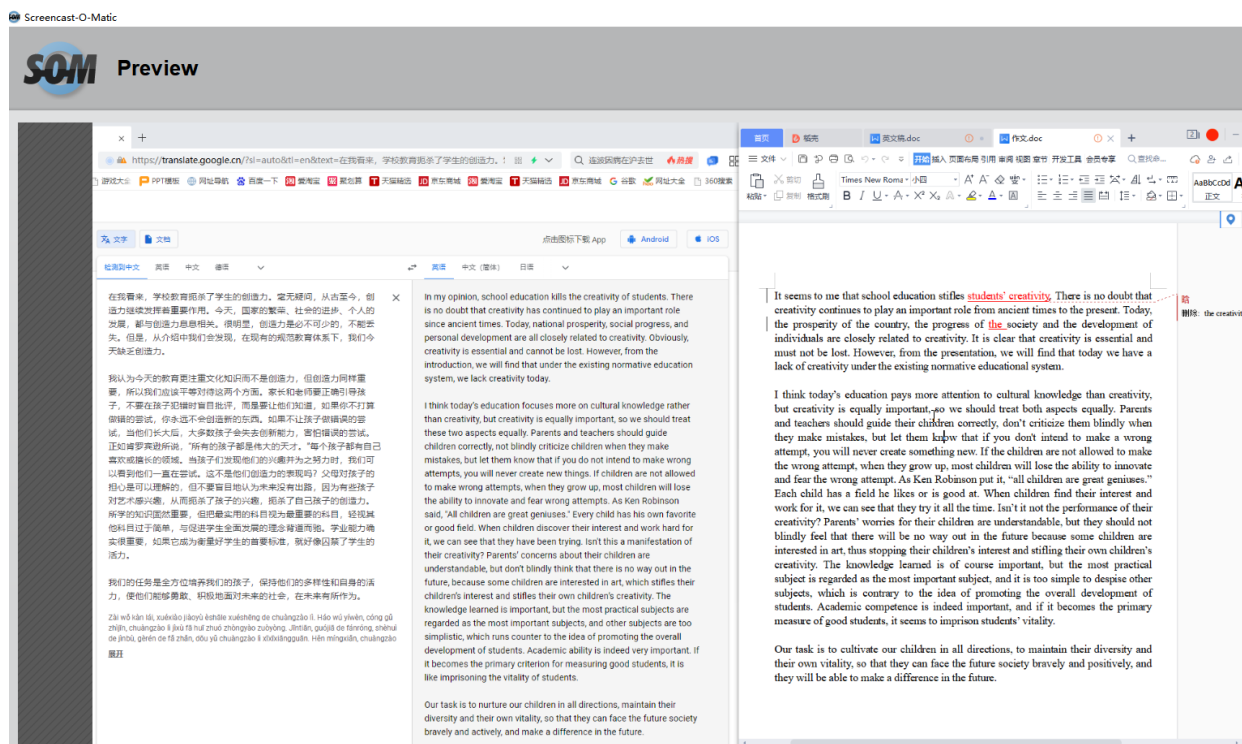


Fig.4 A screenshot of one student's revising process

All together, the experimental class produced 420 essays with 112,140 English words. Undergoing laborious and backbreaking classification, confirmation and calculation, both researchers ultimately got a clear picture of how students used MT to revise their essays. The quantitative data relevant to revision types and levels for each task were exhibited in Table 2 which shows that students made more revisions in lexical items than in any other aspects.

TABLE 2
REVISION FIGURES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL CLASS

Revision types	Revision levels	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Total
Replace	Mechanics	423	348	336	214	121	1442
	Vocabulary	838	765	739	678	732	3752
	Sentence	238	217	199	234	179	1067
Add	Coherence	156	187	164	123	171	801
	Mechanics	52	38	54	39	23	206
	Vocabulary	369	421	386	291	265	1732
Delete	Sentence	235	222	312	256	301	1326
	Coherence	253	167	203	194	98	915
	Mechanics	13	21	26	18	19	97
Transpose	Vocabulary	206	217	189	217	234	1063
	Sentence	189	176	204	193	213	975
	Coherence	0	0	0	0	0	0
Transpose	Mechanics	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Vocabulary	127	151	111	126	130	645
	Sentence	118	147	108	92	103	568
Transpose	Coherence	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	3217	3077	3031	2675	2589	14589

B. Results of Between-Groups Comparison

Independent-samples *t* test reveals that in the pretest the average score of the control class is significantly higher than that of the experimental class by 4.5375 points ($t=-7.483$, $df=39$, $p=.000<.05$, see Table 3). No significant difference exists in textual quantitative indices ($p>.05$). Essay accuracy of the control class is significantly higher than that of the experimental class (average difference=-2.725, $p=.022<.05$).

TABLE 3
BETWEEN-GROUPS COMPARISON OF SCORES AND TEXTUAL QUANTITATIVE INDICES IN THE PRETEST

E-C ¹ (I-J)	Average difference (I-J)	Standard deviation	Standard error	95% confidence interval		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (two-tailed)
				Lower limit	Upper limit			
Score	-4.5375	7.2159	1.1409	-10.8453	-6.2297	-7.483	39	.000
Accuracy	-2.725	7.211	1.140	-5.031	-.419	-2.390	39	.022
LD	.00175	.06300	.00996	-.01840	.02190	.176	39	.861
LV	.01125	.15098	.02387	-.03704	.05954	.471	39	.640
U index	-.43250	3.11577	.49265	-1.42897	.56397	-.878	39	.385
K2 ⁺	.0025	.5409	.0855	-.1705	.1755	.029	39	.977
W	11.800	42.307	6.689	-1.731	25.331	1.764	39	.086
MTL	-.068925	2.730687	.431759	-.942241	.804391	-.160	39	.874
CT/T	-.0384	.3624	.0573	-.1543	.0775	-.670	39	.507
CRFSO	-.023400	.242428	.038331	-.100932	.054132	-.610	39	.545
CRFAO	.008000	.285200	.045094	-.083211	.099211	.177	39	.860
LSAPP	-.067525	.283047	.044754	-.158048	.022998	-1.509	39	.139
CNCA11	9.96130	41.04553	6.48986	-3.16570	23.08830	1.535	39	.133
WRDPRO	12.7194	91.54078	14.4738	-16.55673	41.99558	.879	39	.385

Table 4 shows that the average score of the experimental class is significantly higher than that of the control class (mean score difference=2.913, $p=.027<.05$). The accuracy figures and four lexical complexity indices of the experimental class are significantly higher than those of the control class ($p<.05$).

TABLE 4
BETWEEN-GROUPS COMPARISON OF SCORES AND TEXTUAL QUANTITATIVE INDICES IN THE POST-TEST

E-C (I-J)	Average difference (I-J)	Standard deviation	Standard error	95% confidence interval		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (two-tailed)
				Lower limit	Upper limit			
Score	2.913	4.701	.743	.416	2.591	1.228	39	.027
Accuracy	7.050	8.539	1.350	4.781	9.319	5.221	39	.000
LD	.02125	.05534	.00875	.00355	.03895	2.429	39	.020
LV	.13550	.13078	.02068	.09368	.17732	6.553	39	.000
U index	4.12825	4.05706	.64148	2.83074	5.42576	6.436	39	.000
K2 ⁺	3.4650	1.4591	.2307	2.9984	3.9316	15.019	39	.000
W	-.875	72.069	11.395	-23.924	22.174	-.077	39	.939
MTL	-.7364525	4.2545886	.6727095	-2.0971359	.624230	-1.095	39	.280
CT/T	-.0685000	.4757490	.0752225	-.2206519	.0836519	-.911	39	.368
CRFSO	.171425	.335762	.053089	.064043	.278807	3.229	39	.053
CRFAO	.082075	.358601	.056700	-.032611	.196761	1.448	39	.156
LSAPP	-.078800	.258447	.040864	-.161455	.003855	-1.928	39	.061
CNCA11	-1.80320	47.99588	7.58881	-22.15302	8.54662	-.896	39	.375
WRDPRO	1.65312	75.35176	11.9141	19.55446	67.75178	3.664	39	.081

C. Results of Within-Group Comparison

Paired-samples *t* test shows that the post-test scores of the experimental class are significantly higher than the pretest scores (average difference=-12.6786, $p=.000$), and the total scores of the subjects improved by more than 12 points. Among the quantitative indices, except that all discourse indices have no significant difference ($p>.05$), the values of the other indices in the post-test are significantly higher than those in the pretest ($p<.05$).

TABLE 5
WITHIN-GROUP COMPARISON OF SCORES AND TEXTUAL QUANTITATIVE INDICES (THE EXPERIMENTAL CLASS)

Pre-Post (I-J)	Average difference (I-J)	Standard deviation	Standard error	95% confidence interval		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (two-tailed)
				Lower limit	Upper limit			
Score	-12.6786	6.4220	.9909	-14.6798	-10.6773	-12.795	41	.000
Accuracy	-3.857	7.801	1.204	-1.426	-6.288	-3.204	41	.003
LD	-.02786	.05655	.00873	-.04548	-.01024	-3.193	41	.003
LV	-.15310	.12520	.01932	-.19211	-.11408	-7.925	41	.000
U index	-5.82690	2.72836	.42100	-6.67712	-4.97669	-13.841	41	.000
K2 ⁺	-8.5024	2.9564	.4562	-9.4237	-7.5811	-18.638	41	.000
W	-65.000	61.743	9.527	-84.241	-45.759	-6.823	41	.000
MTL	-1.493485	3.291461	.507883	-2.519177	-.467794	-2.941	41	.005
CT/T	-.3272952	.4302754	.0663929	-.4613785	-.1932120	-4.930	41	.000
CRFSO	-.208952	.289040	.044600	-.299024	-.118881	-4.685	41	.072
CRFAO	-.085048	.320048	.049385	-.184782	.014686	-1.722	41	.093
LSAPP	.072	.245	.038	-.004	.149	1.917	41	.062
CNCA11	-1.67695	41.05714	6.33525	-.88264	-26.47125	-2.159	41	.087
WRDPRO	-1.96219	79.91670	12.33141	-59.86598	-10.05839	-2.835	41	.067

¹ The letter E stands for the experimental class and C for the control class. The two letters have the same meanings in the following tables.

Table 6 shows that the post-test scores of the control class are significantly higher than the pretest scores (average difference=-4.8875, $p=.000$), but the improvement range is smaller than that of the experimental class. Among the textual quantitative indices, significant differences exist in two lexical complexity indices, fluency and two syntactic complexity indices ($p<.05$), indicating that subjects in the control class have improved significantly in these aspects.

TABLE 6
WITHIN-GROUP COMPARISON OF SCORES AND TEXTUAL QUANTITATIVE INDICES (THE CONTROL CLASS)

Pre-Post (I-J)	Average difference (I-J)	Standard deviation	Standard error	95% confidence interval		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (two-tailed)
				Lower limit	Upper limit			
Score	-4.8875	4.1625	.6582	-6.2187	-3.5563	-7.426	39	.000
Accuracy	-.725	10.639	1.682	-4.127	2.677	-.431	39	.669
LD	-.00700	.05170	.00817	-.02353	.00953	-.856	39	.397
LV	-.03050	.15643	.02473	-.08053	.01953	-1.233	39	.225
U index	-1.30000	3.51222	.55533	-2.42326	-.17674	-2.341	39	.024
K2 ⁺	-5.1925	1.8199	.2877	-5.7745	-4.6105	-18.045	39	.000
W	-76.425	63.093	9.976	-96.603	-56.247	-7.661	39	.000
MTL	-2.055857	3.517509	.556167	-3.180811	-.930903	-3.696	39	.001
CT/T	-.3307275	.5124968	.0810329	-.4946319	-.1668231	-4.081	39	.000
CRFSO	.002400	.274648	.043426	-.085437	.090237	.055	39	.956
CRFAO	.001825	.270881	.042830	-.084807	.088457	.043	39	.966
LSAPP	.040800	.296440	.046871	-.054006	.135606	.870	39	.389
CNCA11	-2.84767	44.36505	7.01473	-17.03630	11.34095	-.406	39	.687
WRDPRO	1.321625	79.925847	12.637386	-24.239901	26.883151	.105	39	.917

D. Results from the Questionnaires

The results of the open-ended questionnaire show that 12.5% ($n=5$) of the students in the control class used MT engines in essay revision after class, and among them 80% ($n=4$) consulted *Youdao Dictionary* (an online dictionary which has both a web version and a mobile version) for translating some uncertain expressions or confirming lexical forms and usages. When looking up a word, 60% ($n=3$) tended to notice the synonymous words with lower frequency and use them to replace high-frequency words to increase the lexical complexity of their essays. They believed that by referring to the sample sentences they could accumulate advanced vocabulary and use words correctly. In short, only a small proportion of students in the control class utilized MT in the revising and editing process, which ensures the validity and comparability of the quantitative data.

Results of the quantitative questionnaire are set out in Table 7. Questions 10, 13, 15 and 19 surveyed the experimental subjects' overall understanding of MT and its integration into the writing process. The results show that most of the 42 students held a positive attitude towards the accuracy of MT (69.01%, $n=29$), and its helpfulness in improving the writing proficiency (71.43%, $n=30$). 88.10% ($n=37$) complimented the "writing in Chinese first—translating manually—translating automatically—comparing both translations—revising" process, and 90.48% ($n=38$) claimed that they would continue to use MT to assist the writing process.

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE²

Dimension	Item	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation	Overall attitude
Overall understanding	10	42	1	5	4	1.082	Disagree
	13	42	2	5	4.07	1.113	
	15	42	1	5	1.43	0.914	
	19	42	1	4	1.33	0.721	
Attitude towards MT's learning-promoting effects	1	42	1	4	1.64	1.122	Strongly agree
	2	42	1	5	2.05	1.413	
	3	42	1	4	1.64	1.144	Agree
	4	42	1	4	1.48	0.862	
	5	42	1	5	1.52	1.042	Strongly agree
	6	42	1	5	1.86	1.221	
	7	42	1	5	1.9	1.284	Agree
	9	42	1	5	2	1.342	
	12	42	1	5	2.14	1.28	Strongly agree
	14	42	1	3	1.31	0.643	
	17	42	1	4	1.55	0.993	Strongly agree
	17	42	1	4	1.55	0.993	
Use of MT in the writing process	11	42	1	3	1.38	0.731	Slightly disagree
	18	42	1	5	2.6	1.251	
	20	42	1	5	2.95	1.447	
Others	8	42	1	5	3.17	1.342	Strongly agree
	16	42	1	5	1.6	1.061	

Questions 1 to 7 and 9, 12, 14, and 17 are pertinent to MT's learning-promoting effects. Most of the subjects said that MT helped to organize their ideas (73.81%, n=31), raise their awareness of text organization (61.90%, n=26), make their essays more fluent (76.19%, n=32), reduce mechanical errors (80.95%, n=34), lexical errors (85.71%, n=36) and grammatical errors (69.05%, n=29), improve lexical complexity (69.05%, n=29) and syntactic complexity (59.52%, n=25), accumulate authentic expressions (52.38%, n=22), and reduce the anxiety and nervousness they experienced in the course of writing (90.48%, n=38), which in turn enhanced their self-confidence and self-efficacy in English writing (80.95%, n=34).

Questions 11, 18, and 20 address how subjects in the experimental class utilized MT. More than 80% of the subjects used MT to correct lexical errors (85.71%, n=36) and 45.24% (n=19) corrected grammatical errors, but less than 40% employed MT to optimize the text organization (38.10%, n=16), although more than 60% believed that the incorporation of MT would help improve the awareness of text organization.

In addition, it is worth mentioning that although 83.33% (n=35) indicated that they could distinguish the difference between MT and manual translation, only 28.56% (n=12) claimed that they did not encounter any technical problems while applying MT engines, which requires writing teachers to provide adequate training for students to ensure smooth progress of the teaching process.

V. DISCUSSION

A. EFL learners' Use of MT in the Writing Process

Integrating MT in EFL writing is a novel instructional attempt in mainland China. In the current study, students were required to utilize MT in the writing process and the results revealed that students paid greater heed to the lexical level of all four revision types whether it involves replacing, adding, deleting or transposing a certain lexical item. This is explicable probably because constrained by their English proficiency low-intermediate EFL learners are more likely to notice lexical differences between two parallel texts than complicated syntactic patterns, cohesive devices or other demanding aspects. This finding is not in accordance with that of Lee's (2020) study where the subjects were more open to making grammatical changes. A robust explanation of this discrepancy might be again of relevance to the difference in the English proficiency of both student populations. The English level of Lee's (2020) subjects was between intermediate and high-intermediate, while that of the subjects in the current study was between low and intermediate. EFL learners at the intermediate and lower levels are often confusedly challenged by the lexical and grammatical errors dotted in their essays which often impede communication and lower the quality of their writing (Lee, 2014). However, compared with grammatical errors or structures, lexical items are more noticeable when two parallel texts are put side by side, probably because identification of problematic grammars may involve greater cognitive load on the part of low-proficiency learners.

² Score 1 denotes "totally agree" and score 5 "totally disagree".

Within-group comparisons might also triangulate the revision figures, which show that the experimental class significantly improved their final version through using MT. This improvement can be proved by the fact that students made more lexical and grammatical revisions in the writing process, presumably highlighting the accuracy at both levels. Previous research concluded that improved grammar is characteristic of enhanced text quality (Min, 2006) and that grammar correction promotes the communicative effectiveness of writing (Rahimi, 2009). Although lexico-grammatical accuracy is not a sole benchmark for good English writing, it can surely contribute to the quality of writing. That's why students paid more attention to these two aspects than others.

B. Impacts of MT on EFL Learners' Writing Competence

The comparisons of essay scores between groups show that the pretest scores of the control class are significantly higher than those of the experimental class, while the results are opposite in the post-test. Comparisons within the group show that the post-test scores of the experimental class are significantly higher than those of the pretest scores, with a mean difference of 12 points. The post-test scores of the control class are also significantly higher than those of the pretest, but the mean difference is less than 5 points. It can be seen that, after one semester of study, the overall writing performance of the experimental class got much better than that of the control class. The courses completed by the two classes in one semester were almost identical, and the writing course was also undertaken by the same teacher. Therefore, the difference in post-test scores between the two classes is likely to be closely related to MT's integration into the writing process. Presumably we can draw a conclusion with a certain confidence that MT engines as CALL tools can improve the overall writing ability of EFL learners. The results of this study are consistent with those of Garcia and Pena (2011), O'Neill (2012), O'Brien (2018) and Lee (2020), but these studies are not entirely aimed at EFL learners, with the first two studies taking Spanish and French learners as their subjects respectively.

Now that MT is instrumental in enhancing learners' overall writing proficiency, in what aspects can its auxiliary function be highlighted? In order to clarify this question, this study made a quantitative analysis of the textual features of all compositions produced by students in both classes. Statistical analyses show that, in terms of accuracy, the experimental class performed significantly worse than the control class in the pretest, but did significantly better in the post-test. Within-group comparisons found that the experimental class did significantly better in the post-test than in the pretest, while for the control class there existed no significant difference. It shows that the accuracy of essays in the experimental class underwent substantial amelioration. As for lexical complexity, there is no significant difference between the two classes in the pretest, and the experimental class did significantly better than the control class in the post-test. The within-group comparisons show that the lexical complexity indices of the experimental class increased significantly, while only the U index and K2+ indices of the control class witnessed a significant increase. The results of accuracy and lexical complexity are the same as those of most studies in this field, that is, MT helps to reduce linguistic errors and enrich the lexical knowledge of language learners (Amaral & Meurers, 2011).

At the fluency level, no significant difference arose between the experimental class and the control class in both pretest and post-test. The essays produced by both classes in the post-test were significantly longer than those produced in the pretest, with an average difference of 65 words for the experimental class and 76.425 words for the control class respectively. The fluency of both classes has improved, but the improvement of the control class is more obvious than that of the experimental class. The improvement of fluency might be a natural growth in the teaching process, which might not have direct relation with the auxiliary function of MT. The results of fluency index in this study are inconsistent with those of Garcia and Pena (2011), which indicated that MT could especially help beginners to communicate more. In the present study, the growth trend of syntactic complexity in both classes is similar to the fluency index, which is consistent with the results of Garcia and Pena (2011), which pointed out that MT could not make the sentence structures more complicated due to the low language level and the low rate of syntactic modifications by learners. Therefore, it is likely that the differences in the results of the two studies might be ascribed to the asymmetry in subjects' language proficiency. The subjects in our study are low-intermediate English learners, while the subjects in Garcia and Pena (2011) were Spanish beginners. However, whether learners' language proficiency will affect the learning-promoting effect of MT needs further confirmation in future research.

At the coherence level, there is no significant difference within and between groups in the pretest and post-test. This can be illustrated by the low rate of revisions at this level in the writing process. The results of this study are consistent with those in the existing studies, some of which pointed out that MT was not helpful to learners in improving the coherence of their essays (Groves & Mundt, 2015).

To sum up, the improvement in scores of the experimental class is mainly due to the improvement of essay accuracy and lexical complexity. Integrating MT into EFL writing process is especially helpful to reduce language errors in students' essays and enables students to accumulate and use more complex vocabulary.

C. EFL Learners' Perceptions of MT in English Writing Instruction

The questionnaire data prove that the students in the experimental class have a generally positive attitude towards the integration of MT into EFL writing instruction. They believed that the process of MT-assisted writing could improve their overall writing ability, and especially help consolidate their lexical and grammatical foundations. This results obtained from the questionnaires largely confirm those displayed in Table 3 to Table 6, and are equally consistent with the results of Lee (2020) which revealed that most subjects believed the effectiveness of MT in improving their overall

writing competence and helping them properly use words and authentic expressions in a specific context, and that a majority of the subjects would continue to use MT to locate words suitable in diverse contexts and raise their meta-linguistic awareness of vocabulary and grammar by comparing the differences between manual and automatic translations. In the emotional dimension, the subjects in the current study believed that MT-assisted writing could reduce their anxiety in the writing process and enhance their self-confidence and self-efficacy in English writing, which is in agreement with the research results of Bahri and Mahadi (2016) and Niño (2009). A rational explanation might be that integrating MT into the writing process presumably frees students from bearing huge cognitive load in the writing process, especially for students whose language proficiency remains at an intermediate or lower level, and thus the advantages of MT in this regard appear more prominent.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS & CONCLUSION

The research results have implications for language teaching. This study finds that MT can be used as an effective teaching aid, so EFL teachers can integrate it into writing instruction and explore its potentials as a CALL tool. As Correa (2014) pointed out, MT technology is constantly improving, and the quality of translation is getting increasingly higher. Against the background of growing demand for MT, EFL writing teachers need to accept its existence reasonably, rather than completely ignore it. However, EFL teachers should pay attention to the fact that no tool serves as a panacea for language teaching. The original intention of designing translation engines is not to promote language learning. In order to benefit learners from MT, teachers must put it in an appropriate position in language learning, instead of relying entirely on it, and give students sufficient guidance on how best to realize its fullest potentials, and inform learners of its strengths and weaknesses (Bahri & Mahadi, 2016).

The current study is significant in that it empirically examined three dimensions, namely the process, product and perceptions related to the utilization of MT in EFL writing instruction. However, the number of subjects is small, which may undermine the generalization of the results, so it is better for future researchers to carry out empirical studies involving different student populations. What deserves a special mention is that the influence of other factors on writing results is not considered. For example, the use of different translation engines and the difference in individual EFL learner's language level are not taken into account. Furthermore, the experimental environment may also affect the research results. Students in the experimental class first finished the paper-and-pencil writing tasks in class, and then completed manual and machine translations, compared both versions and revised the written products on the computer, while students in the control class only finished the paper-and-pencil writing tasks. If all the subjects finished the writing tasks in the laboratory environment, it would be unclear whether the research results will be consistent with the results obtained in the present study. Finally, in view of the popularity of AWE (automated writing evaluation) systems in EFL writing classrooms, comparisons can be made between the effects of AWE systems and MT engines as CALL tools on EFL writing instruction, or their synergistic effects on learners' writing ability can be elucidated.

APPENDIX

1. Pretest and post-test writing prompt

Should young criminals be treated in the same way as adults by authorities? This issue has been intensely discussed for years. Give your views on the issue in about 200 words. Marks will be awarded for content relevance, content sufficiency, organization and language quality.

2. Rating rubrics for TEM-4 writing

Score band	Descriptors
14 points	Fully achieves relevance to the topic; clearly presents ideas; skillfully manages cohesion and coherence; uses a wide range of sophisticated lexical and syntactic structures with basically no language errors.
11 points	Achieves great relevance to the topic; clearly presents ideas; uses a range of cohesive devices although there may be some over/under-use; uses complex lexical and syntactic structures with occasional minor language errors.
8 points	Achieves relevance to the topic; generally presents ideas in a clear and coherent way; attempts to use uncommon lexical items and complex syntactic structures although there are many language errors, including a few serious ones which may distort the message.
5 points	Basically achieves relevance to the topic; fails to clearly present ideas in a clear enough way; fails to make the whole essay a coherent one; uses a wide range of high-frequency lexical items and simple and fragmented syntactic structures; commits many serious language errors which distort the message.
2 points	Does not achieve relevance to the topic; presents ideas illogically and incoherently; uses high-frequency lexical items and cannot use sentence forms; commits a wide range of serious mistakes which distort the message.
0 point	Fails to communicate any message relevant to the topic, or writes only a few words, or writes a completely memorized response.

3. Information on textual indices

Dimension	Indices	Code	Computing tool
Lexical complexity	Lexical Diversity	LD	L2 Lexical Complexity Analyzer
	Lexical Variation	LV	
	Uber Index	U	
	Words beyond the frequency of 1-2000	K2 ⁺	
Fluency	Essay Length	W	L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyzer
Syntactic complexity	Mean T-unit Length	MTL	
	Ration of Complex T-unit	CT/T	
	Stem Overlap in Adjacent Sentence	CRFSO	
Discourse coherence	Argument Overlap in Adjacent Sentences	CRFAO	Coh-Metrix 3.0
	LSA Overlap in Adjacent Paragraphs	LSAPP	
	All Connective Incidence	CNCALL	
	Pronoun Incidence	WRDPRO	

4. Open-ended questionnaire (translated from Chinese)

1. Do you use any tools to revise your essays after class?

2. Do you think these tools can help you improve your writing competence? If so, in what ways?

5. Attitude questionnaire (translated from Chinese)

<p>This is a questionnaire concerning your views on incorporating MT into English writing. Tick only one choice in the bank for each question. There are no right or wrong answers. We appreciate your honest answers. Thank you!</p>	Strongly disagree	disagree	uncertain	agree	Strongly agree
1. Writing in Chinese prior to manual translation helps organize ideas.					
2. Revising manual translation using MT raises textual organization awareness.					
3. Referring to MT while revising essays helps reduce mechanical errors.					
4. Writing with MT reduces anxiety and nervousness in the writing process.					
5. Revising essays with MT reduces lexical errors in writing.					
6. Writing with MT enhances my confidence in the writing process.					
7. Revising essays with MT reduces grammatical errors in writing.					
8. I meet no technical problems in using MT engines.					
9. Using MT as an auxiliary tool enables me to write more fluently.					
10. MT is inaccurate and cannot help with my English writing.					
11. I often refer to MT to revise lexical errors in my own translation.					
12. By referring to MT I can use complicated words properly.					
13. Referring to MT does little help to improving my writing ability.					
14. Referring to MT helps me write complicated sentence structures properly.					
15. The process of “writing Chinese—manually translating—MT—comparing manual and MT versions—revising” helps improve my writing ability.					
16. I can tell the difference between manual translations and MT versions.					
17. I can learn many authentic expressions from MT versions.					
18. I often refer to MT to revise grammatical errors in writing.					
19. I will use MT engines to help with writing in the future.					
20. I often consult MT versions to correct coherence problems in manual translations.					

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Revitalizing Local Wisdom in Balinese Simile: An Effort to Enhance Balinese Youth Character

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Abstract—The moral message in local languages is often referred to as local wisdom. Local wisdom plays a very important role in people's lives since it is used as a means and basis for solving their encountered various problems. As one of the big local languages in Indonesia, the Balinese language contains many figurative languages that are rich in local wisdom values. The values have proven to be a shield to protect the Balinese people and their culture from the globalization attack. For this reason, local wisdom found in Balinese figurative language needs to be revitalized to be understood and implemented by the younger generation of Bali. One of the figurative languages studied in this study is the simile. Similes of the Balinese language are studied by combining three approaches, namely ecolinguistic, pragmatic, and cultural approaches, to reach detailed analysis results. Simile as part of a metaphor is an expression or discourse conveyed by the speaker indirectly to the interlocutor with certain aims and objectives. The ecolinguistic approach examines the form, function, and meaning or ideology contained in metaphorical language. Meanwhile, a pragmatic approach and a cultural approach are used to assist the ecolinguistic approach in uncovering the functions of figurative language in society and explaining the meaning or ideology existing in Balinese society. The values were reviewed for relevance to the current people's lives contaminated by information technology and tourism development.

Index Terms—Balinese language, ecolinguistic, local wisdom, simile

I. INTRODUCTION

As part of Balinese culture, the Balinese language is a means of communication among the speakers and is also used as a medium to transfer various messages and moral values of Balinese people. For this reason, the Balinese language is worth maintaining and preserving so that the values contained in the language can be well maintained. The values found in some expressions of the language have existed since a hundred years ago, and the people have believed in the truth of the values, and up to now, the values have been recognized and used as guidelines in their social life. The values are identified in Balinese local wisdom. The local wisdom wrapped in the Balinese language is not always expressed in a direct form. Still, some are conveyed indirectly through a certain language style, which is often identified as figurative language, which contains non-literal meanings or not real meanings. Such language is often used to maintain language manners, convey certain moral messages, or keep the speech situation under control. The figurative language used in Balinese discourse needs to be revitalized so that the young Balinese generation can understand Balinese figurative language and the noble values used as the basis for their life in the current modern society.

The number of researches that reveal figurative language as a medium to wrap for moral, ethical, and other Balinese cultural values is still limited. Moreover, research that integrates several approaches to examine the form, function, meaning, and ideology that guides people's lives contained in Balinese figurative language is hardly found. So far, studies on Balinese figurative language have focused on one type of figurative, namely metaphor. It is known that many other figurative types have not been completely studied. One of them is the simile. Balinese simile is also considered to have a very high message and values concerning socio-cultural life. These values have been recognized as a part of Balinese culture and a way of life for Balinese people from the past. This is becoming important to study since, in the current situation, Bali has been attacked by a moral crisis, especially for the millennial generation. The local wisdom is expected to be the social guard to protect the young generation from global tourism and information technology development.

Balinese millennials seem to be very shackled by the rapid advances in information technology. Balinese people must immediately be aware of this phenomenon. One alternative solution that can help improve and develop the character of the younger generation is to increase their love for their local language. When they love and use their local language

very well, they can understand the moral values. Values often found in simile can be well understood and used as the basic principle in their daily activities.

Several studies related to this research topic are described. Metaphor has traditionally been seen as the most widely and most frequently figurative that is used by people (Saeed, 1997). Metaphor is something similar to a metaphor (simile). Metaphor is something outside normal language and requires certain forms for listeners to interpret it. Arnawa analyzes the forms and references of metaphors in Balinese (Arnawa, 2016). He says that basically, the use of metaphors is motivated by the principles of cooperation and politeness. The research has not yet explored the function of each form of metaphor and what it has to do with the social life of the Balinese people. Rajistha examines the various metaphors in Balinese (Rajistha, 2016). However, his research has not revealed the relationship of form in its use and meaning of moral values contained in metaphor. Thus, its relation to the sociological and ideological aspects of the Balinese speaking community cannot be explained. Ponsonnet examines the correlation between figurative language and its conceptual representation that occurs due to language shift. Ponsonnet sees figurative language only from a pragmatic point of view (Ponsonnet, 2017).

Burgers, Lavalette, and Steen, examine metaphor, hyperbole, and irony in discourse texts (Burgers et al., 2018). Their research emphasizes the analysis in terms of the combination and collocation of the three figurative languages. In addition, their research focuses on the structure and does not touch on figurative language in an eco-pragmatic way. Carston reveals that mental imaging due to understanding a metaphor is not related to language understanding metaphorically, but it exists because of the linguistic and pragmatic process of the readers (Carston, 2018). Augé examines the structure of the concept of nurturing parents and strict fathers from a metaphorical point of view (Augé 2019). Augé reveals that the metaphorical scenario applied to analyze the two concepts of nurturing parent and strict father revealed variations in meaning socio-culturally and linguistically. Jensen and Greve explain that metaphor is a product related to the organism-environment system. In this case, the metaphorical meaning of a metaphor is related and is a projection of organism and environment (Jensen & Greve, 2019).

Adıgüzel examines the metaphorical concept of love suffering associated with natural phenomena and natural disasters (Adıgüzel, 2020). He explains the relationship between concepts obtained from nature and the feelings felt by the human body. Salas-Zárate et al. study the use of figurative language on social media, and they reveal that the figurative language that is often used in social media is sarcasm (Salas-Zárate et al., 2020). Al-Azary, Gagné and Spalding analyze conceptual metaphors related to human experience, especially those related to water and air, which are further explained as hydro-aero (Al-Azary et al., 2020). The research mapped metaphors related to hydro-aero based on their characteristics and structures and reveals that the natural lexicon is also used in metaphors. Winter, Duffy, and Littlemore examine the understanding of metaphors related to power, gender, and individual differences (Winter et al., 2020). This study emphasizes the influence of social class, gender, and individual characteristics on understanding metaphors, and it can be stated that the same metaphor can be interpreted differently.

This study is not only useful for maintaining the existence of Balinese among some foreign languages studied by people in Bali because of economic reasons. However, more than that, the introduction and understanding of human values that have existed for a long time wrapped in figurative language may positively impact the character improvement of the young Balinese generation.

II. METHOD

A research method plays an important role in research, considering that the method is a systematic way of working to achieve the expected purpose (Djajasudarma, 1993; Sudaryanto, 1993). This qualitative descriptive study aims to describe data related to the existing local community values. To make this study successful, data were collected by implementing the appropriate method. Data of this research are identified into spoken and written data related to the figurative discourse of the Balinese language. The spoken data were collected from Balinese language informants living in Bali. Informants were selected intentionally (purposive sampling) (Bungin, 2003). Some requirements due to get good informants to include: adult Balinese native speakers, mastering terms related to Balinese culture (including Balinese religion and customs), not much affected by other languages, be competent/intelligent, be capable of good language, have sufficient time, have mental readiness to become an informant, and have good articulation tools (Bawa, 1992; Samarin, 1988). These requirements are needed because not all speakers from different levels can master and use figurative language in their daily communication. The written data were obtained from several written works using the Balinese language. The written data were collected from some works in the form of folk tales widely well known by the people. The research data were collected through observation and interview methods assisted by recording and note-taking techniques.

III. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. Local Wisdom in Balinese Simile

Balinese similes are used to compare something with another form by using markers *buka* or *cara* 'like or as.' The study shows that Balinese similes can use references in the form of inanimate objects, animals, and plants from a biological aspect. From a sociological aspect, Balinese similes convey orders, requests, satire, praise, and suggestions.

Then from the ideological perspective, the similes show that Balinese people are very close to their environment and appreciate their environment. Even the environment inspires people to understand moral values that need to be considered in their social life. Some examples of Balinese similes are as follows:

1. *Buka Be Bonane, Dawanan Bungut: 'Like the Bona Fish, Have Long Mouth'*

Simile in the form of noun phrase *buka be bonane* 'like the bona fish' with its denotative referent *dawanan bungut* 'to have long mouth' is a kind of simile to compare human with the bona fish metaphorically. This simile is often used to insinuate someone who wants to spread out what someone else says to other people and often adds some extra words to make other people get angry or disappointed. This act certainly does not show good behavior to follow, and people are advised to avoid such acts. The simile uses a type of fauna from a biological aspect, namely *be bona* 'bona fish.' Balinese people know such a type of fish with a long mouth, considering that this fish could be found in all waters area in Bali. Coastal communities often catch the fish and sell them in traditional markets. Because this type of fish is very familiar to people, the meaning of the simile is easy to understand widely. Viewed from the sociological aspect, the function of the simile is to insinuate someone or give advice or suggestion to others not to do the actions referred to by the parable or simile because it can damage one's relationship. This simile is often used to make someone bring into conflict with others. An example of its use can be seen in the following example.

Yen cening dot ngelah timpal liu, De cara be bonane, dawanan bungut.

'If you wish to have lots of friends, don't be like bona fish, with a long mouth.'

Meaning: If you want to make lots of friends, you may not talk useless words or unnecessary things about someone to others. This simile also means that we may not make someone conflict with others because of our behavior.

2. *Buka Bikule Pisuhin, Sumingkin Bejit: 'Like A Rat Is Cursed, It Is Getting Naughty/Wicked/Bad.'*

The simile is a metaphor for cursed people. In fact, they are getting naughty and are increasingly unmanageable. This simile is useful for expressing satire, and it can even be used to advise others not to treat other people or their children, as described by the simile. It can be seen in the following example.

Ngajahin pianak anak nagih ati-ati, da kanti buka bikule pisuhin, sumingkin bejit.

'Teaching teenagers should be careful, not to be like a cursed rat, it is getting naughty/wicked/bad/unmanageable.'

Meaning: Be careful to teach young people, while we treat them hard, and as if they are cursed, they will be getting unmanageable/uncontrolled. Thus, we have to touch them softly and know their situation and condition well.

The suggestion conveyed through the simile is that we need to be careful in educating young people. If we treat them unwell or rant at them, they will become much naughtier and cannot be well controlled. Biologically, this simile is formed by the fauna *bikul* 'rat,' and the animal is very close to Balinese life and Indonesian agrarian society. Rats are animals that often destroy the rice plants, so that rats are given special behavior in Balinese life. To make rats not destroy the rice plants, Balinese people make special offerings on certain days to be specially offered to the God of the rat. With the holy offering, the people hope there is no massive rat attack on their rice plants. The people also have a special nickname for this animal. It is called *Jero Ketut*. This name is exactly a call name usually intended for high-level people. Thus, if the rats are cursed, it is believed that something undesirable will happen, such as a massive attack on the farmers' rice. That is why the above simile is very popular in Balinese society.

3. *Buka Naar Kerupuke, Gedenan Kroakan 'Like Eating Crackers, It Sounds Loudly.'*

The meaning of the simile is like a person who claims himself to be smart, intelligent, and has a lot of experience, but in fact, he doesn't have the ability to do or complete any works provided to him very well. The simile is formed by the inanimate noun *kerupuk* 'Indonesian crackers,' a snack people like in Indonesia. Krupuk is a cheap and easily available meal and is often used as a side dish with rice for lunch and dinner by people living in rural and urban areas. When the crackers are eaten, there will be a sound, and even the sound is sometimes very loud. That is why people easily understand the connotative meaning of the simile. This figurative is often used to criticize someone or give advice to someone hoping that he does not act as stated in the simile. When the speakers use the simile to insinuate, the addressees do not feel hurt or angry because the satire is in the form indirect sentence. This can be seen in the following example.

Cai buka naar krupuk, gedenan kroakan

'You are like people who are eating crackers, big sound'

Meaning: This simile expresses someone who works a little, but he says/claims much. He says to everyone that he has done many things, but in reality, he did nothing.

The example of the simile once occurred when a group of people was talking, and one of them said that he was an expert in many things and he was able to do various works well and perfectly so that many people wanted to hire him. However, the other speaker(s) knew him very well, especially about his capacity, contrary to what he said. Then, a speaker who was involved in the conversation said like a simile.

4. *Buka Jangkrike, Galak Di Bungut 'As Cricket, Only Dare in the Mouth.'*

This simile has also been very popular in Balinese society since a long time ago. From the biological aspect, *jangkrik* 'crickets' are animals or fauna very close to the rural Balinese people. The sound of crickets at night has been very familiar to the ears of Balinese people, especially those who live in the rural area. Currently, many young Balinese do not know the animal, and even people who live in urban areas whose homes are surrounded by asphalt and paving, almost have never heard the sound of crickets. They have never seen the animal anymore. The simile is often used to convey advice, advice, and also satire. An example of its use can be seen below.

Yen dadi idih bli, da cai cara jangkerike, galak di bungut dogen.

'If possible, don't be like a cricket, only dare to speak and never dare to execute anything.'

Meaning: We have to dare to do something or wish to do and not only dare to speak.

5. *Buka Payane, Disisi Maukir Ditengahne Ngasumba 'Like A Bitter Melon, The Skin Is Etched But The Inside Is Red'*

This simile is often used to insinuate someone whose behavior is not good. For instance, the way he talks is good and polite, but his mind is not good, and he even often wants to harm others. The simile is very important to teach the younger generation not to behave like what the simile express. Thus, the figurative of simile is often used to convey advice, suggestion, or tell others to be careful with someone who has the behavior as the simile metaphors. Seen from the biological aspect, the simile uses the noun *buah pare* 'bitter melon,' a vegetable fruit Balinese people often consume. Although it tastes bitter, many people like it. The real thing seen in people's lives related to the simile is that there are people whose appearance and way of speaking are good and attractive, but in fact, they have evil hearts, and they are full of envy and jealousy and can never accept others' success. The simile is still relevant for young people to know today. The example can be seen below.

Ati-ati ajak jelemanen ento, ia anak tan perah irine teken keluarga iragane, ia sing bisa noli anak len berhasil.

Yen umpamaang la nak buka payane, disisina dogen maukir sakewale ditengahne ngasumba.

'Be careful with that guy. He is indeed very jealous of our family, and he can't see other people get successful in their life. He is **like a bitter melon whose performance/look is good and friendly, but not in his heart**'.

Meaning: Someone who looks good, polite, and friendly does not always mean good and fine to everyone, but sometimes he feels bad to someone else because of some reason.

6. *Buka Goake, Ngadanin Ibane 'Like A Crow, Always Calls/Names Itself.'*

This simile uses *goak* 'crow,' a bird that is also familiar to the Balinese people. The color of this bird is black, and when flying, it always makes a sound, and its voice is loud enough, and people can hear it. Its sound is 'goak...goak...goak...' as its name in Balinese. I think that is the reason why the animal is used as a metaphor in Balinese. This simile is often used to insinuate or give advice to others. An example of the use of the simile is as follows.

Ia nak mula care goake, ngadanin ibane. Onyang sube nawang keto.

'He's like a crow who is **naming or calling himself**. Everyone has recognized him well.'

Meaning: It is like a person who claims himself (very) great, but the reality is contradictory.

7. *Buka Cicinge Ngongkong, Tuara Pingenan Nyegut 'Like A Barking Dog, Will Never Bite.'*

Various level people in Bali very well know this simile. From the biological aspect, the lexicon uses the animal *name cicing* 'dog' as one of the familiar animals in Bali. Everyone knows this animal since it is one of the Balinese family's favorite pets. Sociologically, in daily Balinese communication, the simile is often used as a form of satire. Insinuation conveyed indirectly by this simile is applied effectively as the person being insinuated is not angry or offended. That is because the simile contains a joke value. The example is as follows.

De cai takut. Ia anak care cicinge ngongkong, tuara pingenan nyegut.

'Don't be afraid. He is just like a barking dog **that will never bite**.'

Meaning: Someone who talks much usually does not do anything. So, we must not be deceived by the intelligence of a person who speaks a lot. Speaking a lot does not always mean being intelligent.

8. *Buka Macane, Nakutin Lawat Padidi 'Like A Tiger, Afraid Of His Own Shadow'*

The simile is used to describe someone who is worried or afraid of what he has done. The simile uses the lexicon *macan* 'tiger,' one of the wild animals the people know. The simile uses lexicon *macan* 'tiger' because the animal looks very scary, and it is depicted that the tiger himself was shocked and afraid when he saw his scary shadow. An example of the use of the simile is as follows.

Ia pepes ngae ugig di gumine, dadine ia buka macane, nakutin lawatne padidi. Sing taen juari kebale banjar.

'He often does bad things in society, so he is like a tiger who **is afraid of his own shadow**. That is why he never dared to come to the public hall.'

Meaning: Someone who frequently makes mistakes or makes others suffer. He usually feels ashamed to come to a public area. He is worried if others will bully him.

9. *Buka Nakep Balange Dadua, Buka Dadua Tuara Bakat 'Like Catching Two Grasshoppers, Neither Can Be Successfully Caught.'*

The simile is in the form of the simple clause *nakep balange*, 'catching grasshoppers.' Biologically, the simile uses

the lexicon of *balang* 'grasshopper', one of the famous insects found in the rice field. Farmers in Indonesia often catch grasshoppers in their rice fields because, in addition to grasshoppers as pests of rice plants, the insects can also be used as a side dish. That is why the clause *nakep balang*, 'catching grasshoppers,' has become a very popular activity in Balinese society. The simile *buka nakep balange dadua, buka dadua tuara bakat* 'like catching two grasshoppers, neither can be successfully caught' is often used to convey advice and satire. The connotative meaning of the simile reflects a greedy person who wants to get two or more things simultaneously, but in fact, he gets nothing. The use of the simile can be seen below.

Yen dot berhasil, de cai buka anak nakep balang dadue, buka dadua nyanan tuara bakat.

'If you want to be successful at a work, don't be like catching two grasshoppers at once; neither can be caught.'

Meaning: Don't be a greedy man! We can not do a lot of things successfully at the same time. Success needs a process. In doing something, we must focus on one job until we can get good and satisfactory results.

10. *Buka Padine, Yening Misi Nguntul Tur Yening Puyung Nyeleg* 'Like Rice Plant, When It Is Full, It Bends Down, And When It Is Empty It Stands Up.'

This simile is also related to Balinese life. Simile using lexicon *padi* 'rice' becomes popular since Balinese used to work as farmers and rice is too close to them. The simile is often used to convey advice. Giving advice indirectly with the simile is quite effective in the Balinese community. The connotative meaning found in the simile is: People who have a lot of knowledge will be silent and show more polite behavior. However, people who speak a lot and pretend to know many things usually have little knowledge and experience, often show bad behavior, and often appear arrogant. Balinese people prefer making friends with people who don't talk much, look polite, and have knowledge and experience. Balinese commonly do not like people who talk much, but in fact, they know nothing. The use of the simile can be seen in the following example.

Iraga mestine buka padine, ane misi nguntul, ane puyung nyeleg.

'We must be like a rice plant. When it is full, it bends down, and when it is empty, it stands up.'

Meaning: We are not so proud when we are rich in money, intelligence, and experiences. Otherwise, we have to be polite, friendly and fine to everyone.

All of the presented examples of simile, when we analyze more closely, they contain a lot of local wisdom. The Balinese local wisdom is part of the local community knowledge that emerges from the adaptation of the Balinese community based on their daily life experiences, and the knowledge is communicated from generation to generation. However, today there is a lot of Balinese local wisdom that encounters some difficulties to transfer. Most of the younger generation do not know the local wisdom that has existed since several years ago. This becomes a serious problem to solve so that the local wisdom needs to be transferred to the next generation. This becomes very important considering that local wisdom is full of knowledge that contains meaning and messages that could guide people to survive and become gentle human beings with their character. Balinese social life that upholds local wisdom has made Bali very famous in the world. At the same time, Balinese people are also able to adapt to the immigrant people. Until now, Bali has become the best tourist destination in Indonesia for both foreign and domestic visitors.

The local wisdom that has been becoming the basis of Balinese life for many years are such as (1) *Tri Hita Karana*: values related to harmonization between human and God, between human and other humans, and between human and nature; (2) *Tri Kaya Parisuda*: the value of the unification of three elements, namely thinking, speaking, and behaving well; (3) *Salunglung sabayantaka*: social values related to equality and solidarity; (4) *Tatwan Asi*: values about mutual respect and respect for others; and (5) *Manyama Braya*: values about the importance of brotherhood and working together to finish works or to solve the encountered problems. These values teach us that humans as social beings are important to understand these values considering that humans cannot live alone without any helps and attention from others.

B. *Simile as a Platform to Enhance Balinese Youth Character*

Currently, Balinese people, especially the younger generation, tend to suffer moral degradation. This is one of the impacts of the rapid development of information technology and global community mobilization. The moral degradation of the young society is certainly a problem that needs to be solved immediately. One way that can be done is with a cultural approach. The cultural approach dealing with improving the morality and character of the community is through exploring the noble values of the community known as local wisdom. Local wisdom can be explored through local languages, one of which is through figurative language, in this study is the simile. This is the reason why it is important to preserve the local language.

Balinese simile contains many noble values that become the local wisdom of the community. Examples of similes discussed in this study have become evidence that Balinese communication often uses similes to convey certain messages like suggestions, advice, and satire. Balinese community creates simile in a certain way to avoid conflict or offense when they intend to give each other advice, suggestion, and satire. The use of simile as an indirect way is effective in Balinese society. Basically, the use of simile is motivated by the principles of cooperation and politeness in communication. For this reason, the use of similes needs to be preserved and developed in the life of modern society currently.

In another way, the young generation's understanding of Balinese towards figurative language needs to be improved so that they can use figurative language, including similes, in conveying certain messages when communicating in Balinese. This is a good strategy to improve the character of the young Balinese generation. This is why the local wisdom of Balinese related to moral and ethical learning that has been tested since ancient times needs to be preserved for the younger generation in the future.

IV. CONCLUSION

Balinese people have a lot of local wisdom that has grown up and developed for a long time. The local wisdom has become the frame and basis of Balinese socio-cultural life. A lot of local wisdom is stored in the local language, likewise in the Balinese language. For instance, Balinese similes contain many noble values that are now identified as local wisdom. Messages that are often conveyed through simile are in the form of suggestions, advice, and satire. The community creates simile as a means to transfer moral values to one another. The form of simile as an indirect way of giving advice, suggestion, and advice or satire to others is very effective in society.

For this reason, the use of simile and other kinds of figurative needs to be preserved and developed and continued in the life of modern society today. Seen from its form, Balinese simile can use the lexicon of both animate and inanimate objects. The study results found that the connotative meaning contained in all similes indicates that Balinese people are so close to their environment, and they need harmonization in life and prioritize politeness in speaking and doing something.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank the Rector of Warmadewa University for the research grant in the academic year 2021. We also would like to thank A. A Raka (the expert of Balinese culture), Jro Mangku Jasa (the priest of Balinese family temple), Nyoman Kertiasih (a housewife in a traditional village), I Ketut Darmaja (a farmer), and other Balinese friends for being informants in this study.

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Saudi EFL Learners' FLA: Levels, Causes, Gender, and Impact on Academic Performance

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Abstract—As a common psycholinguistic barrier that hinders EFL learning, Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) has become an important study area in EFL learning and teaching. This study investigated the level and causes of FLA among 69 first-year EFL learners at Bisha University in Saudi Arabia. The influence of gender on the level of FLA was also examined. Moreover, the study examined the impact of FLA on the participants' language achievement. The researchers utilized a modified version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel were used to analyse the data. The results showed that most learners typically had a moderate level of FLA caused by communication apprehension and fears related to negative feedback and language tests. The results also revealed that gender does not affect the level of FLA. In addition, the results indicated that high levels of FLA among learners had a significant impact on their performance. Based on these findings, this study provided recommendations for teachers to mitigate the causes of FLA.

Index Terms—Saudi EFL learners, communication apprehension, fear of negative feedback, fear of language tests

I. INTRODUCTION

It is well-known that English serves as the lingua franca of the global community. It is used extensively for communication in and between multilingual countries. As a result of globalisation, it is pivotal to effective participation in commerce, technology, and business today. Learning English has become essential in Saudi Arabia (SA) because immense transformations in the Saudi socioeconomic state of affairs have necessitated more emphasis on EFL education (Alotaibi, 2014). Faruk (2013) indicates that the Saudi Ministry of Education has asserted the importance of the English language as a vehicle to obtain knowledge in various fields. Over time, Saudi learners' needs regarding the acquisition of English have evolved from merely wanting to pass examinations to pursuing a genuine desire to acquire knowledge of the language, fuelled by the particular requirements of global communication and employment. These diverse everyday and workplace communication needs an acceptable level of English proficiency. However, researchers have reported that Saudi Learners of English as a Foreign Language (Saudi EFL learners) lack such levels of proficiency (Fareh, 2010; Khan, 2011; Al-Shammakhi & Al-Humaidi, 2015).

It has been widely reported that Saudi EFL learners experience difficulties acquiring the English language. Alshanrani (2016) has demonstrated that Saudi EFL learners are still not proficient enough, despite the Saudi government undertaking EFL teaching and learning reforms by introducing the English language in primary schools in 2001. These poor results may be attributed to how learners attempt to acquire the language or how they feel while learning it; they may use methods of learning that are not suitable for them, which causes them to feel frustrated while learning it. In addition, many psychological factors like motivation and learning anxiety play a crucial role in EFL learners' achievements and performance over time (Abu-Ghararah, 1999; Mohammed, 2015; Alrabai, 2016). Anxiety particular to foreign language classrooms is called Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), which MacIntyre (1999, p. 27) defines as "the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language." Several studies have examined learning anxiety in educational settings and found that EFL learners experience FLA, which negatively affects their performance (Melouah, 2013; Killu, Marc & Crundwell, 2016; Melchor-Couto, 2017).

When it comes to learning a foreign language, anxiety may prevent language inputs from reaching the learner's mind and activating the language acquisition process (Krashen, 1982). According to Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis on second language acquisition, high anxiety results in mental blocks that prevent inputs from reaching the student's mind and thus accelerating the language learning process. Researchers have also identified some reasons for FLA, including communication apprehension, the perceptions of teachers and colleagues, lack of self-esteem, low language proficiency, fear of negative feedback, and fear of conversing with native speakers. They have also confirmed that anxiety is one of the most common psycholinguistic barriers affecting language learning (Alrabai, 2016; Zheng & Cheng, 2018; Manipuspika, 2018; Pérez, 2018; Al-Khotaba, Alkhataba, Abdul-Hamid, & Bashir, 2019). The main

sources of foreign language anxiety among Saudi EFL learners are fear of negative evaluation, communication apprehension, comprehension apprehension, and language tests (Al-Saraj, 2013).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A sizable body of literature has shed light on FLA in different parts of the world. Several researchers have considered FLA levels and sources and their impact on learning (Chan and Wu, 2004; Awan, Azher, Nadeem and Naz, 2010; Melouah, 2013; Zheng and Cheng, 2018; Hakim, 2019; Bensalem, 2020). For example, in Taiwan, Chan and Wu (2004) found that the five primary sources of FLA for EFL learners were low proficiency, fear of negative evaluation, competition anxiety, anxious personality, other students' feedback, and parental pressure. Meanwhile, Park and Lee's (2005) Korea-based study identified the relationship between college-level EFL learners' anxiety and oral performances, indicating that FLA had a significantly debilitating impact on their oral performance.

Awan et al. (2010) found that the three main causes of FLA in Pakistan were speaking in front of others, concerns about grammatical and pronunciation mistakes, and the inability to speak spontaneously. They also reported that FLA had an incapacitating impact on English as a second language (ESL) learners' achievement. Also, in Pakistan, Bhatti, Memon and Pathan (2016) investigated the factors that influenced FLA among 145 college ESL learners, finding that communication apprehension was the most prominent cause of anxiety among these intermediate-level students. This factor was followed by the fear of evaluation (either by teachers or by other students' feelings about their low proficiency), lack of confidence, nervousness, and lack of practice in various social contexts (Bhatti, Memon and Pathan, 2016). In Algeria, Melouah (2013) found that first-year license-master-doctorate (LMD) students had a debilitating FLA type in their speaking-skill classrooms, negatively affecting their speaking performance. Melouah's results also revealed six possible causes of FLA: fear of interactions; students' perceptions of the teacher and other students; lack of self-confidence; limited language proficiency; fear of negative correction and evaluation; fear of speaking with native speakers.

Also, Bensalem's (2017) Tunisian study concluded that EFL trilingual learners (male and female) experienced low and average levels of FLA, respectively, that could be attributed to the fear of failure in tests, English speaking apprehension, and classroom-related anxiety. Bensalem's study also showed that FLA had a debilitating impact on the learners' academic achievement, although it did not reveal significant differences in FLA between male and female English learners. In Kuwait, Salem and Abu Al Dyyar (2014) examined the differences between male and female EFL private primary school students in oral fluency and speaking anxiety, finding significant differences between male and female students' oral fluency, with males showing superior results. Moreover, Zheng and Cheng's (2018) investigation set in China found that FLA and cognitive tests were not significant predictors of university students' test performance. Although the participants did not perceive being anxious in either the classroom or testing settings at university, they did admit to feeling anxious when practicing English speaking skills in the classroom. Zheng and Cheng called for a better understanding of FLA to help teachers and students enhance their EFL teaching and learning practices.

In the Saudi context, Mohammed's (2015) Saudi-based research found that English language learners in Community College and the Faculty of Education at Shaqra University had a moderate anxiety level, negatively related to their academic performance. The study concluded that the fear of language tests was one of the causes of FLA among Saudi students and their social, environmental, cultural, and religious beliefs. Meanwhile, Alshahrani (2016) investigated gender as a variable in FLA in English language classes at King Khalid University (KKU), Saudi Arabia, concluding that there were no significant differences in the level of FLA between male and female EFL learners.

In another Saudi study, Hakim (2019) identified two anxiety-inducing causes of FLA among Saudi EFL learners inside and outside the classroom: the stress associated with achieving native-like proficiency and a stressful classroom environment caused by traditional English learning methods. Hakim found that other socio-cultural factors also contributed to FLA in Saudi Arabia, including beliefs, values, and feelings of insult. Al-Khotaba et al. (2019) reported that while Saudi EFL learners in their preparatory year at the Northern Border University with low-language speaking anxiety performed well in speaking tests, those with high language anxiety (LA) did poorly in speaking tests. The same study identified different types of LA, including personal, interpersonal, and classroom anxiety, while researchers recommended that learners' perceptions of FLA should be addressed. In Koka, Islam and Osman's (2019) study, EFL Saudi undergraduate students at KKU were found to experience FLA across all dimensions of English language learning, reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The researchers suggested specific management tools and techniques lessening anxiety among EFL learners and further research on FLA effects on EFL learners.

Bensalem (2020) found that gender played a role in the level of foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) among EFL students studying general English courses at two Saudi universities, while female participants showed higher anxiety levels than their male counterparts. The study also revealed that three main factors caused FLRA: comprehension apprehension, dissatisfaction with reading ability, and lack of acquaintance with phonics rules. Bensalem's study showed that the participants' anxiety was ameliorated by experience abroad, knowledge of a third language, and positive views about their English reading proficiency. Gawi's (2020) Saudi study reported that male students enrolled in applied linguistics courses at Albaha University had a slightly higher level of communicative apprehension, moderate test anxiety, and low fear of negative evaluation. Meanwhile, Zemni and Alrefaee's (2020) study of Saudi EFL students concluded that the department (English or French) and years of study did not affect

undergraduate female EFL students' reading anxiety. The same study also reported that text sources, such as unknown vocabulary and unfamiliar pronunciation, contributed more toward reading anxiety than private reading anxiety sources such as fear of committing mistakes and pronunciation difficulties. To reduce reading anxiety, Zemni and Alrefaee recommended that teachers enrich students' vocabulary and strive to improve their pronunciation.

III. RATIONAL AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Several researchers have considered FLA levels, sources, and impact on learning, but few have highlighted the role of gender (Salem & Abu Al Dyar, 2014; Alshahrani, 2016; Bensalem, 2020). While Salem & Abu Al Dyar (2014) and Bensalem's (2020) studies indicated that gender played a role in the levels of FLA; in contrast, Alshahrani (2016) and Bensalem (2017) found no significant differences in FLA levels between male and female foreign language learners. Since two of these previous studies were in the Saudi context yet arrived at different conclusions (Alshahrani, 2016; Bensalem, 2020), it is necessary to conduct more studies on FLA within the same context, including gender as a variable to examine whether Saudi male students differ from their female counterparts in terms of FLA. To add the literature on this issue, this paper will therefore investigate how first-year students at Bisha University in Saudi Arabia experience FLA; to what extent they experience its causes as proposed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986); the role of gender in this context; how it impacts their academic performance. Hence, this study answers the following questions:

1. To what extent do Saudi EFL first-year college students at Bisha University experience FLA?
2. Does gender play a role in first-year English language learners' FLA levels at Bisha University?
3. To what level are the causes of FLA as proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986) experienced by Saudi EFL first-year college students at Bisha University?
4. What is the impact of FLA on the performance of Saudi EFL first-year college students at Bisha University?

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The researchers utilized convenience sampling to select the participants. A total of 69 Saudi EFL learners (44 males and 25 females, aged 18 to 21 years) in the first year of college at Bisha University were randomly selected from four different classes within two courses: *Basics of English Grammar 1* and *Vocabulary Building 1*. They all had completed nine years at school and one year of an intensive academic English language program, focusing on reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills. This sample was convenient and considered suitable for the study as the selected participants were in their first year in the English department, while intensive learning of EFL was new and challenging to them.

B. Instruments

The first instrument used to collect the data was a modified version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986). Researchers have used this questionnaire in various contexts, and it has shown both high validity and reliability. It measures the levels of three main causes of FLA, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. This scale originally comprised 33 statements about the learners' feelings toward foreign language learning and their effects on their learning. The present study added six additional statements on speaking anxiety, and nine of the original 33 negatively worded statements were transformed and worded positively to reduce complexity in data analysis, specifically regarding the reverse scoring of these items. The phrase "foreign language" in the title of the questionnaire was also modified to "English language" since the present study's participants were English learners.

The modified questionnaire comprised two parts: the first sought information on the participants' backgrounds, including name, age, and gender, while the second contained 39 statements for a rating on a five-point Likert scale, fluctuating from 1=*strongly disagree* to 5=*strongly agree*. As seen in Table 1 below, the mean score on the modified FLCAS ranged from 39 to 195; low scores indicated low anxiety, and high scores indicated high anxiety.

TABLE 1.
FIVE-POINT LIKERT SCALE FOR THE MODIFIED FLCAS

	Degree	Difference	Interval
Strongly disagree	1	0.79	1.0 – 1.79
Disagree	2	0.79	1.80 – 2.59
Neutral	3	0.79	2.60 – 3.39
Agree	4	0.79	3.40 – 4.19
Strongly agree	5	0.80	4.20 – 5.00

A specialist in statistics verified the reliability of the questionnaire, given to the sample of 69 respondents. Cronbach's alpha was 0.940 for the entire questionnaire (39 phrases), indicating a high reliability level.

The second data collection instrument was the end-of-preparatory-year students' GPAs, drawn from an achievement test designed by a group of experienced EFL professors at Bisha University. The participants took several tests that

evaluated their English language proficiency in listening and reading comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary. These details are not included in the Appendix due to administrative constraints and the number of tests given.

The researchers employed Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS v.23) software to compute the responses obtained from the questionnaire and conduct a simple linear regression test to determine the effect of FLA on the participants' academic performance.

C. Procedures

1. Data Collection

Participants drawn from EFL learners in their first year at Bisha University in Saudi Arabia were given the modified FLCAS questionnaire and were informed about the nature of the study, its aims, and how to answer the survey items using the Likert scale. The English questionnaire was accompanied by an Arabic translation to reduce the impact of the participants' low English proficiency levels, as they were still at the second level of learning English. Cultural constraints in Saudi Arabia meant that the researcher could not distribute hard copies of the questionnaire to male participants, so copies were given to the head of the English Department, who assigned a teacher to collect the data. The same procedures were followed among the female participants, and all subjects were given 40 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

2. Data Analysis

To determine the levels and causes of FLA experienced by first-year EFL learners at Bisha University, SPSS v.23 was used to elicit the frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, and ranks. The researchers used the t-test to determine whether there were differences between males and females in FLA. Descriptive data were obtained from the questionnaire, such as frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, and ranks. The study used Microsoft Excel to represent the rank data graphically after separating the responses into items relating to the three main causes proposed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). Finally, the researchers used SPSS to perform a simple linear regression to examine the effect of FLA on the participants' academic performance.

V. RESULTS

A. Anxiety Levels

In response to the first research query, descriptive statistics were obtained to measure the participants' FLA levels. Their anxiety levels ranged between 62 and 191, with a mean value of 120.0870, indicating a moderate anxiety level (see Table 2, Figure 1).

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS' ANXIETY LEVELS

FLA	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Score	69	1.00	3.00	2.3478	.63769
Anxiety Level	69	62.00	191.00	120.0870	29.16875

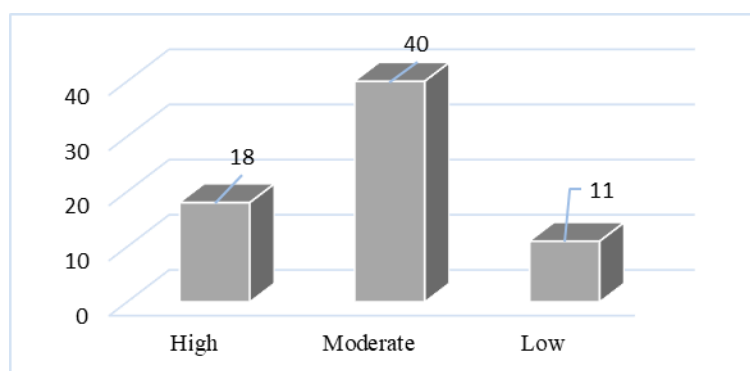


Figure 1. Participants' FLA levels

B. Anxiety Levels and Gender

A t-test was performed to compare the anxiety levels among males and females. Students who scored between 39 and 81 indicated a low level of anxiety in the English language classroom; those with scores between 81 and 125 displayed a medium level of anxiety; students who scored above 126 had high anxiety levels. The results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
ANXIETY LEVELS AND GENDER

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	P-Value
Male	44	120.04	28.95	0.243	.988
Female	25	120.16	30.14		

Table 3 shows that anxiety levels ranged between 62 and 177 for male students, with a mean value of 120.04, representing medium-level anxiety. For female students, the anxiety level ranged between 80 and 190, with a mean value of 120.16, representing medium-level anxiety. Thus, the t-value was 0.243 with p-value .988 > .05, which is not significant. Therefore, there were no gender-based differences in terms of FLA, as shown in Figure 2.

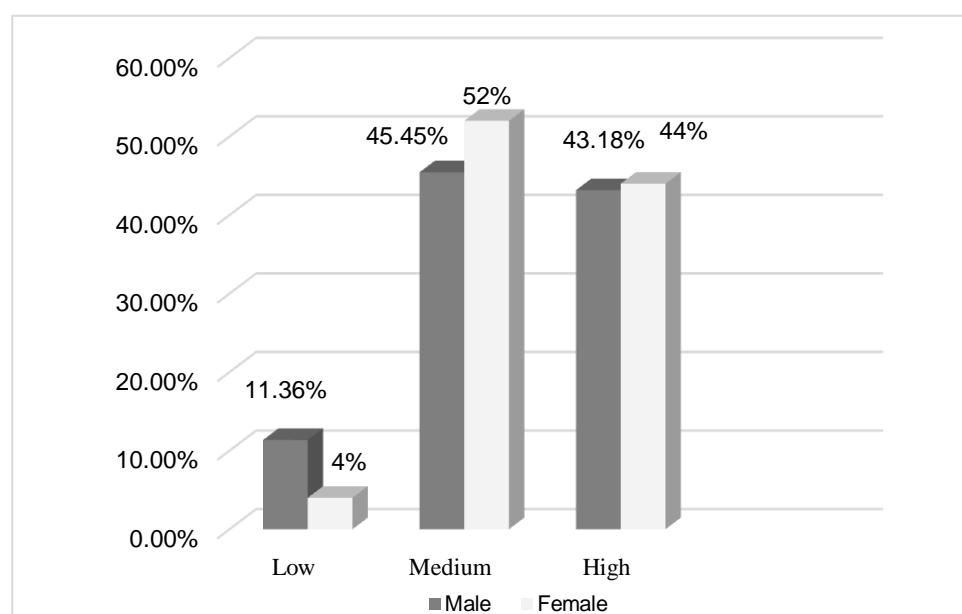


Figure 2. Participants' FLA levels and gender

C. Causes of FLA

To answer the third research query, the researcher obtained descriptive statistics for the participants' highest (6) items in the three main categories: communication apprehension, language tests, and fear of feedback from peers and teachers. The results are as follows:

1. Communication Apprehension

The analysis of the communication apprehension items revealed that the participants had a high level (3.40–4.19) of FLA speaking in English in front of other students. They also became upset when they could not understand the teachers' corrections (3.69). In addition, they tended to be nervous while speaking in English with native speakers (3.47). Moreover, they felt overwhelmed by the number of rules they had to learn to speak English (3.44); and that they got nervous when they did not understand every word their English teacher spoke (3.43). However, the participants were neutral about experiencing panic while speaking without preparation in English class (3.39). These results are presented in Table 4 and Figure 3 below:

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION CATEGORY

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank	Degree
24- I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	3.70	1.14	1	Agree
15- I get upset when I do not understand what mistake the teacher is correcting.	3.69	1.37	2	Agree
14- I am nervous when I speak English with native speakers.	3.47	1.36	3	Agree
30- I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn in order to speak English.	3.44	1.32	4	Agree
29- I get nervous when I do not understand every word the English teacher says.	3.43	1.35	5	Agree
9- I panic when I have to speak without preparing in English class.	3.39	1.33	6	Neutral

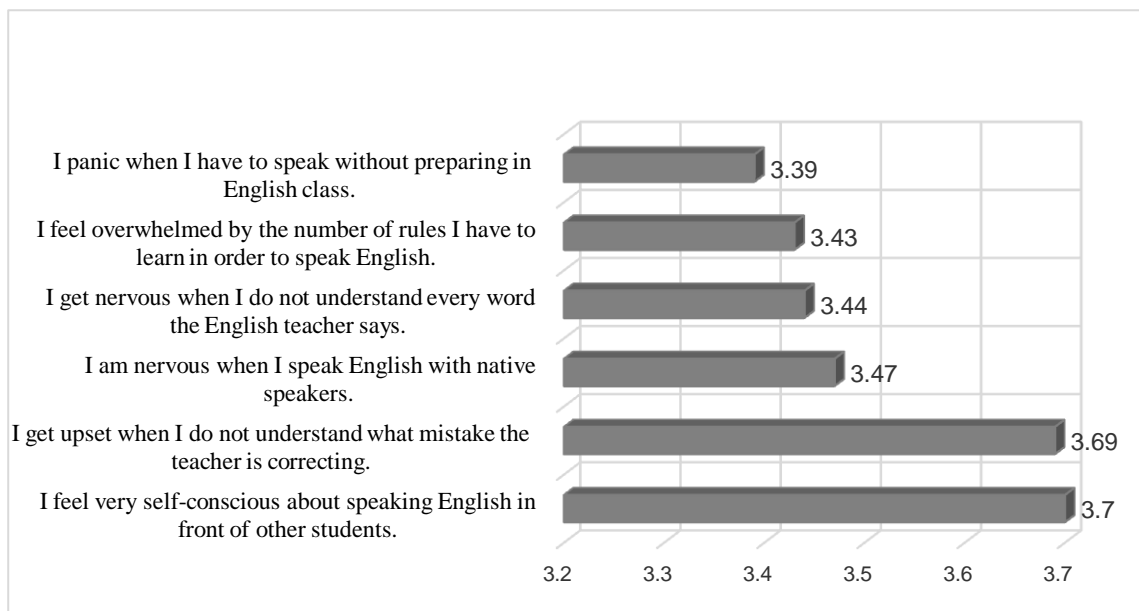


Figure 3. Participants' ranking for items related to communication apprehension

2. Fear of Feedback

The participants' responses suggested that they were also worried about making mistakes in their English class (4.22) and got nervous when the English teacher asked questions they had not prepared for in advance (3.43). However, they were neutral on four items related to fear of feedback:

1. The feeling that other students speak English better than they do (3.33).
2. Thinking that the other students in the class are better at languages than they are (3.14).
3. Feeling embarrassed to volunteer answers in their English class (2.6).
4. Fear that their English teacher is ready to correct every mistake they make (2.56).

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FEAR OF FEEDBACK BY PEERS AND TEACHERS

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank	Degree
2- I worry about making mistakes in English class.	4.22	.97	1	Strongly Agree
33- I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions that I have not prepared for in advance.	3.43	1.44	2	Agree
23- I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	3.33	1.33	3	Neutral
7- I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	3.14	1.26	4	Neutral
13- It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	2.60	1.41	5	Neutral
19- I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	2.56	1.43	6	Disagree

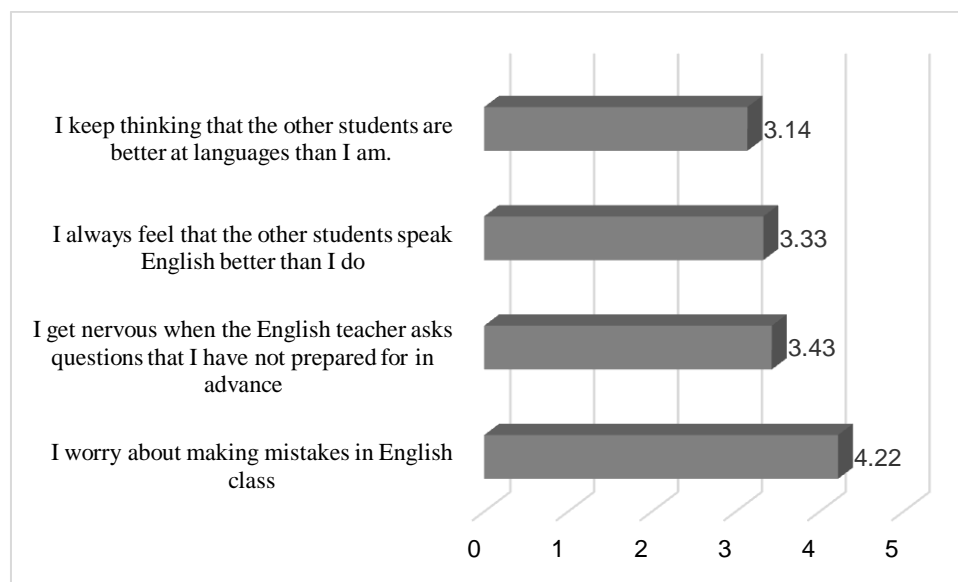


Figure 4. Participants' ranking for items related to fear of feedback

3. Fear of Language Tests

The participants reported that they were worried about the consequences of failing their English class (4.11). However, they also reported they understood why some people were upset over English classes (3.76). In addition, they felt their English lessons moved too quickly and were worried about being lagged (3.59). Moreover, they were usually not at ease during tests in their English class (3.47). Meanwhile, their responses to two questions were neutral. The first is thinking about aspects that have nothing to do with the course (2.89), and the second is related to the unwillingness to attend English class (2.86). The results are presented in Table 6 and Figure 5 below:

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FEAR OF LANGUAGE TESTS

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank	Degree
10- I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	4.11	1.34	1	Agree
11- I understand why some people get so upset over English classes.	3.76	1.12	2	Agree
25- English class moves so quickly I worry about being left behind.	3.59	1.29	3	Agree
8- I am usually not at ease during tests in my English class.	3.47	1.50	4	Agree
6- During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	2.89	1.39	5	Neutral
17- I often feel like avoiding English class.	2.86	1.46	6	Neutral

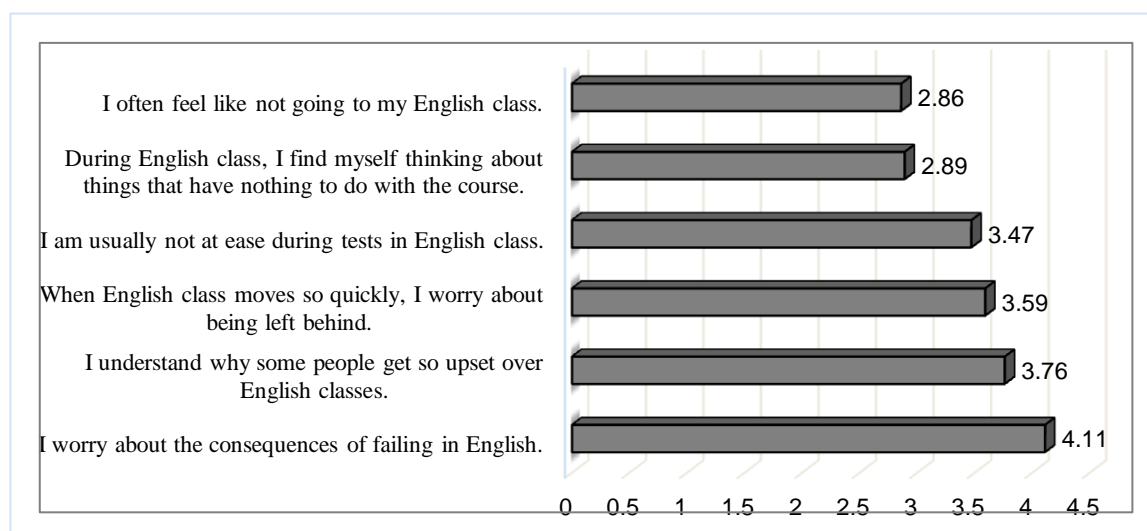


Figure 5. Participants' ranking for items related to fear of language tests

D. Effects of FLA on Academic Performance

The results showed that FLA had an impact on learners' performance; the higher the FLA, the lower the learners' performance ($R = .386$, $F = 11.750$ and $P\text{-value} = .001 < .05$). This result is shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7.
EFFECT OF FLA ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Dependent Variable: Grade	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	95.199	5.470		17.404	.000
FLA	-.152	.044	-.386	-3.428	.001

Table 7 presents the effects of FLA on the performance of EFL language learners (learners' grades), with the help of unstandardised beta coefficients with a negative value (-.152) and significance ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$). The results show that one unit increase in the FLA level decreases 0.152 in learning performance. The regression equation is as follows:

$$\text{Performance (Estimated)} = 59.199 - 0.152 (\text{FLA})$$

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study findings showed that most Saudi EFL college beginners experience a moderate level of FLA. This finding aligns with previous research findings (Mohammed, 2015; Alshahrani, 2016; Bhatti et al., 2016; Koka et al., 2019). They also revealed that gender did not affect FLA levels among EFL learners. This finding aligns with those of Alshahrani (2016) and Bensalem (2017). However, it differs from those of Salem and Abu Al Diyar (2014) and Bensalem (2020), which confirmed the gender role in FLA.

Also, the findings confirmed the three main causes of FLA previously identified by Horwitz et al. (1986) and Park and Lee (2005), namely communication apprehension, fear of feedback from peers and teachers, and worries about English language tests. This result is similar to Gawi's (2020) finding reporting that Saudi students had different levels of communicative apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test-related anxiety. It also aligns with Bensalem's (2020) identification of comprehension apprehension as one of the main causes of FLA.

Moreover, this result also echoes Bhatti et al.'s (2016) conclusion that communication apprehension is the most prominent factor inducing anxiety among learners, followed by the fear of evaluation either by teachers or other students. In addition, it aligns with other scholars' conclusions that fear of language tests causes FLA for Saudi EFL learners (Mohammed, 2015); that fear of being insulted could contribute to FLA (Hakim, 2019); and that speaking in the presence of others is one of the main causes of FLA (Awan et al., 2010). Furthermore, it is consistent with Melouah's (2013) study, which identified the following as causes of FLA: fear of interaction, students' perceptions of the teacher and other students, lack of self-confidence, fear of negative correction and evaluation, and fear of speaking with native speakers. Finally, this finding aligns with Chan and Wu's conclusion (2004) that fear of negative evaluation and pressure stemming from other students' feedback and their parents are the main causes of FLA.

As for the impact of FLA on EFL learners' academic performance, the results showed that FLA significantly impacts EFL learners' performance, acting as a barrier that prevents students from attaining their fullest potential when learning a new language. This finding aligns with previous research that identified the debilitating effect of FLA (Park and Lee, 2005; Melouah, 2013). It also echoes Mohammed (2015), which found that FLA harms learners' motivation and achievement. Moreover, it aligns with Bensalem's (2017) assertion that there is an inverse relationship between a learner's FLA and their achievement in English language classes. Furthermore, this result resonates with Al-Khotaba et al. (2019), which found that high LA negatively affects students' speaking test achievement. However, it contradicts Zheng and Cheng (2018), which did not find FLA a significant predictor of test performance.

Therefore, despite the variations in the educational and demographic contexts among these studies, the results are unanimous. This cohesion of scholarly opinion supports the conclusion that a high FLA level is an important indicator of learners' slow language achievement, which naturally warrants a discussion on how much anxiety could be reduced. Discovering the causes of FLA as experienced by learners can help students, teachers, and curriculum designers to overcome the hurdles identified. Therefore, it is necessary to increase teachers' awareness of FLA in their classrooms and enlighten them about strategies that can lessen the consequences of FLA on their students. To mitigate communication apprehension among learners, teachers should keep the learning environment friendly and motivational. Meanwhile, teachers and syllabus designers should focus more on speaking rather than writing skills; while this does not imply that the focus should shift entirely to verbal skills, it calls for a better balance between the two, particularly given that much of the emphasis is currently on writing skills. A balanced approach can contribute toward minimizing communication apprehension anxiety.

To minimise the fear of negative feedback from peers, teachers should tell learners that mistakes are acceptable and stress that all learning processes involve errors. Moreover, instructors should explain that failure is a step toward success and explain that they have previously been in a similar position when they were learning. Finally, to reduce fear among students, teachers should also design more formative tests than summative ones. Hakim (2019) endorsed some

of these recommendations and suggested that the general FLA level might be lowered by creating an effective and positive environment conducive to EFL teaching and learning.

VII. LIMITATIONS & DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The present study has some limitations which can be compensated for in further research. The first limitation is that this study focuses on Saudi EFL beginner classes at a single Saudi university, so future studies could seek to validate or reject the findings of this study by investigating FLA levels and causes in different universities and with different levels of learners. Future researchers could also investigate whether the learners' English language proficiency affects the level of FLA they experience. The second limitation is that this study focuses only on the students' FLA without investigating their teachers' methods and awareness of FLA. To complement the findings of this study, researchers could further compare the levels of Saudi learners' FLA with their teachers' teaching methods and level of awareness about FLA. The third limitation of the present study is focusing on FLA at one period of time. Future researchers could investigate changes in FLA levels among EFL learners across different periods to determine when and under which conditions students' anxiety levels fluctuate most.

Moreover, the present study focused on Saudi EFL beginners' FLA levels, causes, and gender variables. For future studies, researchers could conduct similar evaluations of different variables, including age and proficiency level and teachers' methods and awareness of the concept of FLA. Considering the combined effect of these variables on learners' FLA levels will help to diminish FLA among EFL learners.

APPENDIX. MODIFIED FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY SCALE (FLCAS)

Dear Students,

This scale is a part of a research study conducted at Bisha University, the Faculty of Arts and Literature. It aims to investigate foreign language anxiety and the performance of English language learners. Please answer these questions based on your feelings and current situation. Your responses are highly valuable for this study. There is no correct or wrong answer. Your responses will be highly confidential and used only for research purposes. Your participation is voluntary in this questionnaire.

I fully understand the aim of this scale and I agree to participate in it:

A. Yes

B. No

Part 1:

Your name in English: _____ Age: _____

Gender:

☐
☐

Male

Female

Part 2: Please write a number from 1 to 5 that depicts your feelings about the statement about learning English best, where: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

Item	Answer
1. I am never quite sure of myself when I speak in my English class.	
2. I worry about making mistakes in English class.	
3. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on to speak in English class.	
4. It frightens me when I do not understand what the teacher is saying in English.	
5. It bothers me to take more English classes.	
6. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	
8. I am usually not at ease during tests in English class.	
9. I panic when I have to speak without preparing in English class.	
10. I worry about the consequences of failing in English.	
11. I understand why some people get so upset over English classes.	
12. In English class, I can get so nervous that I forget things I know.	
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	
14. I am nervous when I speak English with native speakers.	
15. I get upset when I do not understand what mistake the teacher is correcting.	
16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	
17. I often do not feel like going to my English class.	
18. I do not feel confident when I speak in English class.	
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English class.	
21. The more I study for the English test, the more confused I get.	
22. I feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.	
23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	
25. When English class moves so quickly, I worry about being left behind.	
26. I feel more tense and nervous in English class than in other classes.	
27. I get nervous and confused when I speak in English class.	
28. When I am on my way to English class, I feel less confident and less relaxed.	
29. I get nervous when I do not understand every word the English teacher says.	
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn in order to speak English.	
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	
32. I probably would not feel comfortable around native speakers of English.	
33. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions that I have not prepared for in advance.	
34. I feel more confident in non-aural and non-oral English classes.	
35. I will not volunteer to answer the teacher's question even if she/he gives me enough time to prepare.	
36. I prefer written over oral skills classes because there is more time for me to prepare my answers.	
37. I avoid speaking even if I know the answer because I am not confident about my pronunciation and accent.	
38. I prefer to answer in writing rather than orally.	
39. I am distracted when the teacher corrects what I am saying.	

Your participation is highly appreciated!

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Research on the Ethnic Minority English Teachers in Middle Schools' Perplexity of Professional Development and Its Solution*

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Abstract—This study makes an empirical study on the professional development of ethnic minority English teachers in middle school. Four ethnic minority English teachers of different ages who volunteer to participate in qualitative interviews are selected to conduct the in-depth interviews to analyze their professional development. According to the analysis of research results, it is found that the main puzzles of ethnic minority English teachers' professional development are how to balance the gap between the content of teaching materials and the actual teaching situation; how to avoid the emergence of teaching tendency in teaching; how to realize the positive transfer of professional development in mother tongue cultural environment. Finally, the solutions are put forward to solve the confusion from the social level and personal level.

Index Terms—teacher professional development, the confusion of professional development, the solutions

I. INTRODUCTION

The modernization is developing rapidly nowadays, teachers are surrounded by uncertainty, their current behaviors are constantly subverted. As ethnic minority foreign language teachers, on the one hand, they have more opportunities to understand western culture and be influenced by globalization than other teachers; On the other hand, this kind of influence may conflicts with their personal practical knowledge, local habits and ethnic minority culture, which leads to the generation of anxiety in work. It is such conflicts and contradictions in practice that threaten the security of teachers, therefore, their experience need to be re-examined, evaluated and reconstructed. Research on ethnic minority foreign language teachers' professional development confusion, can stimulate their cultural consciousness, understand their internal psychological mechanism well, and promote the basic education of foreign language in ethnic areas.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA PRESENTATION

First, the study selects four ethnic minority English teachers of different ages who are willing to conduct qualitative research, the ways of reflection diary, classroom observation as well as in-depth interviews are used to analyze the confusion of their professional development. Second, all the data are transformed into text data, and presented in the form of text. Finally, the analysis results are verified by the way of verification triangle. The four interviews' questions of qualitative interview and the content of foreign language teachers' professional development in the study are mainly based on the definition of foreign language teachers' professional development by Jia (2005), Wu (2008), Freeman (1989), Richards & Nunan (1990), Peirce (1995), Hall (1995), Johnson (2006), Benesch (2012), Aneja (2016). It is believed that the professional development of foreign language teachers is driven by teachers' inner self-development consciousness, they improve professional feelings, professional knowledge and professional skills by continuous learning, reflection and growth. Combine with the scholars' definition of foreign language teachers' professional development above, the content of teachers' professional development involves professional ability, teachers' knowledge, teachers' belief, professional ethics as well as self-development and so on, which emphasizes teachers' psychological change process in the accumulation of knowledge, the improvement of professional technology and the transformation of emotional state. The followings are some of the core interview data:

A. *What Do You Think of Your Duty in Your Work?*

The question mainly investigates teachers' professional values and professional development attitudes. The answers of the four teachers are summarized as follows:

I think my profession is to preach, teach and solve doubts, help my students understand more English knowledge and make them interested in English learning. (Miss Long)

My job is to train more excellent students. Our students have a poor knowledge in English. Some of them can't even write down 26 letters. It's unrealistic to pass the college entrance examination. So my duty is to help my students get

* This research is one of the results of the 2019 Project of the 13th Five-Year Plan of Education Science in Hunan Province, which is "Research on the Ethnic Minority English Teachers in Middle Schools' Perplexity of Professional Development and Its Solution" (No. Xjk19qzm001).

high marks in the college entrance examination. (Miss Shi)

My job is to educate students, and cultivate talents for my hometown. No matter how my ability is, I should do my job well and have a sense of responsibility in post. (Miss. Hong)

It is my pride and duty to cultivate excellent talents for the nation and society. We can't use English to teach English, but give full play to the advantages of English to carry forward the traditional culture of our nation, which make more people in the world care about and understand our minority nationality. It is the responsibility of my teaching English. (Mr. Liang)

The six moral norms put forward in *The Code of Professional Ethics for Primary and Secondary School Teachers* (revised in 2008): Patriotism and law-abiding, teaching and educating, being a teacher, loving and dedicated to their posts, caring for students, and lifelong learning are the evaluation standard of teachers' profession. It can be seen from the above data that Miss Long believes that her duty is to transfer professional knowledge to students, which reflects the norms of teaching and educating people; Miss Shi believes that her duty is to help students improve their performance and scores, which also reflects the norms of teaching and educating people; Miss Hong believes that her duty is to fulfill his duty in her post, which reflects the norms of love and dedication; and Mr. Liang believes that his duty is to cultivate excellent students and carry forward national culture, which reflects the norms of teacher education, patriotism and law-abiding and lifelong learning. It can be seen that four teachers are responsible for teaching, and have a positive sense of professional responsibility and teaching attitude.

B. What Do You Think of the English Textbooks Using Currently?

The question mainly investigates the ethnic minority teachers' views on using teaching materials currently. The four teachers' answers are summarized as follows:

We are now using the *Go for It* from People's Education Edition. I think the textbook has nothing to do with our examination, and it is difficult to adapt to the need of our Miao children. Many teachers complain that the formal examination content is too different from the teaching materials. (Miss Long)

The high school textbook what we are using now is from People's Education Edition. The overall feeling is very good, but the drawback is that there is no information and vocabulary about ethnic minorities. Furthermore, if the textbook can set up a special section for oral practice, teachers will cultivate students' communicative ability consciously, rather than written test ability currently. (Miss Shi)

The high school textbook what we are using now is from People's Education Edition. Eighty percent of my students are Miao, their basic English knowledge is very poor. The total score of 150 points in the middle school entrance examination, most of them just get 20 or 30 points. So my teaching goal is to succeed as long as students can get 50 points in the college entrance examination. Meanwhile, we mainly focus on the words and grammar in teaching. (Miss Hong)

We are now using the *Go for It* from People's Education Edition. The pictures and colors of the teaching materials are well designed, which can stimulate student's interest in learning. There are many teaching materials, words and reading contents in the unit of textbook, but lack of local vocabulary, for instance, "Hamburga", a food we haven't eaten and seen before, so it is hard to teach without in a real situation. (Mr. Liang)

Through the analysis of qualitative data above, it is known that the two junior middle school teachers use the English experimental textbook *Go for It*, and the two senior high school English teachers use *The Ordinary High School Curriculum Standard Experimental Textbook* from People's Education Version. Miss Long believes that there is a big difference between the teaching material and the actual examination. Therefore, she is confused about how to deal with the gap between the teaching content and the actual examination. Mr. Liang believes that the picture design of the textbook is well designed, but involves a lot of reading content and lacks local vocabulary, which is not suitable for the actual situation of his students, he thinks there is a big gap between the content of the textbook and the actual examination goal. Miss Shi is confused about what teaching strategies to choose to balance students' communicative ability and written ability, she believes that the textbooks lack minority cultural vocabulary and oral section. Miss Hong believes that the textbook is not suitable for the actual level of her students, but she actively changes the educational concept and flexibly uses the textbook in combination with the actual need of students. It can be seen that the four teachers have different puzzles and opinions on their current teaching materials.

C. Is There Any Teaching Tendency in Your Teaching?

Teaching tendency refers to that some foreign language teachers tend to teach a certain knowledge in the process of teaching, such as excessively preferring to the teaching of oral or pronunciation, while ignoring the teaching of grammar, writing and other knowledge (Shi & Jiang, 2017, p.73). The question mainly investigates that whether teachers appear teaching tendency in their teaching process or not. The responses of the four teachers are summarized as follows:

In the process of my teaching, I mainly tend to improve students' listening and speaking ability. I will arrange many strategies in class, such as companion reading, group reading, recitation and reading aloud so as to improve students' listening and speaking ability. There are no learning opportunities in our group on account of only five English teachers in our school, so I don't know whether other teachers do like this or not. (Miss Long)

I have paid more attention to the use of syntax since I taught, such as how to express sentences in English. Some of

my colleagues pay attention to grammar, and some to write. Because reading comprehension can get high marks in the examination. (Miss Shi)

I mainly focus on reading and writing in teaching. If I do a good job in reading and writing, I can complete the regulations of our school, that is, the student's paper score reaches 60 points. I mainly teach students some reading skills, such as the skills of how to improve vocabulary. Furthermore, I have done the paper of the college entrance examination to master the skills of examination in order to improve student's test scores. (Miss Hong)

I don't like teaching reading; I think reading is too boring, so do the students. I try my best to make the reading class active and efficient. But I don't know how to attract students' attention. (Mr. Liang)

It can be seen from the above data that Miss long tends to practice language knowledge and use memory strategies, while ignore the structural system. Such as she only pays attention to the cultivation of students' listening and speaking ability in her teaching, and doesn't know how to improve teaching strategies or update personal teaching experience. In addition, Miss Shi and Miss Hong tend to practice language's structure while ignore language's function and meaning intentionally or unintentionally, for instance, Miss Shi tends to teach reading and syntax while ignore the teaching of oral and listening consciously; Miss Hong tends to teach reading and writing, and summarize teaching knowledge by doing college entrance examination questions; Mr. Liang ignores the learning of language knowledge structure system intentionally. Obviously, the four teachers appear teaching tendencies in their teaching practice implicitly or explicitly. The emergence of teaching tendency is not conducive to teachers' professional development.

D. What Kind of Confusion Have You Ever Encountered in the Process of Your Professional Development?

This question mainly investigates the types of confusion in teachers' professional development. The responses of the four teachers are summarized as follows:

First, there is no English learning atmosphere in our ethnic areas, so how can I improve my students' interest in learning English is my first puzzle. Second, the examination is too far from the syllabus, the contents and essays in the textbook are very long, but the actual examination is very simple. How can I find the appropriate teaching method in this situation is my second puzzle. (Mr. Long)

My confusion is how to balance the relationship between students' communicative competence and test competence. Since the new curriculum standard requires to cultivate students' communicative competence, why not set up an oral test in the college entrance examination? If the oral test is set, the teacher will cultivate students' communicative ability in the usual teaching consciously, rather than written test ability currently. (Miss Shi)

My biggest confusion now is that I haven't formed my own teaching model since I was a teacher. I have been trying to explore and change my teaching mode. However, my students may be affected by my exploration. (Miss Hong)

My confusion is how to deal with the relationship with student's parents in my cultural environment. For example, after a teacher in our school dragged a naughty child into the office, the whole village people rushed into the teacher office and beat that teacher. So I dare not discipline students. Another time when we visited Miao village, I forgot that the innermost side of the fire pit was the position of their ancestors. I directly moved a bench to sit there. As a result, parents of that family kicked me out. (Mr. Liang)

The professional development of foreign language teachers in minority areas is influenced by ethnic minority culture, personal practical knowledge and other factors. Influenced by factors such as region, teaching situation as well as personal teaching experience, Miss long does not know how to stimulate students' interest in learning English, and how to balance the gap between textbook content and examination level. Miss Shi works in the key ethnic middle school of the county, influenced by personal practical knowledge as well as other factors, her confusion is how to balance the relationship between students' communicative competence and written examination competence. Due to the influence of personal practical knowledge, Miss Hong is confused about how to form her own teaching strategies in teaching practice without hindering the development of her students. Mr. Liang is teaching in Miao area, influenced by the local ethnic customs and teaching atmosphere, his confusion is how to deal with the relationship with students' parents well in the ethnic cultural environment.

III. ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH RESULTS

Through the analysis of qualitative data above, ethnic minority English teachers in middle school mainly carry out their professional development by self-reflection, teaching innovation and taking themselves as resources and so on. However, there are mainly the following puzzles in the process of their professional development:

A. How to Balance the Gap between the Content of Teaching Materials and the Actual Teaching Situation

English Curriculum Standards requires that the setting and teaching of English curriculum should be conducive to the development of students' personality and potential, to cultivate students' emotional attitude, cultural awareness, language knowledge and learning strategies, so as to promote students' comprehensive language application ability and comprehensive humanistic quality. Ethnic minority teachers will face complex conflicts of language culture and real situation on account of the limitations of working environment, cultural environment and personal practical knowledge. Therefore, some teachers take the teacher-centered teaching model to evaluate students' learning English in the process of implementing textbook design and teaching, which violates the norms and original intention of teaching materials in

reality. For instance, Miss Hong only pays attention to the explanation of words and grammar in teaching to improve students' score in examinations. Although teachers realize that pay too much attention to the written test ability will restrict students' development, but they often forget their internal voice and to shape themselves into a model in line with the actual situation. In addition, Mr. Liang and Miss Shi are confused about how to deal with the gap between the content of the textbook and the actual examination level, and the confusion of Miss Shi is how to exercise students' oral ability based on the teaching materials. Obviously, how to balance the gap between the content of teaching materials and the actual teaching situation to promote students' comprehensive language application ability, is the mainly puzzle faced by ethnic minority English teachers in middle schools.

B. How to Avoid the Emergence of Teaching Tendency in Teaching

Teaching tendency refers to that some foreign language teachers tend to teach certain knowledge in the process of teaching, such as excessively preferring to the teaching of oral or pronunciation, while ignoring the teaching of grammar, writing and other knowledge. Such as Miss long pays attention to improve students' listening and speaking by creates communication opportunities for students while ignore the teaching of grammar; Mr. Liang avoids the implementation of reading teaching strategies consciously in class; Miss Shi and Miss Hong focus on reading, grammar and word knowledge during teaching in order to improve students' performance. It is not difficult to see that the teaching tendency appears in four teachers' teaching implicitly or explicitly, some of them overemphasize the importance of teachers' imparting knowledge while ignore students' own learning experience; some overemphasize language structure knowledge' learning while ignore learners' actual communicative ability; and some overemphasize language' meaning while ignore the knowledge of language structure. Many activities are designed to consolidate language knowledge while ignore language' meaning and function by teachers intentionally or unintentionally in classroom. The emergence of teaching tendency is not conducive to teachers' professional development. Therefore, how to avoid teaching tendency in teaching practice is one of the puzzles of ethnic minority foreign language teachers.

C. How to Realize the Positive Transfer of Professional Development in Mother Tongue Cultural Environment.

Lado (1957) believes that learners can transfer the form and meaning of their mother tongue language to the foreign language that they have learned, transfer can be divided into positive transfer and negative transfer, positive transfer refers to the mother tongue' behavior, rules and culture can promote the learner's second language acquisition, and vice versa. Ethnic minority foreign teachers can appear contradictions and confusions in their teaching practice on account of conflicts in different cultures and rules. Such as Miss Long can't pronounces some English phonetics due to the influence of her mother tongue, which resulting in negative transfer in her second language learning, but positive transfer appears in her Japanese learning, similarly, Mr. Liang also appears the negative transfer in his professional development. The negative transfer make teachers' professional knowledge is challenged and threatened continuously, and job burnout will be appeared in work. Therefore, how to realize the positive transfer of professional development in mother tongue culture is one of the main puzzles faced by ethnic minority English teachers.

IV. WAYS TO RESOLVE THE CONFUSION OF TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

A. To Carry out Foreign Language Teacher Training and Teacher Education Policies in Ethnic Minority Areas

We should consider ethnic minority foreign language teachers' commonness and individuality when formulating the education training, and strengthen the teaching concept for them from the aspects of linguistics, psychology and subject knowledge. We can adopt a transitional way to narrow the gap between policy requirements and teachers' adaptability, such as basic training before implementation, modification during implementation, and effect evaluation after implementation. Educational trainers can implement situational training modes, such as participatory training or "shadow" training so that teachers are able to continuously, comprehensively as well as carefully observe the excellent teachers' teaching cases, they can actively participating in practical teaching activities by the collective lesson preparation, group discussion, classroom observation and so on. In addition, practice community can be established by group cooperation, teacher apprentice cooperation as well as international exchange and so on, to improve teachers' professional skills. The school authority is able to provide teachers with the opportunities of observing national excellent English teacher competitions to promote their competence, participating in backbone teacher training to enhance their individual self-confidence, and supporting excellent teachers to go abroad for further study.

B. To Give Teachers More Rights and Create a "People-Oriented" Working Atmosphere

Ethnic minority foreign language teachers face diverse cultural conflicts on the implementation of foreign language education in ethnic minority areas. Therefore, the school authority needs consider teachers' emotion and inner world when formulating relevant policies and evaluation mechanisms, the school authority should give teachers more professional autonomy, professional development rights, decision-making rights and independent innovation rights to enhance teachers' confidence and professional identity, for instance, teachers can participate in school curriculum reform and formulate semester teaching plans. In addition, school authority should create a "people-oriented" working atmosphere to solve teachers' practical problems, care about teachers' family and work, make teachers feel the warmth of the collective and increase their sense of collective identity; the school authority should pays attention to the habits or

beliefs of teachers in different ethnic minorities and cultures, organize the activities to enhance the cohesion of the group, encourage and respect teachers to improve their teaching confidence.

C. Ethnic Minority Foreign Language Teachers Should Have the Consciousness of Critical Reflection in Practice.

Ethnic minority foreign language teachers need reflect on themselves based on individual experience both inside and outside, learn to reconsider their past experience and integrate it with the current experience in daily teaching, so as to better face the challenges in the future. Teachers need learn to reflect on self-existence and realize the significance of self-existence, for example, when face the confusion that how to balance the gap between the content of teaching materials and the actual teaching situation, teachers can constantly explore and develop themselves in reflection to strengthen their self-concept. Teachers can promote professional development by teaching reflection, such as self-reflection, pair reflection and group reflection. Teaching reflection urges teachers construct and integrate their classroom behavior continuously to obtain new understanding in teaching, teachers can construct individuality in reflection and development in reflection. At the same time, the teachers' self-development consciousness is an important internal cause to reduce job burnout and identity crisis, therefore, minority foreign language teachers need improve their self-development awareness, because those who pursue self-development and self-realization do not feel any anxiety. The reflective behaviors of teachers are a primary factor affecting teaching ability and professional knowledge. Teachers can reconstruct their understanding of work by positive response to the working environment.

V. CONCLUSION

This study makes an empirical study on the professional development of ethnic minority English teachers in middle school. Four ethnic minority English teachers of different ages who volunteer to participate in qualitative interviews are selected to conduct the in-depth interviews to analyze their professional development. The results show that the main puzzles of ethnic minority English teachers' professional development are how to balance the gap between the content of teaching materials and the actual teaching situation; how to avoid the formation of teaching tendency in teaching; how to realize the positive transfer of professional development in mother tongue cultural environment. Finally, the solutions to solve the confusion are put forward that to carry out foreign language teacher training and teacher education policies in ethnic minority areas; to give teachers more rights and create a "people-oriented" working atmosphere; ethnic minority foreign language teachers should have consciousness of critical reflection in practice. Due to the limited space, the deficiency of study is that it cannot present the data of quantitative research in detail. The follow-up researches can pay attention to the influence ways of their professional development.

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The Organization of Personal Pronouns in Sentence Structure Construction of Makassarese Language

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Abstract—Makassarese language belongs to the Austronesian language family, currently spoken as a mother language by a group of people in South Sulawesi province, eastern Indonesia. This research focuses on personal pronoun organization in the sentence construction of the Makassarese language. The form, position, and function of personal pronouns in the language sentences are explained. It used ‘simak’ (to-observe) method in form of a conversational involved-observation technique including recording and note-taking in collecting data. The data sources were oral data and text data. The oral data were taken from five informants selected purposively. The text data were taken from the folklore script of South Sulawesi written in the Makassarese language. The data were presented descriptively and analyzed by using the distributional method. The findings show two forms of personal pronouns used dominantly in constructing sentences: free personal pronoun and bound personal pronoun (clitic). Position of the free personal pronoun is in front of, in the middle of, and at the end of a sentence. The clitic is in front of and at the end of the verb. In addition, there is also clitic attached at the end of the noun that serves as possessive. The sentence starting with a free personal pronoun forms the pattern of SV (subject-verb) or SVO (subject-verb-object) and the sentence starting with clitic-attached verb forms the pattern of VS (verb-subject) or VSO (verb-subject-object). The basic structure of the Makassarese sentence is VS or VSO. The derivative structure is SV or SVO with other varieties.

Index Terms—Makassarese language, free personal pronoun, clitic

I. INTRODUCTION

Makassarese language is one of the hundreds of local languages in Indonesia, originated from an Austronesian language family and spoken as a mother language by a group of people in the South Sulawesi province of eastern Indonesia. The Language Map of South Sulawesi points to the southern part of South Sulawesi Peninsula as the area where the Makassarese language is mainly spoken encompassing Gowa, Takalar, Jeneponto, Bantaeng, Selayar, some parts of Bulukumba, Maros, Pangkajene Islands and Makassar. Some local dialect varieties are the Lakiung dialect, Turatea dialect, Bantaeng dialect, Konjo dialect, and Bira-Selayar dialect.

Lakiung dialect is chosen as the object of this research. The dialect is spoken by people living in Makassar city, western Gowa Regency, and Takalar Regency. The name of Lakiung was taken from the name of a place in Gowa serving as the centre of governance during the glory days of the Gowa Kingdom. Lakiung dialect is considered a standard dialect of the Makassarese language. Makassarese language was historically the official language in the Gowa Kingdom and is presently taught at schools as ‘Muatan Lokal’ (Local Content) education (Basang and Arif, 1981; Karim et al., 2019).

The Indonesian government has sought about preserving the regional ethnic languages since 1995 by including them in the ‘local content’ curriculum in Primary and Secondary Schools. However, ethnic language learning is currently still in problems of the inadequacy of learning materials and unavailability of competent teachers. It needs more tenacious creative researches to make the dissemination of ethnic language awareness successful. This language must be sustained to reach the future generation and therefore current observers, researchers, teachers, and learners are obliged to protect the language from extinction.

This paper discusses how to organize personal pronouns in Makassarese sentences, both the free personal pronoun and the bound personal pronoun (clitic) and exposes linguistic rules in constructing sentences grammatically. This paper can be an important document as guidance for observers, researchers, teachers, and learners of the Makassarese language in composing sentences and distinguishing the basic structure from the derivative structure in the language.

II. PERSONAL PRONOUN

Universally, Austronesian languages highlight the importance of personal pronouns in grammatical relations. The language of Bukindo Manobo Barat as one of the Filipino languages for example considered the role of personal pronoun vital in determining syntactic relations, especially in focus-purpose constructions. Structuring the personal pronoun marker largely determines the relationship between verbs and other elements in sentence construction. Payne (1997) stated three formal characteristics of grammatical relations: (1) case marker, (2) marking reference of the participant to verbs, and (3) constituent ordering. A similar function is equally visible in Tagalog and Chamorro as well as Northern Subuanen (Elkins and Marten in Ibrahim, 2002).

The local languages in Indonesia are found to have one common characteristic, namely a three type division of personal pronouns based on function. Each type of pronoun has its reference function, such as referring to oneself (first-person pronoun), referring to the person to whom the first person speaks (second-person pronoun) or referring to the person in question (third-person pronoun). The pronouns can be free or bound (clitic).

A. Clitics

The term clitic is originated from the Greek word *klinien* meaning 'to lean'. It refers to a morpheme attached to basic units (words). Verhaar (1978) and Ramlan (1985) refer to the Indonesian pronouns positioned in front of the verb as proclitics such as 'ku-' in 'kuambil' and 'kau-' in 'kauambil'. Whereas the pronouns attached at the end of the verb are called enclitic such as '-ku' in 'bukuku', '-mu' in 'bukumu', and '-nya' in 'bukunya'. These pronouns serve as a possessive marker. In addition, there is also '-kah', and '-lah' denoting affirmation and command. Overall, these forms are called *clitic*. Clitic in Makassarese, similar to Indonesian and Buginese counterparts, mainly consists of the shortened form of free personal pronouns.

Makassarese language has free personal pronouns, such as 'nakké (I/me), a singular first-person pronoun and 'katté (we/us), a plural first-person pronoun. Both can be either exclusive or inclusive. 'Kau' and 'Katte' (you) are respectively familiar and honorific. Both are singular second-person pronouns. 'Kaungaséng' and 'katténgaséng' (plural of you) are also respectively familiar and honorific, both are plural second-person pronouns. Lastly, there is 'ia' (she/he) as the singular third-person pronoun and 'iangaséng' (they) as the plural third-person pronoun.

TABLE 1.
PERSONAL PRONOUN IN MAKASSARESE LANGUAGE

	1	2	3	4
Function	Free Pronoun	Proclitic	Enclitic	Enclitic (Possessive)
1 Singular				
<i>nakké</i> 'saya' (I)		<i>ku-</i>	<i>-ak</i>	<i>-ku</i>
Plural				
Exclusive				
<i>Katté</i> 'kami' (we)		<i>ki-</i>	<i>-ki</i>	<i>-ta</i>
Inclusive				
<i>Katté</i> 'kita' (we)		<i>ki-</i>	<i>-ki</i>	<i>-ta</i>
2 Singular				
Familiar				
<i>kau</i> 'engkau' (you)		<i>nu-</i>	<i>-ko</i>	<i>-nu</i>
Plural				
<i>kau ngaseng</i> 'kalian'		<i>nu-</i>	<i>-ngasengko</i>	<i>-nu</i>
<i>ngaseng</i>				
Honorific				
<i>katté</i> 'anda' (you)		<i>ki-</i>	<i>-ki</i>	<i>-ta</i>
Plural				
<i>katté ngaséng</i> 'kalian' (they)		<i>ki-</i>	<i>-ngaséngki</i>	<i>-tangaséng</i>
3 Singular				
<i>ia</i> 'dia' (she/he)		<i>na-</i>	<i>-i</i>	<i>-na</i>
Plural				
<i>ia aséng</i> 'mereka' (they)		<i>na-</i>	<i>-ngaséngi</i>	<i>-nangaséng</i>

B. Sentence Structure

The basic structure of sentences that neutrally works in each language is called by Dixon (1994) as the underlying structure. It is the original structure in a language that has not undergone any modification or derivation, neither related to morphological derivation nor syntactic derivation. This concept of default structure is identically shared by the basic sentence of every language in the world. Nonetheless, some languages have the same type of structure, and some others are different. The type of sentence structure will give a clear picture of the typology of a language. The depiction of sentence structure types was once performed by Lehmann (1978, p.35). The expert grouped the world's languages into three types:

- (1) the consistent type in which object precedes the verb (OV);
- (2) the consistent type in which the verb precedes the object (VO); and

(3) inconsistent type in which the object precedes the verb (OV) or the verb precedes the object (VO).

The view of Lehmann (1978) was applied by Comrie through Turkish and Russian examples. According to Comrie, (1978) Turkish has a basic structure type in which the object precedes the verb (SOV), while the Russian language has more like a free structure in which the possible patterns can be (SVO), (SOV), (VOS), (OSV), (OVS), and (VSO).

Turkish examples:

Hasan okuz -u aldi

Hasan sapi Akusatif beli (Hasan buys a cow)

'Hasan membeli sapi' (Hasan buys a cow)

Russian examples:

Tanja membunuh Masha. (Tanja kills Masha)

The sentence can be organized in various constituent sequences:

SVO: Tanj - a ubila Mas - u

SOV: Tanj - a Mas - u - ubila

VOS: Ubila - Mas - Tanj - a

OSV: Mas - u - Tanj - a - ubila

OVS: Mas - u ubila Tanj - a

In Russian, the nominative case marker of suffix *-a* specifies the subject function (S) and the accusative case marker *-u* determines the object function (O). Thus, the functions of S and O are not determined by their position in the sentence but determined based on the case markers that follow. Tanja with nominative case *-a* occupies the function S and the word Mashu with nominative case *-u* occupies the object function even if placed in any position (Usman, 1995).

It seems that English and Indonesian have the same type of structure: O follows the verb as in the SVO type structure in which S and O functions are determined by the order of the sentence units.

Examples:

English in SVO : Mary saw John.

Indonesian in SVO : *Meri melihat Jon.*

Mary and *Meri* occupy the S function because of its position preceding the active verbs or predicate. In contrast, John and Jon occupy the O function because of its position after the predicate or the active verb.

The structure of the basic sentence or the underlying (core) structure is constructed by a neutral single clause that has the characteristics of completeness, affirmative, positive, and active (Parera, 1991). In morphological derivation, any change of affixation in the basic verb alters the structure of each clause-forming element which consequently also changes the relation in arguments. The change of relations in arguments affects the meaning of the sentence. Similarly, in syntactic derivation, inter-argument relation leads to the status-transferring process. In this case, each argument experiences a change of function in a transitive event.

Examples:

John was seen by Mery.

John dilihat oleh Meri

The change in position of *John* makes a change in function. In the second example, John functions as O which is contrary to the previous example where John is on S. 'Was seen' is the predicate (V) and 'by Mery' is the complementary function (Alwasilah, 1983). Therefore, the existence of a variety of structures in languages all over the world can be the basis of comparison to understand the structure of Makassarese language based on personal pronoun organization with verbs as the centre of the functional structure of the sentence.

III. MATERIAL & METHODOLOGY

The data is in the Makassarese language mainly in form of oral data. The source was the speech of five informants who were selected purposively. The informants lived in the Somba Opu sub-district, Gowa regency is one of the bases of Makassarese language users. They were 20-60 years old on average with a high level of proficiency in Makassarese language, be able to holistically understand how their language system works, physically be able to speak (possess a complete set of speech devices), never resided in another area for more than three months, and psychologically demonstrated a good amount of enthusiasm (cooperativeness) in providing the data corpus.

This research used 'simak' (to-observe) method in form of a conversational involved-observation technique including recording and note-taking (Rahman et al., 2019; Hasyim et al., 2021). The conversational involved-observation technique was conducted through face-to-face interviews with the question-answer session in which directed corpus stimulation was employed. Furthermore, the oral data were also equipped with text data of the script of South Sulawesi's folklore in the Makassarese language. The data were presented descriptively and analyzed using the distributional method (Hasyim, 2017).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Pronunciation of Personal Pronoun in Makassarese Language

Makassarese sentence structure may appear unique. A single sentence consists of at least two constituents which can be as verbs (V) and as subject (S). In certain situations, the object (O) comes after the verb (VOS). In another instance, O comes after S (VSO). In general, the subject in the Makassarese language is located after the verb (VS). In other cases, the subject precedes the verb (SV), especially in sentences that have undergone structural variation. The structure of the Makassarese sentence is recognizable based on the organization of personal pronouns which constructs a particular sentence.

A. First-Person Pronouns

The first person pronoun (the pronoun 1) is found in free or bound form. Some free personal pronouns are singular and some others are plural. In addition, there is also a bound form called clitic, either proclitic or enclitic.

1. Singular First Person Pronoun

The singular first-person pronoun such as *nakké* (I/me) belongs to the free personal pronouns. The free personal pronoun is commonly prefixed by 'i' or 'si' articles, such as '*inakké*' in the basic sentence structure. However, if there is a variation in the sentence structure, the 'i' and 'si' articles undergo ellipsis. The singular first-person pronoun '*inakke*' is neutral in that it does not reflect the social hierarchy between the addressee and addresser. The enclitic variations of the pronoun '*inakké*' are *-ak* and *-ku* plus *-ku* as proclitic as well. Enclitic *-ak* and proclitic *-ku* are attached to verbs with the subject role (agentive), whereas enclitic *-ku* is attached to nouns as possessive.

1. The first single-person pronoun *inakke* 'me'

The first single-person pronoun is always located in the initial position of the sentence.

Example:

(1) *Inakké* amalli bokbok.

<u>i</u>	<u>nakke</u>	<u>aN-</u>	<u>balli</u>		<u>bokbok</u>
art-	P1	pref	beli (buy/bought)		buku(a book)
S		V			O

Saya membeli buku.' (I buy a book)

In sentence (1) the singular first-person pronoun '*inakké*' (English: I) is positioned at the beginning of the sentence occupying the subject function with an agentive role. The sentence organization initiated by the personal pronoun *inakké* follows the SVO pattern.

2. Enclitic *-ak* 'saya' (English: I)

Enclitic *-ak* sticks behind the verb.

Example:

(2) Amalliak bokbok.

<u>aN-</u>	<u>balli</u>	<u>-ak</u>		<u>bokbok</u>
pref	beli (buy)	P1encl		buku (book)
V		S		O

'Membeli saya buku' (I buy a book)

In sentence (2) the enclitic *-ak* attached at the end of the verb occupies the subject function, bearing an agentive role. The sentence organization initiated by a verb to which enclitic *-ak* is clung follows the VSO pattern.

3. Proclitic *-ku*

Proclitic '*-ku*' *saya* (English: I) makes a definite marker *-a* appear.

Example:

(3) Kuballi bokboka

<u>ku-</u>	<u>balli</u>		<u>bokbok</u>	<u>-a</u>
p1prok	beli (buy)		buku (book)	def
V			O	

'Kubeli buku itu' (I buy the book)

In sentence (3) the proclitic *-ku* in '*kuballi*' necessitates the use of the definite marker *-a* on '*bokbok*' and changes the form to '*bokboka*'. In certain situation, '*bokboka*' is positioned at the beginning of the sentence.

Example:

(4) Bokboka kuballi

<u>Bokbok</u>	<u>-a</u>		<u>ku-</u>	<u>balli</u>
Buku (book)	def		p1prok	beli (buy)
			S	V

'Buku saya beli.' (I buy just the book)

In sentence (4), there is a different nuance in the sentence. It is because the use of marker *-a* in this type of sentence organization produces a different meaning, '*bokboka*' in this context is translated as 'only the book'. Generally, it can be omitted. The next example shows where the definite marker *-a* is omitted (ellipsis).

Example:

(5) Bokbok kuballi

<u>bokbok</u>		<u>ku-</u>	<u>balli</u>
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buku (book) p1proc beli (buy)
 S V
 'Buku saya beli' (I buy the book)

4. Enclitic '-ku' (saya/I)

Enclitic -ku may be attached to nouns

Example:

(6) Kuboliki bokbokku
 Ku- bolik -i bokbok -ku
 p1proc simpan (keep) p3enc buku(book) plenc
 V S
 'Saya menyimpan buku saya' (I keep my book.)

In sentence (6) the enclitic *-ku* attached to *bokbok* (a noun) serves as a possessive marker. The function of the possessive marker is be assumed by *nakke* which is the free form of the personal pronoun, It should always be the enclitic form in use. Another similar use is seen in *do ðku* (my money).

2. Plural First-Person Pronoun

Makassarese language also has the plural first-person pronouns, such as '*katte*' (kita/kami, English: we) in form of inclusive (kita) and exclusive (kami) plural. Such pronouns include a free personal pronoun. In the basic sentence structure, the free personal pronoun is generally preceded by the '*i*' or '*si*' article, such as (i) our neutral '*ikatte*' (kita/kami). Its use does not reflect any social hierarchy between addresser and addressee. However, if a certain modification in the sentence structure occurs as in some variants of structure, the '*i*' or '*si*' article undergoes an ellipsis.

The plural first-person pronoun '*ikatte*' 'kita/kami' (we/us) is reduced to enclitic form *-ki*, and *-ta*, as well as prolific *ki-*. All of which also denote the same reference 'kita/kami' (we/us). However, the enclitic *-ki* changes to the prefix *ni-* (di-). The reason is to distinguish it from proclitic *-ki* which also denotes '*anda*' (you) as a pronoun of the honorific second-person pronoun when it is used in an imperative sentence. The enclitic *-ki* and prefix *ni-* is attached to the verb and they possess an agentive role. Furthermore, the enclitic *-ta* is attached to nouns with a possessive role.

1. Plural First-Person Pronoun '*ikatte*'

The Plural First-Person Pronoun is always positioned at the beginning of the sentence.

Example:

(7) Ikatt éammalli bokbok
 i katt é aN- balli bokbok
 art- p1j pref beli (buy) buku (book)
 S V O
 'Kita/Kami membeli buku' (We buy a book)

In the phrase (7) the plural first-person pronoun '*ikatte*' is put in front of the sentence occupying the function as the subject with the agentive role. The sentence begins with the plural first-person pronoun '*ikatte*' and it follows the SVO pattern.

2. Enclitic -ki

Enclitic *-ki* is attached behind the verbs

Example:

(8) Ammalliki bokbok
 aN- balli -ki bokbok
 pref beli(buy) p1j enc buku(book)
 V S O
 'Membeli kami/kita buku'. (We buy a book)

In the (8) enclitic *-ki* is attached at the end of the verb and functioning as the subject with an agentive role. The sentence in which the verb precedes the enclitic *-ki* follows VSO pattern.

3. Proclitic *ki-* or prefix *ni-*

Proclitic *ki-* can be replaced by the prefix *ni-* on daily speech. The proclitic *ki-* or the prefix *ni-* necessitates the definitive marker *-a* to appear.

Example:

(9) Niballi bokboka.
 ni- balli bokbok -a
 p1jproc beli(buy) buku(book) def
 V O
 Buku kami/kita beli (We buy the book.)

In certain situations, 'bokboka' can be at the beginning of the sentence.

Example:

(10) Bokboka niballi
 Bokbok -a ni- balli
 buku(book) def p1j proc beli (buy)

S V
'Buku kami/kita beli.' (We buy the book)

In Sentence (4), there is a different nuance in the sentence, because the use of marker *-a* creates a different meaning. '*Bokboka*' in this context is translated as 'only the book'. Generally, it can be omitted. The next example shows where the definite marker *-a* is omitted (ellipsis).

Example:

(11) Bokbok niballi
bokbok ni- balli
buku (book) 1j proc beli (buy)
S V
'Buku kami/kita beli. (we buy the book)

4. Enclitic -ta

Enclitic -ta can be attached to nouns

Example:

(12) Niboliki bokbotta
ni- bolik -i bokbok -ta
p1 prok simpan (keep) p3 enc buku (book) p1 enc
V S
'Buku itu kami/kita simpan.' (We keep the book)

Enclitic *-ta* attached at the end of 'bokbok' to become '*bokbotta*' serves as a possessive marker. The function of possessive marker *-ta* is different from '*katte*' which is the free form of the personal pronoun. Hence, '*bokbotta*' is the only possible form.

It is also possible to compound the plural first-person pronoun *-ki* with the additional marker *ngas éng*. Hence it becomes '*ikatt éngas éng*' (All of us/ We all)

Example:

(13) Akbicak-bicarangasengki ri dall ékang ballakna
ak- bicak-bicara ngasengki ri dall ékang ballak -na
pref bicara bicara (having a talk) p1j.enk prep depan (in front of) rumah (house) p3enc
V S K
'Kita sedang bercakap-cakap di depan rumahnya'. ('We are having a talk in front of his house').

However, the plural marker '*ngas éng*' is not used anymore. In daily conversations, the marker can be omitted. In the case of the above example, the plural marker '*ngas éng*' refers to either only some parts of reference (only some individuals in the conversation group) or the entire part of the reference (the whole individuals in the group). To know the participants in the conversation, looking at the contextual cue is necessary.

Example:

(14) Akbicak-bicaraki ri dall ékang ballakna
ak- bicak-bicara -ki ri dall ékang ballak -na
pref bicara bicara (having a talk) p1j.enk prep depan (in front of) rumah (house) p3enc
V S K
'Kita sedang bercakap-cakap di depan rumahnya'. ('We are having a talk in front of his house'.)

B. Second Person Pronoun

The second person pronoun is divided into the free and bound categories. Free person pronouns are in singular form and some are also plural. In addition, there is also a bound pronoun as the clitic, there are proclitic and enclitic.

1. The Singular Second Person Pronoun

The singular second-person pronoun has '*kau*' or '*engkau*' the singular form of 'you' (familiar) and *katt é'* tuan / anda' (honorific). '*Kau*' is spoken by the elder person who speaks to the younger, or by the person of a higher social status to the one of lower social status. It is also used when talking with friend or close relatives. These pronouns are in free form.

The free personal pronouns are generally preceded by article '*i*' or '*si*' as in '*ikau*' ('you'), '*ikatt é'*' (you) (honorific) when it comes to the basic structure of a sentence. However, in some variants of the sentence structure, the article '*i*' or '*si*' is omitted or undergoing an ellipsis. When it is not in the free form, the familiar singular second-person pronoun '*ikau*' is represented by enclitic '*ko*', '*-nu*' and proclitic '*nu*'. Likewise, the honorific singular second-person pronoun '*ikatt é'*' is represented by the enclitic '*-ki*', '*-ta*' and the proclitic '*ki*'. Enclitic *-ko* (familiar) and '*-ki*' (honorific), and proclitic '*ki*' (honorific) are attached to the verb functioning as the agentive role. Furthermore, enclitic *-nu* (familiar) and *-ta* (honorific) are attached to nouns as possessive marker. The familiar singular second-person pronoun is '*ikau*' and the honorific singular second-person pronoun is '*ikatte*'.

1. The familiar singular Second Person Pronoun *ikau*

The familiar singular Second Person Pronoun *ikau* is always positioned at the beginning of the sentence.

Example:

- The honorific singular Second Person Pronoun *ikatte*

Example:

- ‘Anda pergi belajar.’ (You go studying)

3. Enclitic –ko and -ki

Example:

- 'Pergi belajar engkau.' (You, go study)

Enclitic -ki can be attached behind a verb

Example:

- 'Pergi belajar engkau.' (You, go study)

Example:

- aK- pilajarak -ki
pref belajar enc p2hon
'Belajar engkau.' (You, study)

The free personal pronoun is generally preceded by the article 'i' or 'si' as in '*ikaungaseng*', or '*ikatt éngaseng*' when it comes to the basic structure of a sentence. However, in some variants of sentence structure, the article 'i' or 'si' is omitted or undergoing an ellipsis. When there is not in the free form, the familiar plural second-person pronoun '*ikaungaseng*' is represented by enclitic '*ngasengko -nungaseng*' and proclitic '*nungaseng*'. Likewise, the honorific plural second-person pronoun '*ikatt éngaseng*' are represented by the enclitic '*-ngasengki*', '*-tangaseng*' and the proclitic '*ngasengki*'. Enclitic '*-ngasengko*' (familiar) and '*-ngasengki*' (honorific), and proclitic '*ngasengki*' (honorific) are attached at the end of the verb functioning as the agentive role. Furthermore, enclitic '*-nungaseng*' (familiar), and '*-tangaseng*' (honorific) are attached to nouns as a possessive marker.

Familiar Plural Second Person Pronouns *ikaungaseng* and Honorific Plural Second Person Pronouns *ikattengaseng*

- Familiar Plural Second Person Pronouns *ikaungaseng*

Familiar Plural Second Person Pronouns *ikaungaseng* is always located at the front of the sentence.

Example:

- (21) Ikaungaseng mang é appilajarak
i kaungaseng mange aK- pilajarak
 art- p2 j pergi (go) pref belajar(study[ing])
 S V
 'Kalian pergi belajar' (You go studying)

- Honorific Plural Second Person Pronouns *ikattengaseng*

Honorific Plural Second Person Pronouns *ikattengaseng* is always located at the front of the sentence.

Example:

- (22) Ikattengaseng mang é appilajarak
i kattengaseng mange aK- pilajarak
 art- p2 j pergi(go) pref belajar(study[ing])
 S V
 'Kalian pergi belajar' (You go studying)

The familiar plural second-person pronouns '*ikaungaseng*' and the honorific plural second-person pronouns in the sentence (21) and (22) are positioned at the beginning of the sentence as the subject with an agentive role. Those sentences follow the SVO pattern.

4. Enclitic -ngasengko and -ngasengki

Enclitic -ngasengko and -ngasengki can be attached to the verb. Enclitic -ngasengko can be attached to the verb.

Example:

- (23) Mang éngasengko appilajarak!
mange -ngasengko aK- pilajarak
 pergi(go) p2enk pref belajar(study[ing])
 V S
 'Pergi belajar kalian!' (You all,/ You folks, go studying!)

5. Enklitika -ngasengki can be attached behind the verb

Example:

- (24) Mang éngasengki appilajarak!
mange -ngasengki aK- pilajarak
 pergi(go) p2enk pref belajar(study[ing])
 V S
 'Pergi belajar kalian!' (You all,/ You folks, go studying!)

The enclitic '*-ngasengko*' in sentence (23) and '*-ngasengki*' in the sentence (24) are attached at the end of the verb and occupies the function of subject with an agentive role. These sentences follow the VSO pattern. The enclitic '*-ngasengko*' in sentence (23) and the enclitic '*-ki*' in the sentence (24) form an imperative sentence. In certain situations, the enclitic '*-ngasengko*' and '*-ngasengki*' are directly attached at the end of the verb of the act in which the speaker makes an imperative.

Example:

- (25) Appilajarakngasengko!
aK- pilajarak -ngasengko
 pref belajar(study) enc p2jf
 'Belajar kalian!' (study, you all/you folks!)
- (26) Appilajarakngasengki!
aK- pilajarak -ngasengki
 pref belajar(study) enc p2jhon
 'Belajar kalian!' (study, you all/you folks!)

C. Third Person Pronoun

The third person pronoun is divided into free personal pronouns and bound personal pronoun categories. Free personal pronouns can be singular or plural. In addition, there is also a bound pronoun as the clitic: proclitic and enclitic.

The Singular Third Person Pronouns

The singular third-person pronouns '*ia*' (she/he) occupies the subject function or complement.

Example:

- (26) Ia angkiringi ak doek
p3 mengirimi(send) -p1 uang(money)
 S V O
 'Ia mengirimi saya uang.' (She/he send me money)

The singular third-person pronoun 'ia' (she/he) at the beginning of a sentence serves as a subject with the agentive role. The sentence follows the SVO pattern. 'Ia' also serves as an object which acts as a topic of the sentence.

- (27) Akkiring ak doꝓ mange ri ia
Mengirimi(send)-p1 uang(money) prep p1\
 V S O Comp

'Saya mengirimi dia uang.' (I send money to him)

- (28) Doek ku kiring mang éri ia.
Uang(money) p1- kirim(send) prep p3
 S V Komp

'Uang saya kirim kepadanya. (I send money to him)

If a sentence gets mutated, some personal elements undergo ellipsis and some others do not. When a sentence does not undergo ellipsis in any of its elements, its semantic meaning is still endured. The personal element subjected to ellipsis can be traced by observing the verb that follows the elements in question. The overhaul is based on whether the verb is a transitive verb or an intransitive verb or based on the category of the verb phrase that follows the predicate function of the sentence. The transitivity or intransitivity of a verb that follows a personal pronoun as the subject's filler does not significantly affect the clarity of the personal element in the sentence.

Example:

- (29) Ia anngall é j ꞑn ꞑ ri banngia
p3-mengambil(take/took) air(water) pada malam(that night)-def
 S V O K

'Dia mengambil air pada malam itu.' (He/she took the water that night).

- (30) anngall é i j ꞑn ꞑ ri banngia
mengambil-p3 air pada malam-def
 V S O K

'Mengambil air dia pada malam itu.' (He/she took the water that night)

- (31) J ꞑn ꞑ na all é ri banngia
air p3- diambil pada malam-def
 S V O K

'Air dia ambil pada malam itu.' (He/she took the water that night)

Sentences (29) and (30) are transitive sentences because there are nouns that serve as objects following the V. It is shown by the verb 'anngall é (take)' that is followed by noun 'jeknek' (water). However, the three sentences above have pronouns going through ellipsis. Initially, in the sentence (29), 'ia' is put in front of the sentence serving as S then gets omitted in the sentence (30) as it is replaced by the absolutive marker '-i' at the end of the verb referring to the same person. As for the sentence (31), the pronoun is transformed into proclitic 'na-' in front of the verb, the noun 'jeknek' (water) is put at the beginning of the sentence.

The personal pronoun 'na-' always precedes the verb with an agentive role. Whereas '-na' is attached at the end of the word it clings to. The '-na' acts as a possessive marker as in 'sapedana' (his/her bike).

Example:

- (32) Na- all é i sap ꞑda -na
P3proc-ambil(takes)-p3enc sepeda(bike) -p3enk
 V S

'Dia ambil sepedanya.' (He/she takes his/her bike)

The third person pronoun in Makassarese language is the singular 'ia', the plural 'iangas éng'. Both forms may occupy the subject of complement function. The personal pronoun 'ia' at the beginning of the sentence is assumed as the agentive role. This type of pronoun organization follows the SVO pattern.

Example:

- (33) Ia a ngkiringi ak doek
p3 mengirimi(send)-p1 uang(money)
 S V O

'Ia mengirimi saya uang.' (She/he send me money)

Ia may also function as an object and act as the topic of the sentence.

Example:

- (34) Akkiringak doꝓ mange ri ia
Mengirimi(send)-p1 uang prep p1
 V S O Comp

'Saya mengirimi dia uang.' (I send him/her money)

- (35) Doek ku kiring mang éri ia.
Uang(money) p1- kirim prep p3
 S V Comp

'Uang saya kirim kepadanya.' (I send him/her money)

If a sentence gets mutated, some personal elements undergo ellipsis and some others do not. When a sentence does not undergo ellipsis in any of its elements, its semantic meaning does not also undergo any change. The personal element subjected to ellipsis can be traced by observing the verb that follows the elements in question. It is done by seeing whether the verb is a transitive verb or an intransitive verb or based on the category of the verb phrase that follows the predicate function of the sentence. The transitivity or intransitivity of a verb following a personal pronoun does not significantly affect the clarity of the personal element in the sentence.

Example:

- (36) Ia anngall é j êkn êk ri banngia
 p3-mengambil air pada malam-def
 S V O K
 'Dia mengambil air pada malam itu.' (He/she took the water that night)
- (37) Anngall é j êkn êk ri banngia
 mengambil-p3 air pada malam-def
 V S O K
 'Mengambil air dia pada malam itu.' (He/she took the water that night)
- (38) J êkn êk naall é ri banngia
 air p3-diambil pada malam-def
 S V O K
 'Air dia ambil pada malam itu.' (He/she took the water that night)

Sentences (36) and (37) are transitive sentences because nouns are serving as objects after the V. It is shown by the verb 'anngall é (take) that is followed by the noun 'jeknek' (water). However, the three sentences above have pronouns going through ellipsis. Initially, in the sentence (39), 'ia' is put in front of the sentence serving as S then gets omitted in a sentence (30) that it is replaced by the absolutive marker '-i' at the end of the verb referring to the same person. As for the sentence (38), the pronoun is transformed into proclitic 'na-' in front of the verb, the noun 'j êkn êk' (water) is put at the beginning of the sentence.

The personal pronoun 'na-' always precedes the verb with an agentive role. Whereas, the '-na' is attached at the end of the word it clings to. The '-na' acts as a possessive marker as in 'sapedana' (his/her bike).

Example :

- (39) Na all é i sap éda na
 P3prok- ambil-p3enk sepeda-p3enk
 V S
 'Dia ambil sepedanya.' (He/She takes the bike)

V. CONCLUSION

Makassar language is a language with unique characteristics. If it is associated with the elements that build it, one word suggests the meaning to the containing sentence (grammatical). The personal pronoun is required to form a sentence such as free pronoun and bound pronoun which is the clitic. Clitic is divided into two: proclitic and enclitic. The clitic attached in front of the verb is called proclitic and the clitic attached at the end of the verb is called enclitic. A sentence that begins with verbs clung by enclitic forms a sentence structure of VS pattern. The sentence that begins with free pronoun forms the sentence structure of the SV pattern of a variety of structures. Thus, the basic pattern of the Makassar sentence is the VS that accentuates the event, whereas the SV pattern with its many structural variations is considered derivation or modification/transformation resulted from basic sentences.

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Language Proficiency and Knowledge in Adjective-Noun Collocations: A Case Study of Vietnamese Learners of English

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Abstract—Collocational development is of great significance to second language acquisition. Among different types of collocations, adjective-noun collocations are notoriously difficult to EFL learners, but there has been limited research, especially in Vietnam, on this type of collocations in the field of teaching and learning English. To address this issue, the current study, employing the quantitative approach, investigates Vietnamese university students' receptive and productive knowledge of adjective-noun collocations and the relationship between their language proficiency and their collocational knowledge. Results reveal that the difference between the students' receptive and productive knowledge was more significant when they reached higher levels of English, and even those at an advanced level had great difficulties in identifying erroneous collocations and using them correctly. The number of collocational errors appeared to increase with rising proficiency. Results also indicate a close relationship between language ability and collocational knowledge, thereby emphasizing the importance of teaching collocations explicitly in English classrooms.

Index Terms—adjective-noun collocations, collocational knowledge, language proficiency, receptive knowledge, productive knowledge

I. INTRODUCTION

Almost 70% of all spoken and written genres of discourse consist of formulaic sequences, among different types of which collocations are “the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally-occurring text” (Lewis, 2000, p. 53). The mastery of collocations is considered as part of communicative competence and an important indicator of EFL learners' language proficiency (Celce-Murcia, 2008; Men, 2018). Thus, the lack of collocational knowledge can be a great hindrance to EFL learners in acquiring thorough understanding of both spoken and written discourse and developing native-like proficiency (Wray, 2002).

The problem is that collocations are notoriously difficult to learn due to the arbitrary nature of collocations, their rigid combination, and their variation in different languages. Because of these reasons, it appears inevitable for EFL learners, even those at advanced level, to make errors in using collocations (Nesselhauf, 2003; Laufer & Waldman, 2011).

Among different types of collocations, verb-noun and adjective-noun collocations are the most frequently used by native speakers and also the most problematic to EFL learners (Gui & Yang, 2003; Benson et al. 2010). In comparison with verb-noun collocations, there appears to be relatively little research focusing on EFL learners' errors in adjective-noun collocations and the relationship between their language proficiency and their knowledge of this type of collocations, especially in the context of Vietnam, where grammar instruction still dominates the EFL classes. Thus, this study is an attempt to fill in these gaps in the literature by addressing the following research questions:

- (1) Is there any statistically significant difference between Vietnamese learners' receptive and productive knowledge of adjective-noun collocations in each level of English?
- (2) Is there a relationship between learners' level of English proficiency and their attempts to use adjective-noun collocations?
- (3) Is there a relationship between Vietnamese learners' receptive knowledge of adjective-noun collocations and their level of English proficiency?
- (4) Is there a relationship between Vietnamese learners' productive knowledge of adjective-noun collocations and their level of English proficiency?
- (5) Is there any statistically significant difference in Vietnamese learners' knowledge of adjective-noun collocations between different levels of English proficiency?

Within the scope of this study, the term “receptive knowledge” is used to refer to the recognition of the right adjective-noun combinations in reading rather than listening, and “productive knowledge” is understood as the recall and use of adjective-noun collocations in writing, not in speaking.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Definition of Collocation*

There are two main approaches frequently adopted by researchers when defining collocation, namely the frequency-based approach (Firth, 1957; Sinclair, 1991; Lewis, 2000) and the phraseological approach (Cowie, 1981; Howarth, 1998). Whereas the former approach examines the habitual co-occurrence of two or more lexical items, using quantitative evidence from corpora, the latter highlights the restriction in combination and the semantic transparency of a collocation, differentiating it with a free combination and an idiom. As both of these approaches have their own merits and demerits, it is suggested that a definition of collocation should embrace the essence of the two major approaches (Kurosaki, 2012).

However, even when this definition combines the ideas of the two approaches, without a clear-cut boundary between a collocation and other linguistic expressions, it is hard to determine whether a group of two or more words is a restricted collocation or, for example, a free combination. Two specific criteria which are often used in research on collocation are frequency (FREQ) and mutual information (MI).

According to Wolter and Yamashita (2015), corpus linguists tend to use “a minimum MI-score threshold of 3 as indicative of significant co-occurrence” to examine how closely related two words are (p. 1201). As regards frequency, while Hong et al. (2011) set the minimum FREQ of five tokens in BNC (the British National Corpus) as the standard threshold for a group of words to be considered a collocation, Shin and Chon (2019) points out that 20 repetitions prove sufficient as the minimum cut-off point for frequency in COCA due to its relatively considerable size (with more than one billion words of data, as compared to 100 million words in BNC) (p. 611). As COCA was used in the current study as a reference source for identifying collocation, the operational definition for the current study is formed as follows:

A collocation is an arbitrarily restricted lexeme combination which is syntactically fixed to a certain degree, is included in the collocation dictionary, presents a minimum MI score of 3.0, and has a raw FREQ of at least 20 tokens in COCA.

B. *Language Proficiency and Collocational Competence*

A growing body of literature has investigated the relationship between English proficiency and collocational knowledge. According to Nesselhauf (2003) and Yan (2010), EFL students, even those at an advanced level, tend to make the most errors in verb-noun and adjective-noun collocations in comparison with other types. Until now there are several studies exploring the connection between verb-noun collocations and language proficiency (Hosseini & Akbarian, 2007; Bueraheng & Laohawiriyanon, 2014; Ebrahimi-Bazzaz et al., 2014, 2015a, 2015b; Nguyen & Webb, 2016; Men, 2018, etc.); however, few researchers, especially in Vietnam, have thoroughly examined the correlation between levels of English and adjective-noun collocational knowledge in terms of both reception and production. Following are the studies conducted by researchers from different countries in the world with EFL learners' adjective-noun collocational knowledge as part of their research aims.

Bueraheng and Laohawiriyanon (2014) investigated whether students with different degrees of exposure to English would achieve different levels of verb-noun and adjective-noun collocational knowledge. The participants were Thai fourth-year students, including 116 students in the International Program at the intermediate level of English and 80 students in the English Major Program at the lower intermediate level. Results indicated that all the participants irrespective of their levels had significantly higher results in terms of their receptive knowledge as compared to their productive knowledge, and that the intermediate students outperformed the lower intermediate students in both receptive and productive knowledge tests.

Sharing the same interest in EFL students' collocational competence at different levels of English, Talakoob and Koosha (2017) examined the possible difference in the receptive and productive collocational knowledge of 60 Iranian students at intermediate and advanced levels. The results showed that the intermediate students' test scores for receptive collocational knowledge were significantly higher than their productive knowledge scores, whereas no statistically significant difference was found in advanced learners' scores for receptive and productive collocational knowledge.

Similarly, Kamarudin (2020) examined whether there was a significant difference between Malaysian students' productive and receptive knowledge of collocations and between their performance on the verb-noun, adjective-noun, and verb-preposition collocation test scores. The participants were 21 university students at the intermediate level of English. The results of the study reveal that the students' receptive knowledge of collocation was significantly greater than their productive knowledge and that verb-preposition collocations were the most problematic to the students while verb-noun collocations caused the least problems.

The major theme running through these studies is that the students tend to have a greater passive knowledge of collocations than their active knowledge. Unlike these studies, Nguyen and Webb (2016) and Men (2018) only focused on the students' receptive knowledge or productive knowledge of collocations in their research.

Nguyen and Webb (2016) only focused on the learners' receptive knowledge of verb-noun and adjective-noun collocations at the first three 1,000 word frequency levels. The participants were 100 Vietnamese first-year students majoring in English, whose general level of English proficiency was estimated to be between pre-intermediate to intermediate. The results show that Vietnamese EFL learners had limited collocational knowledge at the first three 1,000 word frequency levels, for the participants' mean scores in both verb-noun and adjective-noun sections were below 50% across the three frequency levels (1,000, 2,000 and 3,000 words). Besides, there were statistically

significant differences in the mean scores across the three levels of each section of the collocation test. The findings also indicated a decrease in the students' collocational knowledge across the three levels.

Different from the aforementioned prior studies on collocations whose research instruments were mainly collocation tests, Men (2018) made use of the Chinese Learner English Corpus, a database of written texts by Chinese students at five different levels of English proficiency to investigate the relationship between the production of L2 collocation and vocabulary growth. The study only focused on the three most common types of collocations, including verb-noun, adjective-noun and noun-noun collocations. As regards adjective-noun collocations, the quantitative analyses of the study showed that the students at the higher levels of English produced significantly more correct adjective-noun combinations than the lower levels, and there was a significant decrease in collocation errors in the writings of advanced learners as compared with those at a basic level. It can be seen that their productive collocational knowledge develops with rising L2 proficiency. However, it is also noteworthy that the students in this study, even those at the basic level, did not have great difficulties with adjective-noun collocations.

Based on the findings from Nguyen and Webb (2016) and Men (2018), it can be concluded that EFL students tend to have a limited receptive knowledge of adjective-noun collocations, but surprisingly they did not encounter many problems in using this type of collocations. These findings appear to be in contradiction with Bueraheng and Laohawiriyanon (2014), Talakoob and Koosha (2017) and Kamarudin (2020) which highlighted that EFL students' receptive knowledge of adjective-noun collocations was generally greater than their productive knowledge.

In brief, the review of the literature shows that there have been an insufficient number of studies on the relationship between different levels of language proficiency and adjective-noun collocational knowledge. The few studies that did explore this issue have mostly been limited to their sample size and the number of English proficiency levels which were discussed and analyzed in correlation with L2 collocational knowledge. Besides, the conflicting findings among previous studies seemed to add to the general confusion about this issue rather than solve it adequately. Thus, this study attempts to fill the existing gap in the literature by investigating whether there is a statistically significant difference between EFL learners' receptive and productive knowledge of adjective-noun collocations and whether there is a relationship between the learners' different levels of English proficiency and different levels of collocational knowledge, i.e. recognition and production, in the context of Vietnam.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study was conducted at the University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University, Ho Chi Minh City in the academic year 2020-2021. Due to the impact of COVID-19, it was almost impossible to opt for a probability sample, so the researcher used convenience sampling by choosing the sample from the Vietnamese students to whom she had easy access. Initially, there were 227 English-majored students, including freshmen, sophomores and juniors, who volunteered to participate in the research. However, at the time of data collection, 11 students missed one or two tests given in the research, so they were excluded from the study. As a result, the total number of participants in this study was 216. In order to evaluate the students' English proficiency, the Quick Placement Test (QPT) (UCLES, 2001) was administered to the students. The results show that the students' levels of English ranged from B1 (intermediate) to C1 (advanced). The description of the participants is summarized in Table I.

TABLE I
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

		Freshmen		Sophomores		Juniors		Total	
		Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Gender	Male	12	14.8	11	15.1	9	14.5	32	14.8
	Female	69	85.2	62	84.9	53	85.5	184	85.2
Age	18-21	79	97.5	68	93.2	57	91.9	204	94.4
	>21	2	2.5	5	6.8	5	8.1	12	5.6
English Proficiency	B1	59	72.8	3	4.1	0	0.0	62	28.7
	B2	19	23.5	44	60.3	15	24.2	78	36.1
	C1	3	3.7	26	35.6	47	75.8	76	35.2
Number of students		81	100	73	100	62	100	216	100

B. Research Instruments

There were two instruments used in this study to measure the students' collocational knowledge, including the Receptive Knowledge Test and the Productive Knowledge Test. The Productive Knowledge Test was designed before the Receptive Knowledge Test as the students' answers to the questions in the former test would provide materials for the researcher to design the test items for the latter test.

In the Productive Knowledge Test, there are 20 gap-filling items, each of which requires the students to supply the missing adjective-noun collocation in each sentential context. As this is a collocation test, not a language proficiency test, the given contexts and the missing word combinations were all translated into Vietnamese to aid the students' comprehension, ensuring that any mistake that the students made was due to their limited knowledge of collocations,

not their misunderstanding of the contexts. For one Vietnamese translation of the target collocation, there may be different word combinations in English that express the same idea; therefore, the students were encouraged to provide as many adjective-noun collocations as possible to demonstrate their collocational knowledge. Following is an example of a test item in the Productive Knowledge Test.

5. He became totally toothless and had to wear _____ to eat.

(Ông ta mất to ần bộ răng và phải mang răng giả mới c ó thể ăn được.)

The Receptive Knowledge Test includes 20 multiple-choice items. As receptive knowledge refers to the ability to recognize not only the right words that can occur with a specified word but also the incorrect combinations (Gyllstad, 2007), the students were required to choose the best answer out of three given options. This is an example of test item in the Receptive Knowledge Test.

5. A. artificial teeth B. false teeth C. Both are correct.

The 20 target collocations in this test are the same as those in the Productive Test because one of the purposes of the receptive test was to find out whether the students were able to identify which word combinations are incorrect. Moreover, in the Productive Knowledge Test, the students might write only the collocations they were certain of and avoid providing the answers they felt uncertain, thus the inclusion of these test items in the Receptive Knowledge Test was expected to provide a more complete picture of their collocational knowledge. Specifically, one of the options in each test item is the target collocation, another option is either a wrong combination or another correct collocation with the same meaning as the first one, and the last option is *Both are correct*. The wrong word combinations were created by translating literally from the Vietnamese equivalents, substituting one component of the correct collocation with its synonym, or, in many cases, making use of the students' incorrect answers in the Productive Knowledge Test.

The validity of the tests was ensured by the researcher's senior colleagues and mentors. The tests were also piloted on 20 students of the same population, using the test-retest method, to assess their reliability. The correlation coefficients of the Receptive Knowledge Test and Productive Knowledge Test were .783 and .798 respectively, which confirmed the stability of the tests over time. In addition, the Cronbach's alpha values (α) for these tests were .787 and .802, reassuring the internal consistency of the collocation tests.

C. Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

The following steps were taken to collect the data. First, the QPT was distributed to the participants to evaluate their English proficiency. In the next meeting with the researcher, the students were given the Productive Knowledge Test and they had 30 minutes to complete the test. The Productive Knowledge Test was administered to the students before the Receptive Knowledge Test so that the students would not remember the options in the multiple-choice questions and wrote them in the gap-filling test items. After the first collocation test was completed, the researcher collected all the students' answer sheets before distributing the second test. The students continued to do the Receptive Test within only 15 minutes, for this test was less time-consuming than the previous one. The total time for the whole test was 45 minutes.

The maximum score of the Receptive Knowledge Test was 20. The answer to each item in this test was coded dichotomously as right (1) or wrong (0) in SPSS. As regards the Productive Knowledge Test, there was no maximum score decided beforehand. Since the students were encouraged to provide many answers for each test item, there may be both correct answers and incorrect answers in one test item. The students were given one point for every correct answer. This means the score for the Productive Knowledge Test was the total number of the correct answers they provided in the test. Besides, the attempts to use collocations in the Productive Knowledge Test are equal to the total numbers of both correct and incorrect collocations. COCA was employed to check the collocability of the adjective-noun combinations in the students' answers with the criteria set by the operational definition.

Regarding the data analysis procedure, in order to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference between the learners' receptive and productive collocational knowledge, paired samples t-tests were conducted on the mean scores of the two collocation tests. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were also computed to examine the relationships between the students' language proficiency and their collocational knowledge in terms of both recognition and production and between their language competence and their attempts to use collocations. Finally, one-way ANOVA was run to find out whether there was any statistically significant difference in Vietnamese learners' knowledge of adjective-noun collocations between different levels of English proficiency.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Receptive and Productive Knowledge of Collocations

The first research question focuses on whether the students' receptive knowledge of collocations was significantly greater than their productive knowledge in each English level. Paired-samples t-tests were used to compare the mean scores of the two collocation knowledge tests, the results of which are summarized in Tables II and III.

TABLE II
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RECEPTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST AND PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST

Level		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
B1	Receptive Knowledge Test	4.53	62	1.067	.135
	Productive Knowledge Test	4.74	62	1.492	.190
B2	Receptive Knowledge Test	6.81	78	1.571	.178
	Productive Knowledge Test	7.46	78	1.535	.174
C1	Receptive Knowledge Test	7.18	76	1.449	.166
	Productive Knowledge Test	9.03	76	1.766	.203

TABLE III
RESULTS OF THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE SCORES OF THE RECEPTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST AND THE PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST

Level	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
B1	-.210	1.611	.205	-.619	.199	-1.025	61	.309
B2	-.654	2.005	.227	-1.106	-.202	-2.880	77	.005
C1	-1.842	1.488	.171	-2.182	-1.502	-10.791	75	.000

As can be seen in Table III, the intermediate students' mean score of the Receptive Knowledge Test ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.067$) is not significantly lower ($t(61) = -1.025$, $p = 0.309 > 0.05$) than the score of the Productive Knowledge Test ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 1.492$). Thus, it could be concluded that there was no statistically significant difference between the intermediate students' receptive and productive knowledge of L2 collocations. In contrast, there was a significant difference ($t(77) = -2.880$, $p = 0.005 < 0.05$) between the receptive knowledge score of the upper-intermediate (B2) students ($M = 6.81$, $SD = 1.571$) and their productive mean score ($M = 7.46$, $SD = 1.535$). In a similar vein, the advanced students had a significantly lower mean score for their recognition of English collocations than for their production of these collocations ($t(75) = -10.791$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$). These findings are in contradiction with the results in Bueraheng and Laohawiriyonon (2014), which reported that the intermediate learners' receptive knowledge was significantly higher than their productive knowledge of collocations, and they also differ from Talakoob and Koosha (2017), which argued that there was no significant difference between the advanced learners' receptive and productive collocational knowledge.

One of the most striking findings to emerge from the data is that the participants in this study generally performed significantly worse in the Receptive Knowledge Test. This result is in contrast with earlier evidence of EFL learners' tendency to have a better score in the receptive test than in the productive test of collocations (Bueraheng & Laohawiriyonon, 2014; Talakoob & Koosha, 2017; Kamarudin, 2020).

Possible explanations for these contradictions in research results might lie in the differences in the scope and the format of the receptive test in each study. Specifically, the Receptive Knowledge Test in this study focused only on adjective-noun collocations, one of the most problematic collocation type for EFL learners, whereas the tests in the previous studies included different types of collocations, which means adjective-noun collocations are just part of the test, and some target collocations were relatively easy even to B1 students such as *next week*, *take place*, etc. It is also noteworthy that the test items in the receptive test of the previous studies seem to be less challenging, for the participants were simply required to evaluate whether or not the given word combinations are acceptable or which collocation is correct between the two options. To put it differently, the students had a 50% probability to answer correctly even when they do not know the correct word combination. Besides, such a test format allows the respondents to know only one correct option and ignore the other one as it is clearly incorrect. In the current study, the third option, i.e. *Both are correct*, was added not only to increase the difficulty of the Receptive Knowledge Test but also to check the students' ability to recognize erroneous collocations as well as their knowledge of different adjectives that can collocate a certain noun. With limited knowledge about collocations, the students, especially those at the lower English level, might have difficulties in deciding whether an unfamiliar combination was a correct collocation or not. At B1 level, some students were even not aware of collocations; therefore, recognizing deviant collocations or producing well-formed collocations seemed to be impossible for these students. This explains the reason why the students at B1 level not only had very low mean score for the Productive Knowledge Test but also a similarly poor score for the Receptive Test.

Additionally, the occurrences of incongruent collocations in some items of the receptive test also caused a great problem for the participants in this study, even those at an advanced level. For example, the Vietnamese collocation *gió mạnh* (literally translated as 'strong wind') has an English congruent equivalent, i.e. *strong wind* and an incongruent one, i.e. *high wind*. Most Vietnamese students could easily identify *strong wind* as a correct collocation, but they did not consider *high wind* as an equivalent combination because of the inequivalent component *high*, which is why they failed to choose the correct answer, i.e. *Both are correct*. While in the Productive Knowledge Test the students could avoid using the word combinations of which they were uncertain to achieve error-free production and gain one point for every correct answer, the design in the Receptive Knowledge Test did not allow them to use such a risk-avoiding strategy; instead, their lack of knowledge was exposed and they lost the point if they did not know the unfamiliar collocations or could not recognize the erroneous collocations. All of these explain the reason why the students at higher levels of English proficiency had a significantly lower mean score in the receptive test than their productive test score.

B. Language Proficiency and Attempts to Use Collocations

Pearson product-moment correlations were run to determine the relationship between the Vietnamese students' levels of English and their attempts to use adjective-noun collocations. These attempts could result in well-formed collocations or deviant collocations. Following are the statistics of correct and incorrect collocations and the SPSS output of the Pearson correlations.

TABLE IV
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF WELL-FORMED AND DEVIANT COLLOCATIONS IN THE PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST

Level	Productive Knowledge Test					
	Well-formed collocations		Deviant collocations		Total number of collocations (or total number of attempts to use collocations)	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
B1	294	27.0	793	73.0	1087	100
B2	582	34.9	1087	65.1	1669	100
C1	686	38.9	1079	61.1	1765	100

As shown in Table IV, the students at the three levels of L2 proficiency produced a particularly high number of deviant collocations, which constituted well over half of all the adjective-noun collocations they attempted to produce. The results presented in Table VI reveal that there was a weak relationship between the learners' language proficiency and the number of deviant collocations they produced ($r = 0.272$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). The direction of the relationship was positive (i.e., the proficiency level and the number of incorrect collocations were positively correlated), meaning that these variables tended to increase together, though the magnitude, or strength, of the association was weak ($0.20 < r < 0.40$).

TABLE V
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SCORES OF THE QUICK PLACEMENT TEST AND OTHER DATA RELATED TO THE PRODUCTIVE KNOWLEDGE TEST

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Productive Knowledge Test	Quick Placement Test	43.86	6.351	216
	Well-formed collocations	7.23	2.347	216
	Deviant collocations	13.70	2.057	216
	Attempts to use collocations	20.93	3.254	216

TABLE VI
RESULTS OF THE PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS FOR THE SCORES OF THE QUICK PLACEMENT TEST AND THE ATTEMPTS TO USE COLLOCATIONS

		Quick Placement Test	Well-formed collocations	Deviant collocations	Attempts to use collocations
Quick Placement Test	Pearson Correlation	1	.772**	.272**	.729**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	216	216	216	216
Well-formed collocations	Pearson Correlation	.772**	1	.088	.777**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.199	.000
	N	216	216	216	216
Deviant collocations	Pearson Correlation	.272**	.088	1	.695**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.199		.000
	N	216	216	216	216
Attempts to use collocations	Pearson Correlation	.729**	.777**	.695**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	216	216	216	216

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

It can be seen from Table VI that there were strong correlations between the students' language proficiency and the accuracy in their production of adjective-noun collocations ($r = 0.772$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$) and between their English proficiency and their attempts to use collocations ($r = 0.729$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). Besides, the learners' attempts to use collocations and the number of incorrect collocations were moderately positively correlated ($r = 0.695$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). These findings reveal that the students at higher levels of English tend to use more adjective-noun collocations and produce more well-formed collocations but at the same time make relatively more mistakes.

C. Language Proficiency and Collocational Knowledge

The third and the fourth research questions ask about the relationship between language proficiency and receptive collocational knowledge and between language proficiency and productive collocational knowledge. Two Pearson product-moment correlations were run with the results shown below.

TABLE VII
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE QUICK PLACEMENT TEST AND THE COLLOCATION TESTS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Quick Placement Test	43.86	6.351	216
Receptive Knowledge Test	6.29	1.792	216
Productive Knowledge Test	7.23	2.347	216

TABLE VIII
RESULTS OF THE PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS FOR THE SCORES OF THE QUICK PLACEMENT TEST AND THE COLLOCATION TESTS

		Quick Placement Test	Receptive Knowledge Test	Productive Knowledge Test
Quick Placement Test	Pearson Correlation	1	.646**	.772**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	216	216	216
Receptive Knowledge Test	Pearson Correlation	.646**	1	.630**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	216	216	216
Productive Knowledge Test	Pearson Correlation	.772**	.630**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	216	216	216

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table VIII reveals that there was a strong, positive correlation between the mean score of the Quick Placement Test and that of the Receptive Knowledge Test, which was statistically significant ($r = 0.646$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$). Similarly, the score of the Quick Placement Test and that of the Productive Knowledge Test had a statistically significant linear relationship ($r = 0.772$, $p = 0.00 < 0.05$), and the magnitude of the association was also strong ($0.59 < r < 0.80$). Thus, it can be inferred that there was a close relationship between learners' levels of English proficiency and their collocational knowledge, which means increases in English proficiency were consistently correlated with increases in their knowledge of English adjective-noun collocations. In other words, when a learner's general knowledge and skills in English improve, his/her knowledge and use of collocations will increase as well. This finding is consistent with previous results (Namvar, 2012; Men, 2018), supporting the view that collocational knowledge is an important indicator of language proficiency.

In order to answer the last research question, one-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc tests were conducted to find out whether there was any statistically significant difference in Vietnamese learners' knowledge of adjective-noun collocations between different levels of English proficiency.

TABLE IX
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE SCORES OF THE STUDENTS AT THREE ENGLISH LEVELS IN THE COLLOCATION TESTS

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Receptive Knowledge Test		B1	62	4.53	1.067	.135	4.26	4.80	2	8
		B2	78	6.81	1.571	.178	6.45	7.16	2	10
		C1	76	7.18	1.449	.166	6.85	7.52	4	10
		Total	216	6.29	1.792	.122	6.05	6.53	2	10
Productive Knowledge Test	Well-formed collocations	B1	62	4.74	1.492	.190	4.36	5.12	2	9
		B2	78	7.46	1.535	.174	7.12	7.81	4	11
		C1	76	9.03	1.766	.203	8.62	9.43	6	14
		Total	216	7.23	2.347	.160	6.92	7.55	2	14
	Deviant collocations	B1	62	12.79	2.490	.316	12.16	13.42	7	17
		B2	78	13.94	1.630	.185	13.57	14.30	11	19
		C1	76	14.20	1.833	.210	13.78	14.62	9	18
		Total	216	13.70	2.057	.140	13.42	13.97	7	19

TABLE X
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE SCORES OF THE STUDENTS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF ENGLISH IN THE COLLOCATION TESTS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
Receptive Knowledge Test		Between Groups	273.232	2	136.616	69.787	.000
		Within Groups	416.972	213	1.958		
		Total	690.204	215			
Productive Knowledge Test	Well-formed collocations	Between Groups	633.223	2	316.611	122.347	.000
		Within Groups	551.203	213	2.588		
		Total	1184.426	215			
	Deviant collocations	Between Groups	74.447	2	37.223	9.495	.000
		Within Groups	834.993	213	3.920		
		Total	909.440	215			

TABLE XI
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS BETWEEN DIFFERENT LANGUAGE LEVELS IN THE NUMBER OF WELL-FORMED AND DEVIANT COLLOCATIONS
Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable		(I) Level	(J) Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Receptive Knowledge Test		B1	B2	-2.275*	.238	.000	-2.84	-1.71
			C1	-2.652*	.239	.000	-3.22	-2.09
		B2	B1	2.275*	.238	.000	1.71	2.84
			C1	-.377	.226	.219	-.91	.16
		C1	B1	2.652*	.239	.000	2.09	3.22
			B2	.377	.226	.219	-.16	.91
Productive Knowledge Test	Well-formed collocations	B1	B2	-2.720*	.274	.000	-3.37	-2.07
			C1	-4.284*	.275	.000	-4.93	-3.63
		B2	B1	2.720*	.274	.000	2.07	3.37
			C1	-1.565*	.259	.000	-2.18	-.95
		C1	B1	4.284*	.275	.000	3.63	4.93
			B2	1.565*	.259	.000	.95	2.18
	Deviant collocations	B1	B2	-1.146*	.337	.002	-1.94	-.35
			C1	-1.407*	.339	.000	-2.21	-.61
		B2	B1	1.146*	.337	.002	.35	1.94
			C1	-.261	.319	.691	-1.01	.49
		C1	B1	1.407*	.339	.000	.61	2.21
			B2	.261	.319	.691	-.49	1.01

*, The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As shown in Table X, a significant difference was found in the average numbers of the well-formed collocations produced by the students in each pair of English levels ($p < 0.05$). As regards the number of deviant collocations, only the results of the students at B2 level ($M = 13.94$, $SD = 1.630$) and C1 level ($M = 14.20$, $SD = 1.833$) were not significantly different ($p = 0.691$), which is similar to the results of the Receptive Knowledge Test. These data suggest that there is generally an increase in the students' reception and production of adjective-noun collocations with rising L2 proficiency; however, higher English proficiency does not guarantee a significant decrease in deviant collocations, and the increase in their collocational knowledge appears to be slower when they reach an advanced level.

The findings in this study indicate that there was no significant error decrease when comparing the results of the students at B2 and C1 levels in terms of both reception and production of adjective-noun collocations. This is in good agreement with the finding of Nguyen and Webb (2016) about a decline in the development of collocational knowledge of students at high levels of language proficiency. It is also unexpected that the number of erroneous adjective-noun collocations produced by B2 and C1 learners in this study turned out to be far greater than those at a lower level (Table 4). This concurs well with Laufer and Waldman (2011)'s finding when they investigated the relationship between language proficiency and verb-noun collocations. Their study revealed that the advanced and the intermediate learners produced significantly more incorrect verb-noun collocations than those at the basic level. The reason for such a decrease in the development of collocational knowledge and an increase in incorrect collocations produced by students at higher English levels may lie in what Men (2018) called as "collocation lag". Specifically, collocational knowledge lags far behind the development of grammar and vocabulary. It appears that the increase in single-word vocabulary does not ensure the accuracy of word combinations. Take the target collocation "răng giả" (*false teeth*) in the Productive Knowledge Test as an example. Several students at the intermediate level did not give any answer to this test item or gave a wrong collocations (e.g. **not real teeth* or **unreal teeth*), the components of which are mostly from A1 to B1 level, whereas the students at B2 or C1 level provided more correct answers (i.e. *false teeth*), but at the same time introduced several erroneous collocations (e.g. **fake teeth*, **man-made teeth*, **artificial teeth*, **counterfeit teeth*, **ceramic teeth*, etc.). As can be seen in Table IV, the students at higher levels tend to make more attempts to produce different collocations for each test item possibly due to their confidence in their language proficiency and their wide range of single-word vocabulary that allows them to use a variety of synonyms to create several expressions with the same meaning, though many of them are incorrect combinations.

According to Gitsaki (1999), adjective-noun collocations are an easy and early acquired type of collocations. Men (2018) also proved that Chinese students did not find this type of collocation particularly problematic. However, the data in this study proved that the students, even those at high levels of English are very likely to encounter great difficulties in using adjective-noun collocations. The mean scores of the Receptive Knowledge Test and the Productive Knowledge Tests were well below half of the total scores. The cause for such a sharp contrast in the research results might lie in the source of data. In order to collect well-formed and deviant collocations, Men (2018) analysed several writings by Chinese learners at different English levels and pointed out that there were not so many instances of erroneous adjective-noun collocations in the corpus. However, the relatively small number of incorrect collocations of this type does not necessarily mean that the students do not struggle to use them. They may simply avoid using the expressions or word combinations which they are unsure of in order to feel safe from errors by using more simple phrases, avoiding the topic or concept that pose difficulties or even leaving the message unfinished. This phenomenon was termed as "avoidance behavior" or "avoidance strategy" in second language acquisition (Schachter, 1974;

Kleinmann, 1977; Brown, 2000). Unlike Men (2018), this study collected the data from the two collocations tests which required the respondents to identify the correct collocations as well as the incorrect collocations and produce the adjective-noun collocations to complete the sentences, thereby minimizing their use of avoidance strategies. It is in these tests that the students' collocational errors were exposed and analyzed. Thanks to the results of the collocation test, this study has provided a revealing insight into the Vietnamese learners' knowledge of adjective-noun collocations.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This article investigates Vietnamese students' knowledge of adjective-noun collocations in terms of both reception and production and explored the relationship between knowledge of collocations and language proficiency among English-majors at a university in Vietnam. The results show that the students, even those at advanced levels, had a very limited knowledge of adjective-noun collocations. It is noteworthy that the students had greater difficulties in identifying erroneous collocations than recognizing the correct combinations. One interesting finding of the study is that the students at higher levels of language proficiency were more likely to produce deviant adjective-noun collocations, for they tended to make more attempts to use collocations and they tried to combine unfamiliar words to create new expressions. Besides, this study confirms the results of prior research suggesting that language ability is a good predictor of collocational knowledge. It is also important to note that the increase in the students' collocational knowledge appears to be slower when they reach an advanced level.

Due to the importance of adjective-noun collocations in second language acquisition and the difficulties they cause for EFL learners irrespective of their levels, this type of collocations deserves more attention from researchers, teachers and learners. It is advisable that teachers raise the students' awareness of the significance of collocations by instructing them to discover the effectiveness of collocation use in both spoken and written discourse. Teachers also need to teach the students how to search for well-formed collocations by using the collocation dictionaries and corpuses. Their continual encouragement is also of great importance in helping the students develop the habit of using collocations in both speaking and writing.

Owing to the constraints of time and resources, this work clearly has some limitations in the sample size, the sampling method as well as the number of adjective-noun collocations included in the tests. It is hoped that the results of this study can be further validated with a larger sample size selected by probability sampling for stronger generalizability. The findings of this study also suggest the following directions for future research: (1) analyzing errors related to English adjective-noun collocations, (2) exploring the role of L1 in collocational development, and (3) examining the development of collocations over time.

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Analysis of Fallacies in Below-Average Chinese Debaters' Speech From Judges' Oral Feedback

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Abstract—This study aims to explore and analyze the common characteristics of fallacies made by below-average Chinese debaters and identify the criteria used by judges in evaluating those fallacies that determine the ranking of debaters. The 20 pieces of oral feedback from judges on the total fallacies made by five teams of below-average debaters from one tournament of the FLTRP CUP debate competition were selected. A direct link to the cause of faulty reasoning in the group of lower ranked teams was found between relevance-related and structural-related fallacies. Additional contributory fallacies which prevented debaters from winning if not necessarily losing were those related to acceptability and refutation, finally, the most prevalent fallacy was found to be that related to sufficiency which occurred in varying degrees and at different levels of the team.

Index Terms—fallacies, oral feedback, below-average debaters

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese 2nd language learners, who are unable to use appropriate evaluation criteria to think consciously and make reasonable judgments (Paul & elder, 2006) are generally described as lacking the skills of critical thinking, a phenomenon that teachers and researchers have spared no efforts to tackle. Arguably one of the most fundamental skills, this ability underlies success in academia and professional careers (Harrel, 2011). To master this ability, students need to know what makes a good argument and how to construct a good argument.

This situation has engendered the growth of such courses as debate at university and is the reason for the increasing popularity of the British Parliament (BP) debate in China. Indeed, to some extent, the Covid-19 virus outbreak in 2020 also played a role in it. Since debaters were unable to take part in offline tournaments, online contests became a frequent occurrence. This situation resulted in a reduction in the cost of hosting and attending such events, thereby affording participants more opportunities of participating. In addition, the relatively easy access to such events has enabled many young adjudicators with excellent credentials in the field to organize such online events, adding much diversity and innovation to the debate itself.

Accordingly, research on the cultivation of critical thinking ability has become the top priority of English teaching and scientific research. However, the current research focuses on the rules, strategies, and importance of debate, which makes little contribution to our understanding of the characteristics of debaters' critical thinking skills and how to improve these. Teachers always take it for granted that as long as they emphasize the skills needed, students will inevitably follow on with the process of analysis, reasoning, and evaluation, thereby improving their abilities in these areas through the practice of debate. However, it is often the case that after a whole semester's classroom instruction and practice, debaters were still found to be struggling with many problems such as providing adequate justifications to their claims and generating counterarguments to rebut the opposite side. Below-average debaters, in particular, find it very difficult to break the preliminary rounds, with their speaker points below the average of 75 points, given at tournaments. An evaluation of contestants' speeches showed these below-average participants exhibited fallacies of various kinds in evidence or reasoning, thus lowering the logical quality of arguments. How then, should one evaluate these fallacies? Which fallacy proved to be the crucial factor preventing contestants from being able to construct sound arguments? Fortunately, the very availability of an increased number of tournaments provides us with oral feedback from judges who, as experienced debaters, are much better qualified to evaluate participants' fallacies than teachers who have little experience of formal debate themselves. It is undeniable that relevant feedback from such debates has had a significant pedagogical impact in informing and enlightening teachers on the actual problems and pitfalls encountered by these below-average debaters. Careful analysis of this feedback enables teachers to tailor their instruction in the classroom to the areas pinpointed as being deficient.

II. A GENERAL REVIEW OF FALLACIES IN ARGUMENTATION

A. Fallacies in Argumentation

Whether a team can win a tournament is determined by the quality of arguments. An argument is a claim supported by other claims (Toulmin, 1958), but it may not be a very good one. Good arguments, even with flaws can still be persuasive but some fallacies can only lead arguments to go wrong (Facione, 2011). Therefore, recognizing and

evaluating fallacies are essential. This thesis takes T. Edward Damer's theory of fallacy for the reason that his model identifies five criteria for good arguments and fallacies are defined as being any violation of those criteria. Since this thesis is concerned with pedagogical implications to good argumentation, what matters is not how many fallacies debaters make but what particular fallacies are frequently made and what particular fallacies lead to poor quality of the argument. Besides, comparing with Johnson and Blair's model (Trapp, 2016), Damer's five categories of fallacies, rather than three, are clearer, and more specific to help to recognize good arguments, though the two models are both based on criteria for logical assessment of arguments.

A good argument meets five logical criteria: (1) the structural demands of a well-formed argument, (2) the relevance of the argument's premises, (3) the acceptability of the argument's premises, (4) the sufficiency of the premises to support the conclusion of the argument and (5) the effectiveness of the arguments rebuttal to the strongest criticisms against the argument or the position it supports (Damer, 2008, P.2).

Accordingly, a fallacy is a violation of one or more of the five criteria of a good argument. Specifically, (1) Begging the question fallacies, fallacies of inconsistency, and fallacies of deductive inference violate the structural criterion of a good argument for they prevent the conclusions from following either necessarily or probably from the premises; (2) Fallacies that violate the relevance criterion include fallacies of irrelevant premise and fallacies of irrelevant appeal, irrelevant to the truth or merit of conclusion; (3) Both fallacies of linguistic confusion and unwarranted assumption fallacies fail to meet the conditions of the acceptability criterion, making them unacceptable to a mature and rational person. (4) Arguments that commit causal fallacies and missing evidence are not sufficiently supported by appropriate evidence and thus fail to meet the sufficiency criterion. (5) The fallacies that fail to provide an effective rebuttal or engagement to the strong case of the other side can be divided into three categories: the fallacies of counter-evidence, the ad hominem fallacies, and the fallacies of the division.

B. Judge's Oral Feedback

The role of judges in a debate is significant. The function performed by the judge includes keeping order, ranking the teams, and most importantly educating the debaters. Since judges are all former debaters who have achieved outstanding success in the field of debate, their explanation of the criteria adhered to in determining rank on a team and their advice on debating skills is of great benefit in improving debaters' understanding of argumentation and enhancing their critical thinking ability.

To a large extent, judges' feedback can be further divided into three areas: general suggestions, the reasons for the ranking, and question and answer time. Clarifying how the rankings are determined and why certain teams are preferred over others, the judges, explain how they distinguish bad arguments from good ones by pointing out the particular fallacies made by each individual or team. Moreover, the evaluative comments and feedback provided by professional debate judges were invaluable in helping debaters to better understand weaknesses in argumentation and delivery.

III. DATA SOURCE AND RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The present study is conducted based on one tournament of the "FLTRP CUP" National English Debating competition jointly hosted by the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. Inaugurated in 1997, this competition is the only national English debating event in China. This study appertains to the competition on July 24-25, 2021 when five teams of ZiJin College entered five preliminary rounds. Since round 4 is a silent round with no oral feedback being provided, 20 instances of feedback in total, were received from judges.

TABLE I
MOTIONS FOR EACH ROUND

Round	Motion
1	We would cancel the summer and winter vacation in primary and secondary schools.
2	We would provide a universal child-care subsidy based on the number of children per household.
3	We regret the rising trend of people unwilling to post comments on controversial issues on social media.
5	We regret the narrative that social science/academic research should avoid any display of emotion.

Common characteristics shared by these teams are that they all participated in the first five preliminary rounds but did not break or gain entry to the elimination rounds and that they were all below average debaters with their total team scores of 5-8 and average speaker points of 70-74, which were below the average of 75 points given at a tournament.

The research procedures of the study include:

- 1) Transcript oral feedback into written form
- 2) Identify and calculating fallacies made by ZiJin teams.
- 3) Classify and summarize major fallacy types.
- 4) Evaluate and analyze fallacies.
- 5) Discuss pedagogical implications.

Since this study aims at supplying a clear description of below-average debaters' fallacies to guide for improving teaching practices in this area, specific research questions include:

- (1) What major fallacies were made by below-average debaters that contribute to poor reasoning?
- (2) What criteria were used by judges to evaluate fallacies of debaters and thus determine the ranking?

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Due to the intense nature of BP debate formats which only allow 15 minutes' preparation, fallacies tend to occur more frequently. In addition, once the draw is posted and the topic announced, all judges need to keep order, take notes and determine both the rank of the teams and each speaker's points. Therefore, they do not have time to count all the fallacies made by debaters in each round. Moreover, the purpose of this paper is not to test how many fallacies occur, but from the perspective of judges, which fallacies lead to wrong reasoning. It is for this reason that judges' feedback has been chosen for closer appraisal. The fallacies judges assessed are closely related to how the rankings are determined and why certain teams are preferred over others.

In table 2, 33 fallacies were detected in twenty debates. Although this figure is not sufficient to draw a complete picture of Chinese below-average debater's fallacies, a basic understanding of possible fallacies contributing to bad or imperfect arguments can be built. In the following analysis, fallacies mentioned by judges are collected and evaluated, and the causes of these fallacies are discussed.

A. Fallacies Identification and Categorization

According to their failure to meet the criteria of good arguments, the fallacies are categorized into five major types: 1) structural-related 2) relevance-related 3) acceptability-related 4) sufficiency-related, and 5) rebuttal-related. Meanwhile, the Fallacies are further divided into four in line with their team ranks.

TABLE 2
THE FREQUENCY AND DISTRIBUTION OF FALLACY CATEGORIES

Categories of Fallacies	Frequency	Percentage
Structural-related	4	12%
Relevance-related	6	18%
Acceptability-related	5	15%
Sufficiency-related	12	36%
Rebuttal-related	6	18%
Total	33	100%

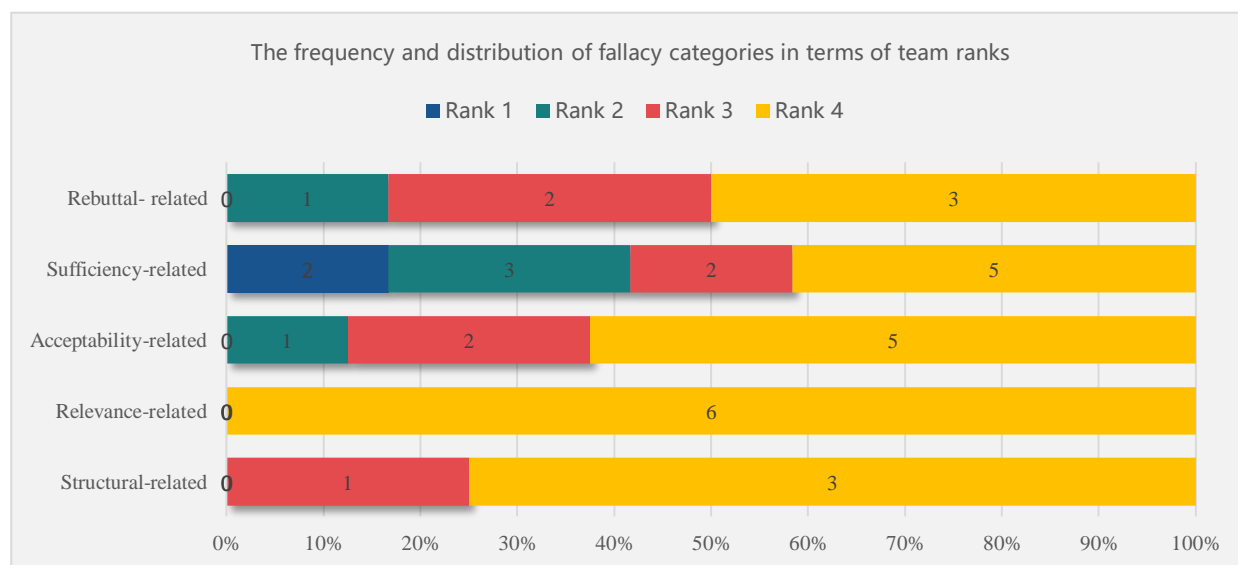


Figure 1. The frequency and distribution of fallacy categories in terms of team ranks

Generally, 33 fallacies were discussed during the judge's oral feedback time. It is evident from the data collected that sufficiency-related fallacies were the most frequently occurring of the five categories, accounting for 36%. Both relevance-related and rebuttal-related fallacies were ranked second, with equal proportion (18%) on the chart, and exceeded those of acceptability-related (15%) and structural-related (12%) fallacies. Moreover, the figures illustrated in general that fallacies mostly existed in outputs of lower-ranked debaters whilst higher-ranked debaters generated fewer errors.

As shown in "Fig.1", it is noteworthy that relevance-related fallacies were only attributed to the team ranked 4th. Although the third and fourth-ranked teams committed structure-related fallacies in the proportion of 25% and 75% respectively, this type of mistake didn't occur in the high-level teams. Although different levels of teams had different characteristics in generating fallacies, they all committed fallacies related to sufficiency in different proportions, ranging from 17% to 42%. The following passages evaluate each fallacy type in detail and discuss how it relates to the quality of arguments.

B. Fallacy Evaluation

1. *Relevance-related Fallacy*

Based on the rule that “One who presents an argument for or against a position should set forth only reasons whose truth provides some evidence for the truth of the conclusion” (Damner, 2008, p. 92). Those who fail to do so commit a relevance-related fallacy, which does not necessarily mean the arguments presented by debaters are completely irrelevant to the motion but have low relevance or fail to attach the core idea of the topic. Of five fallacies, this category accounted for 18%, but was 100% committed by teams of rank 4, meaning that this fallacy was the most unbearable to judges and thus most detrimental to the construction of a good argument.

1) This motion is about whether researchers should display their anger, sympathy, and bias or keep calm or even cold-blooded. However, OG’s case focused on researchers’ interest and motivation to research. Even though this was not completely off the topic, this was not the core issue of this debate. That’s why they lost this debate. (Round 5, Rank 4)

2) This is not a policy motion, so you don’t need to give the policy to pre-rule out the argument of personal attack caused by controversial issues. When you did so you lost this debate because today’s type of motion is “we regret”, the core of which is to prove which world(factual/counterfactual) is better rather than make policy to help minimize the harm of hate speech. (Round 3, Rank 4)

The first example explains that if the conclusion that avoidance of any display of emotion in scientific research could be something harmful, the arguer needs to specifically point out why expressing emotion would not result in the inaccuracy of scientific research results. However, interest and motivation are associated with emotion but have nothing to do with their display and the objectivity of the result. Since there was no link provided to transfer the acceptability of evidence to the position, the acceptability of the conclusion was not accepted by the judge. No matter how persuasive the debater substantiated the importance of interest and concern of researcher to the scientific study, he could not win.

There are two main reasons why debaters made this mistake: One is that they were not well-informed, which couldn’t be improved overnight. The other one, the lack of burden of proof (i.e. the thing you must prove to win the debate) can be corrected quickly if debaters realize that different types of motion have a different burden of proof. Like the second example provided above, the judge made it clear that the type of motion and wording determined the burden of proof. To be exact, unlike policy motion, the “we regret” motion requires both sides to weigh the advantages and disadvantages between the factual and counterfactual world according to different standards, such as “the way to make people hear”.

2. *Structural-related Fallacy*

A good argument should be structurally sound, formed in a way “that the conclusion either follows necessarily or probably from its premises” (Damer, 2008, P30). Thus, the fallacies that violate the structural criterion of a good argument fail to provide us with good reasons to accept one particular conclusion. Structural-related fallacies were only committed by the teams that were ranked 3rd and 4th, with more committed by the latter (75%) than the former (25%). Similar to relevance-related fallacy, structural fallacies were serious ones in judges’ minds.

1) As OG, to prove that students feel safer and happier by canceling the winter and summer vacation, you need to say how and why explaining the mechanism rather than simply asserting “being safer and happier is good”. Without explanation, your argument doesn’t stand. That’s why your side lost this round. (Round 1, Rank 4)

2) Upper opposition asserted that your side of the house had an alternative and this alternative could help improve learning, but then you did not tell me the mechanism. Instead, you told me how important learning is to students. (Round 2, Rank 4)

Debaters’ arguments are formed in the structure as below:

Since students can be safer and happier. (premise)

Being safer and happier is good. (implicit assumption)

Therefore, this policy (vacation cancellation) is good. (conclusion)

Since students should study well. (claim)

Therefore, training centers can help children with their learning. (conclusion)

The first example is flawed because it assumes the truth of the conclusion in its premise. This “begging-the-question fallacy” has the appearance of support like “safer and happier”, but this evidence is bogus based on the implicit assumption that “being safer and happier” is equal to good. As a result, the conclusion explicitly appears as the premise, though stated in different words. The form of “since A, therefore, A.” proves nothing more than “A is true because A is true”. This fallacy violates the structure of a well-formed argument, a claim supported by at least one other claim, by definition. The same is true of Example 2 with the same structure. Nothing is substantially different between the premise and conclusion and thus no evidence is there to prove the credibility of the conclusion.

From oral feedback given, it is evident that those who made this type of error were awarded very low scores. Argumentation is the process whereby humans use reason to engage in critical decision-making. The emphasis on reason distinguishes argumentation from other modes of rhetoric and persuasion. When people use arguments to persuade, not only do they assert claims, but they also assert reasons why they believe their claims are plausible or probable. In a word, the debate is an activity that could not exist without argumentation (Johnson, 2010). That’s why the structural-related fallacy is the most fatal error from the perspective of judges.

To correct this type of fallacy, as one judge suggested, the debater has the burden of proof to explain 1) why we must do this, 2) how the mechanism works, 3) what proper consequences may be brought by this policy. In this motion, to be specific, a model is needed to describe how to pay the teachers, what learning activities would be offered in school, etc. Under this scenario, more details are needed to prove that students are safer and happier without vacation than when they have vacations and how “being safer and happier” can impact students.

3. Acceptability-related Fallacy

The fallacies discussed in this part use premises that fail to meet the acceptability criterion, meaning that evidence must be acceptable to the judge before the argument can proceed. In debate, one who presents an argument for or against the position should use reasons that are likely to be acceptable by a mature rational person. This category took up a low proportion (15%) and except for the 1st ranked team, teams of other levels all committed this type of fallacy.

1) I can understand the reason why people keep silent is that a lot of controversial issues are fabricated but I cannot understand why you further believed that when people stopped expressing their ideas, this was deemed social progress. (Round 3, Rank 2)

2) When the poor family is subsidized, they will use the money for gambling. This is somewhat unacceptable; I can't imagine how many families under the poverty line could do so. (Round 2, Rank 2)

3) It is quite weird when you said that this policy was against the interest of women of reproductive age simply because those who were reluctant to be mothers were coerced by this policy to give birth to babies. (Round 2, Rank 4)

The above three pieces of feedback are all concerned with evidence or claims unacceptable to judges. Because an individual debater might have several pieces of evidence, the acceptability of one piece of evidence might not be the main reason for the ranking allocated to him, and this fallacy sometimes mingles with other flaws, jointly reducing the quality of argumentation. For instance, the claim that a universal child-care subsidy based on the number of children per household is against the interest of women of reproductive age is both irrelevant and unacceptable. The most significant stakeholder of this policy is the family with at least one baby rather than newly married women with no babies. Even though it does pressure women of this age group, this policy also relieves the financial burden on the shoulders of those who wish to be mothers. As to the claim that when poor families are subsidized, they will use the money for gambling in the second example, a rational person would find it hard to understand why poor families who obtain that subsidy are more likely to gamble rather than satisfy their basic needs such as feeding babies with multi-nutrition.

Similarly, in example1, even though refraining from taking part in online discussion is rational, in what way can that be deemed social progress? Does it accord with common knowledge or is it supported by a recognized authority? The answer is no. Even though a lot of controversial issues are fabricated, keeping silent cannot stop this action but more importantly, saying nothing cannot help those minority groups who take advantage of controversial issues to help their voice be heard. Therefore, without other proof and examples supporting this premise, we cannot agree that “keeping silent is a social progress”.

4. Rebuttal-related Fallacy

In debate, one side must directly refute the arguments made by the other side and show why the balance of arguments means that they have delivered enough substance to convince the judge that their arguments have importance and are backed up with specific detail and examples. Good constructive speech should include effective rebuttals to all anticipated serious criticism of the arguments. In debate, apart from the first speaker, all others are supposed to engage with strong cases from two opposite benches. The ways of arguing that fail to provide an effective rebuttal to the criticisms of ones' argument and of the position that it supports are rebuttal-related fallacies. As in the case of the acceptability-related one, rebuttal-related flaws were not seen made by the top team. These fallacies accounted for 18% of all categories. The weaker the team, the more likely it is to make such a mistake. The second and fourth-ranked teams tripled the probability of making this particular type of mistake (17% to 50%).

1) Opposition emphasized the critical stakeholder, the student, by specifically illustrating how this policy negatively impacted students' future. As CG, they did not engage with this strong argument. (Round 1, Rank 4)

2) When Opposition side put forward that display of emotion resulted in incorrect scientific result, Government side needs to directly compare the factual and counterfactual worlds with or without the narrative (that social science/academic research should avoid any display of emotion) in both long-term and short-time in details and highlight how emotion contribute to a more detailed and insightful conclusion. But unfortunately, your side did not succeed in doing this. Instead, you pointed out “without sympathy, all the research was meaningless” with no further explanation. (Round 5, Rank 3)

3) As a whip, it's your responsibility to refute the proposition. Though I heard you engaging with your lower house, you failed to respond to the upper whose arguments are more critical in this debate. (Round 2, Rank 2)

The first and the third example are similar in that both debaters argued in a way that omitted any reference to important evidence unfavorable to their position. We would not want to win an argument by deliberately ignoring the counter evidence under the circumstances that we know that it is damaging to our case. The leader of opposition or whip who committed this fallacy only demonstrated that they were unable to put themselves in other's shoes and since that the strong evidence was properly evaluated, no matter how cogent their arguments were, they could not win. This

point also illustrates the fact that as the top teams in each debate, this is a fallacy one must not commit if he wants to win.

In contrast with the above two examples, the fallacy in Example 2 failed to meet the rebuttal criterion by attempting to divert attention from the actual issue. Pretending that they were engaging with the strong case from the other side, they focused critical attention on a minor point, as a result of which, their opponent's arguments remained as strong as ever.

5. Sufficiency-related Fallacy

The sufficiency-related fallacies, accounting for the largest proportion (36%) were committed by all teams no matter how they ranked, fluctuating between 17% to 42%. Fallacies of this type relate to evidence not being sufficient in numbers and weight to justify the acceptance of the conclusion.

1) To improve the sufficiency of DPM's speech, more details needed to be added which matched with the problem in the status quo. (Round 3, Rank 1)

2) While the leader of opposition did talk about the harm that displays of emotion can do to the scientific results, your side failed to provide a comparison between the two worlds with and with no display of emotion (Round 5, Rank 3)

3) Even though your side put forward an acceptable alternative, without further explanation, I don't know how your problem can be solved in this way. (Round 1, Rank 4)

Even though sufficiency-related fallacies were made by almost all teams, they differed in forms and degrees. Specifically, some arguments used too little or no evidence at all, like stated in example 3, in which missing evidence, the most crucial one, failed to bring about "alternative can solve the problem" and since the opposition was unable to solve the problem, it thus lost this debate.

Another form of this fallacy is the hasty conclusion in the second example where the debater ignored the presence of contrary evidence. She might have provided sufficient evidence to prove the harm that the display of emotion could do to the scientific results but by omitting the benefits it could bring and most importantly, without weighing up both, she could not convince the judge why the factual world was better. After all, this motion concerned "which world is better". Comparatively, the team which ranked first was much better. Even though their argument was still not fully substantiated, the key evidence was provided with a well-formed linkage to connect the claim to the conclusion.

V. CONCLUSION

Below average debaters' fallacies collected from one tournament "FLTRP CUP" National English Debating competition were classified and analyzed exhaustively in the present study. Some features of Chinese below-average debaters' fallacies were subsequently summarized. Meanwhile, the way judges determine the ranking by evaluating the fallacies of debaters was also highlighted based on qualitative analysis.

Fallacies existed in debaters of all ranking overall. More errors occurred in the lower levels and the error rates decreased progressively as debaters ranked higher levels. Relevance-related and structural-related fallacies were the ones that most need addressing as they were committed more frequently by Rank 4 teams, in particular, thus worthy of greater attention from teachers to improve students debating skills. Acceptability-related and rebuttal-related were types of fallacies that were shown not necessarily lead to fourth place, however, the debater who made this mistake could not win the debate. Lastly, the most frequently committed fallacies were sufficiency-related, and all teams made these mistakes to varying degrees. The lower the level, the less sufficient their arguments were.

The findings of the present study can shed light on what should be given priority in teaching practice in English classrooms in China. Attention should be shifted to bad or fallacy-laden arguments rather than instructing students on numerous specific terminologies within the field. Recognizing unsound reasoning and continuously challenging such examples in the classroom will go a long way to helping students develop their abilities to construct sound arguments which can be supported and thereby reduce the chance of fallacies occurring.

In conclusion, we may deduce several important factors that are essential for a successful debater. Firstly, having a foundation of accumulated knowledge in the subject area debated so as to be able to construct arguments to persuade the target audience. It is very important in the sense that the better-informed, the more relevant link between claim and conclusion can be achieved, but it takes time to take effect. To avoid this particular fallacy, teachers can highlight the burden of proof, that being able to back up any claims one makes is the key to the validity of his statements in the debating arena. As wording and motion types determine what burden of proof is, more exercises to analyze motion types can inspire debaters to think on the right track and avoid making relevance-related fallacies. Secondly, students should be required to reconstruct their argument into a standard format that exhibits the logical structure of an argument. With more practice, their arguments will be structurally sound. Thirdly, debating practice is not enough. Students need to reflect on their speech according to five criteria of a good argument by answering questions such as "did I give an effective rebuttal to the criticisms of my argument?", "was the premise relevant to the conclusion?", "was evidence sufficient to establish the agreement's conclusion" etc. The answer to these questions will undoubtedly improve students' critical thinking ability and help them to express their thinking more clearly. In addition, it is clear the

development of these debating skills and knowledge are also of immense benefit and use in other areas of both students' academic and future working lives.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Research on philosophy and Social Sciences in Colleges and Universities in Jiang Su Province for funding this research project under grant number 2021SJA2255.

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Conversational Implicatures on Saturday Night Live Talk Show

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Abstract—Conversational implicature seems to be an everlasting concern in pragmatics for its wide-ranging investigation possibility. Applying Gricean's principles, the present study examined the types of conversational implicatures found in the Saturday Night Live talk show. This research used a qualitative method with a pragmatic approach. The research data were collected from the utterances in Season 46 Episode 5 accessed from MBC's channel ([www.saturday night live – NBC.COM](http://www.saturdaynightlive.com)). The result indicated that there were two types of conversational implicatures found in Saturday Night Live talk show namely: First, particularized conversational implicature, and second, generalized conversational implicature. We found that the utterances containing particularized implicature outnumbered the ones with generalized implicature. In our interpretation, the dominance of particularized implicature reflects the centrality of the particular context in producing and inferring utterances for meaningful and effective communication.

Index Terms—conversational implicatures, types of conversational implicatures, Saturday Night Live, talk show

I. INTRODUCTION

In an effective talk exchange, both speakers and listeners are assumed to communicate effectively by producing and inferring utterances based on agreed logical principles. Grice (1975), a language philosopher, set a standard of global imperatives in producing rationally effective utterances called cooperative principle which comprises of four maxims i.e. the maxim of quantity: make your conversational contribution informative, the maxim of quality: be true and evidence-based, the maxim of relevance: be relevant with the context, and maxim of manner: avoid ambiguity and be perspicuous. To cooperate well in communication, a speaker is assumed to adhere to this set of principles in producing his utterances. Green (1990) noted that Grice's concept of cooperative principle contributes much in the study of implied meaning for its role as the baseline the hearers use to infer the utterances which meaning conform with the maxims, to recognize the utterances that deviate the maxims, and to interpret the deviations per se. Thus, adherence to cooperative principles allows both speakers and listeners to have collaborative roles in thinking about what the other has in mind (Yule, 1996).

But interestingly, a speaker can also communicate meaning in a uniquely distinct pattern and manner from what he means. Quite often, we find messages sent to hearers in a way that is at a glance irrelevant to the literal meaning. The message conveyed will be meaningful and give more information if it is observed in its context (Arafah, Thayyib, Kaharuddin, & Sahib, 2020.) As a result, only readers or people who read the message with high motivation will lead to achieving more information about it (Arafah et.al, 2020). Viewing from Grice's concept of cooperative principles, those utterances have violated the maxims of effective communication. To this extent, language works beyond its structural

function, and context contributes much to the interpretation of meaning (Kamrida, Yassi, Arafah, Imran, 2016). To understand the meaning, we cannot solely rely on the literal language, but consider the intentional, inferential, and interactional aspects (Sperber and Wilson, 1986; Clark, 1996 in Levinson, 2000a). Sometimes, speakers also use words or utterances to perform an act (Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019). Thus, many utterances may have rich pragmatics implications and potentialities that can only be understood when linked to contextual appropriateness.

Grice (1975) called the type of utterance in which the speaker deviates the cooperative principle in expressing his meaning as a conversational implicature. Grice (1975) was the first to coin this term and introduce it to the field of philosophy of language. He distinguished between 'say' and 'implicate' where the latter means to communicate something beyond the literal meaning of the language used. Griffiths (2006) defined implicature as giving inferences depending on standards existing for the utilization of language, such as the amplified agreement that speakers have to point the real information when they communicate. Yule, (1996: 36) also added that implicature is a primary example of "more being communicated than is said". Thus, it can be said that implicature is the speakers' choice of utterance that violates the maxims of cooperative principles to communicate implied meaning that can only be inferred by the hearer based on the contextual consideration.

Mey (2004) stated that conversational implicature is something that is inferred in conversation or it is intention inferred. In other words, conversational implicature is the meaning that is not conveyed directly but implied in utterances. Conversational implicatures occur when violating the maxims of the cooperative principle. These maxims are considered to be violated if the following conditions happen in an utterance. Firstly, violating the maxim of quality happens if the speaker gives information that is not true and unproven. Secondly, violating the maxim of quantity occurs if the speaker gives more or less information. It means that information must be following what is needed by the speaker (Thomas, 1995). Thirdly, violating the maxim of relevance happens if the speaker gives information that is not relevant to the ongoing context (Cutting, 2002). Finally, violating the maxim of manner happens if the speaker gives information that is not clear or ambiguous (Cutting, 2008).

The concept of implicature has provoked some linguists to scrutinize and even challenge the concept. Those who follow Gricean's view that linguistic communication should be interpreted by considering more than literal meaning dedicated their works to illuminate this issue (e.g. Levinson, 1983; Mey, 1993; Green, 2012; Yule, 1996; Thomas, 1995; Vershueren, 1999). Yule (1996) helped to provide an easier path to better understand the concept. Levinson (1983, 2000b) and Horn (1988) provided a comprehensive explanation regarding implicature and its types. Lindblom (2001) conducted a cross-disciplinary survey of uses of cooperative principles. Davis (1998) and Lindblom (2001) scrutinized and criticized the concept of conversational implicature regarding the full range of meanings within implicature. Additionally, conversational implicature has been the center of an investigation in several studies such as the works of Alfina (2016) and Virgin & Utami (2016) that identified conversational implicatures by analyzing maxim violation. However, the two latter studies were focused on analyzing implicature in general without classifying it into specific types as Grice's classification. Thus, the present study aims to fill the gap by analyzing the specific types of conversational implicature found in utterances in Saturday Night Live talk show posted on an internet platform.

Saturday Night Live talk show is one of the popular talk shows in the United States comprising verbal communication uttered by a host and some guests. The show does not only screen on a national TV channel but also some sites on the internet. Arafah and Hasyim (2019) stated that internet media content is most frequently visited as a communication medium. Hence the show is a prominent communication medium to be observed.

Levinson (1983, p. 285) argued that "the proper way to study conversational organization is through empirical techniques". It is therefore one of our rationales to conduct the present study – to capture all implicature phenomena found in Saturday Night Live talk show, an occasion where talk exchanges occur among native speakers of English. Other studies focus on analyzing conversational implicatures in Talk Show contained generalized and particularized conversational implicatures. However, the present study scrutinized deeper the choices of utterance in the Saturday Night Live talk show to know the preference of using implicature and draw a conclusion from it.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Grice's Cooperative Principles

Effective communication is the main building block of human interaction. As communication is vital in information exchange and in building social relationships, people should follow logical conversational patterns and procedures to avoid misinterpretation. Grice (1975) proposed a set of global imperatives to speakers in producing logically effective utterances called cooperative principles. A cooperative principle is a set of directives in producing and understanding utterances effectively. Adherence to this principle allows the communicants to "operate together" in the meaning exchange process. The cooperative principle does not only govern how a speaker is assumed to formulate their utterances, but also performs as the baseline of the hearer to understand the intention of the speaker. According to Crowley & Mitchell (1994), in communication, speakers and listeners are supposed to respond to each other in their turn and exchange the needed information which benefits both. Cooperative principles work on this purpose. Grice (1975) introduced a concept of cooperative principle, highlighted, "make your conversational commitment what is needed, at the stage at which it happens, by the acknowledged aim or heading of the conversation exchange in which you're engaged". To do so, here are the four maxims of cooperative principles:

1) Maxim of Quantity

A speaker is expected to make a conversational contribution as informative as is required. In other words, the maxim of quantity emphasizes the speaker to say only what is needed or requested by the hearer, not too much or less. For instance:

A: *"Where's your daddy, Anna?"*

B: *"My daddy is home"*

In the example above, B answers A's question by giving the information that is required by A.

2) Maxim of Quality

A speaker should give true information which can be proof in real life. Besides, the speaker should know that the hearer expected him to honor the maxim if the speaker follows this maxim. Other maxims will be considered less true without the maxim of quality. For instance:

A: *"How many maxims Grice mentioned in his book?"*

B: *"There are four maxims"*

In the example above, B gives true information to A's question which can be seen and proven in Grice's book stated that there are four maxims.

3) Maxim of Relevance

A speaker should give information relevant to the ongoing context. For instance:

A: *"Hello, is anybody home?"*

B: *"I'm in the toilet"*

In the example above, B gives the answer which is not relevant to A's question. By answering A's question, A is expected to understand that B cannot open the door.

4) Maxim of Manner

Speaker should give clear information, avoid ambiguity and unnecessary prolixity. For instance:

A: *"So since you're holding a detached but animated head... do you ever use it, like, toyou know?"*

B: *"To what?"*

In the example above, B gives unclear information to A's question. B did not answer A's question but B gave another question.

Nevertheless, as stated by Grice (1975), periodically, the cooperative principles are violated by people in their communication, particularly when the speakers proposed to communicate their intentions indirectly or point to convince audience members to draw a few inferences from their expressions. For occasion, when someone makes a joke, writes a book, makes a movie, or is locked in neighborliness circumstances, he may abuse one or a few sayings to influence the questioner and take off a successful impression on them (Sobhani & Saghebi, 2014).

B. Conversational Implicatures

Despite the concept of cooperative principles, people's utterances in talk exchanges do not always adhere to those conversational directives and may flout the maxims of cooperative principles for several purposes. This linguistic phenomenon called 'conversational implicature' was firstly brought by Grice to the concern of the philosophy of language in 1975. Conversational implicatures can be interpreted as context-dependent and non-truth conditional concepts (Birner, 2012). This concept is characterized by the Oxford lexicon (Gem, 2008) as "The activity of inferring a meaning past the strict sense of what is unequivocally stated." Encourage, conversational implicature is considered to be one of the key issues within the field of down to business competence and discussion investigation (Safont, 2005; Wishnoff, 2000).

The idea of conversational implicatures is determined from common standards of the discussion furthermore a few adages visitors will ordinarily comply (Brown and Yule, 1983). Similarly, Paltridge (2006) explained that conversational implicatures referred to the induction where a listener makes around a speaker's aiming meaning that emerges from their utilization of the strict meaning of what the speaker said, the conversational rule, and its maxims. Further, conversational implicature occurs since an utterance implies the form of proposition which is neither part nor consequence of the utterance (Gunawan, 1994).

Grice (1975) differentiated conversational implicature into particularized and generalized implicatures. Particularized conversational implicature depends on specific relevant highlights whereas generalized conversational implicature is about to be more disputable and at the same time more profitable for philosophical purposes since they will be implicatures that would be carried by an expression of a certain frame, even though, as with all implicatures, they are not to be spoken to as portion of the routine meaning of the words or shapes in address (Grice, 1981). However, Levinson (2000a:13) stated, "none of these distinctions is straightforward". To shed light on this issue, several publications such as Levinson (1983, 2000b), Horn (1988), and Yule (1996) provide comprehensive guides to understand Grice's theory of implicature and its key distinctions.

1. Generalized Conversational Implicatures

Grice declares that generalized conversational implicature is implicature that emerges without any specific setting or uncommon situation being vital (Grundy, 2000). Yule (1996) famous, "When no extraordinary information is required

within the setting to calculate the extra passed on meaning, it is called generalized conversational implicature. For instance:

Charlene: *I hope you brought the bread and the cheese.*

Dexter: *Ah, I brought the bread.*

The exchange above implies that Dexter did not buy cheese.

Another example of generalized implicature that shows a direct answer to a question is:

A: *what happened to John after college?*

B: *John got a good job and got married.*

Within the possible settings for the case over, the sentences hitched after he got a great job. Since speaker A is addressing data almost Dave and listener B reacted to the address specifically the data that John got a job at that point he got hitched. The expressions can be classified into generalized conversational implicature since the setting is as of now given from the address emerge.

2. Particularized Conversational Implicatures

A particularized conversational implicature depends on specific highlights of the setting. According to Yule (2006), particularized conversational implicature is a conversation that takes place in a specific context where the listener assumes information locally. Context contribution to efforts to produce conversational implicatures allows expressing meanings that are ironic, metaphorical, hyperbole, rejection, request, and accusation. Moreover, all implicatures that emerge from the proverb of pertinence are particularized for articulations are important as it were concerning the specific point or issue at hand. Lakoff (1989) argued that particularized conversational implicature is implicature that needs context or cultural understanding. Particularized implicature is a conversational implicature that is derivable only in a specific context. Similarly, Levinson (1983) said that particularized conversational implicature is a type of conversational implicature with does require such specific context. For example:

A: *"I'm so sorry for making you wait for a long time"*

B: *"That's fine, it is just like waiting for one year"*

In the context of this exchange, speaker A requests an apology for making B waiting for him for a long time. The response of B "that's fine" does not mean that she is fine, but it implies her anger and this is emphasized by her saying "it is just like waiting for one year" which accentuates her feeling of boredom. This utterance is classified as particularized implicature since it can only be understood by seeing the local situation and the typical language used in one particular place.

The conversational implicature can be observed by seeing the deviation of maxims of cooperative principles. Further, implicature can be interpreted by initially observing which maxims of cooperative principles have been violated in the utterances and relate it to the context where the ongoing talks occur. Thus, Green (1990) highlighted the multifaceted contribution of Grice's concept of the cooperative principles to the study of pragmatics as it is integral as a standard for interpreting utterances that conform with them and a baseline not only for recognizing utterances that deviate from standard practice but also for interpreting such deviations.

III. METHODOLOGY

As noted by Hasjim et al. (2020), "every research project must use a method, both in collecting and in analyzing the data". This research used the qualitative research method. Subjective strategies emphasize the perception of wonders and center more on the substance of the meaning of these marvels (Kaharuddin, & Rahmadana, 2020). The investigation and instinct of subjective investigation are unequivocally influenced by the quality of the words and the utilization of sentences.

Qualitative research is an exploratory research (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019; Arafah & Hasyim, 2020). This provides insights into the problem or helps to develop ideas or hypotheses (Hasyim et al, 2020). In using this methodology, we explained the implicature phenomena which happen in the talk show by collecting the entire information in detail. In this research, the data were words, phrases, sentences, and descriptions. As qualitative research, the data processing involved no statistical approach (Purwaningsih, et al, 2019).

The research procedure comprised of some steps i.e. *Firstly*, downloading the video of *Saturday Night Live* talk show Season 46 Episode 5 on MBC's channel (the latest video at the time when this study was conducted); *Secondly*, watching the video and transcribing the expressions within the video into the composed content; *Thirdly*, perusing the deciphered expressions carefully and deciding which sorts of conversational implicatures they have a place based on Grace's theory of Cooperative Principle and his classification of conversational implicature, and *Finally*, concluding the data analysis.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

After conducting the analysis, we found 50 data containing conversational implicatures on *Saturday Night Live* talk show Season 46 Episode 5. The data were identified and classified based on the types of conversational implicatures

using Grice's theory of conversational implicatures. 21 data were containing generalized conversational implicatures and 29 data containing particularized conversational implicatures. The following table summarizes the types of conversational implicatures we found in the talk show.

TABLE 1
TYPES OF CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURES

No	Utterances	Implicatures	Types of Conversational Implicatures	
			GCI	PCI
1.	We lost before.	A classic poem by Edgar Allan Poe " <i>The Raven</i> " is one of the famous scary stories in the 1800s.	√	
2.	Not Michael Moore.	Michael Moore is an American left-wing documentary filmmaker, author, and activist whose works frequently address the topic of globalization and capitalism.		√
3.	Just like Al Gore.	Joe Biden will face difficulties to be the winner of the next US presidential election.		√
4.	But your real advantage is you're not a woman, you're a man!	Man will have some difficulties in debating with the woman.		√
5.	I was wrong before.	The previous information is not true.	√	
6.	Oh!	Jim did not accept the result.		√
7.	Our country's not haunted. We just have to come together like two butt cheeks, and stop the crack.	Americans needed to stick together to keep their country on good terms.		√
8.	Taxes.	Americans have a problem related to taxation.		√
9.	That's right.	He agreed that Donald Trump had a platinum plan where it consists of "A promise to black Americans for 4 years".		√
10.	Trump cannot win. We must do better than that spray tan super-spreader. I will win because I'm a baller.	Joe Biden is better than Donald Trump.		√
11.	I know.	Kamala is an American politician and the first female vice president.	√	
12.	Well, no, this is just a very common and normal condition called old man purple.	There will be many strange diseases that arise when we are getting older.		√
13.	Oh yeah!	In the presidential election, Americans should use their votes so democracy will represent.		√
14.	Birds!	She was attached by many birds.	√	
15.	It means birds. The fluffy flutty things. They're trying to kill everybody.	The birds around the public telephone tried to attack people.		√
16.	No, no, there's too many of them and they're too mean.	She was just alone on a public telephone.	√	
17.	No, no, they're seagulls. You know the little guys that eat french fries at the beach.	The seagull is a kind of bird that can give a lot of viruses.		√
18.	I'm very sorry I doubted you. The birds are trying to be very mean.	The birds around the public telephone were uncontrollable.	√	
19.	Oh, an egg! It's trying to be nice so we have breakfast.	Eggs are suitable food for breakfast.	√	
20.	I don't know. Dammit!! I don't know, but kiss me.	He did not care about the situation around them.		√
21.	My god, it's the headless horseman. The one I've heard tell of in ghastly stories.	A headless horseman existed in the past.	√	
22.	For eternity.	The head and the neck cannot be connected again.		√
23.	To what?	Refusing John's question		√
24.	Okay, look. I've been trying to do it to myself with my regular attached head. I tried yoga and stretching. I even had the town doctor remove two of my ribs.	Normal people can do many things by the head.		√
25.	Excuse me?	Beck refused to answer that kind of question.		√
26.	He already asked that.	Beck tried to turn William's attention to another topic.	√	
27.	I have real teeth.	He is not the kind of man in this new era.	√	
28.	No! I mean... Yes.	Beck could control his own head.	√	
29.	Personal connection?	Boys imagining vulgar things is a natural thing		√
30.	Okay. Now I'm sending you both to hell.	Beck felt underestimated and was tired of unimportant questions.		√
31.	Yes, yes, we're way into it.	John will ask that question.		√
32.	What are you talking about?	Beck tried to answer this kind of unimportant question.		√
33.	It's full of puritans, who were the most sexually repressed people in history.	People cannot be separated from history.		√

34.	At the souvenir store and time square during the pandemic. Aaaa it's not great.	His business was getting worse.	√	
35.	Actually, you're right. Maybe I should try them on first.	Pete will buy the expensive underpants.		√
36.	Yeah.	Pete was sure to buy underpants.		√
37.	Yeah, I love New York and I want my modest bulge to show that.	Whatever the reason, Pete really wanted to buy the underpants.	√	
38.	That's what I want to know.	Kate was curious about that thing.		√
39.	Fools! You don't give up on my city that easily.	Beggar and hobos did many activities to survive.	√	
40.	Don't worry, that homeless guy staying at a nearby luxury hotel will chase her off.	The girl in front of the store would never enter the store.	√	
41.	Get out of my store, get out of my store.	He did not know Rick Moranis.		√
42.	I get it.	John did not need to explain it.	√	
43.	And I'm especially hopeful now because we only have three days more three more days to the election.	Americans should prepare for election day.	√	
44.	Nope, nope, I'm good.	He did not have any idea.	√	
45.	Fuck! Exhibit "A." My perfectly handsome day in my profile pic is nothing to be ashamed of.	John refused Chloe's statement.	√	
46.	Oh, really?	John doubted Chloe's statement.		√
47.	Okay, that's creative.	He did not have any idea.		√
48.	That's one of those default settings.	John did not want to offend his girl employees.	√	
49.	Tinder.	John did not use the website to find a girl.	√	
50.	I'm sorry what?	Chloe doubts Pete's statement.		√

Note:

GCI: Generalized Conversational Implicatures

PCI: Particularized Conversational Implicatures

B. Discussion

This study investigates the choice of conversational implicatures used by all guests in *the Saturday Night Live* talk show Season 46 Episode 5. The talk show used informal English and lasted for 1 hour 9 minutes 1 second. During this duration, we noted and listened to the utterances they produced to find out the types of conversational implicatures they uttered.

21 data containing generalized conversational implicatures were found. General conversational implicature is the type of implicature in which the listener does not require uncommon information to decipher the meaning since the setting utilized in this sort is common. According to Saragi (2011), generalized conversational implicature refers to flouted utterances that listeners can immediately understand without any special contextual analysis needed. Similarly, generalized conversational implicature occurs when the hearer does not need any special knowledge to estimate the conveyed meaning (Al, 2020). We explained the data further in the discussion below.

Datum #1

Jim: "He made me scared of four years more." Quote the Clinton.

Kate: *We lost before.*

By violating the maxim of quantity, Kate implied that a classic poem by Edgar Allan Poe "*The Raven*" is one of the famous scary stories in the 1800s. This sentence contains generalized conversational implicatures since Kate's flouted utterance does not need any specific context to be understood. It means that the story can make people who read it soil their pantaloons because they are afraid of the story.

Datum #5

Jim: I checked the website "FiveThirtyEight" to find out my election fate. Nate silver, he will know the score, even though...

Kyle: *I was wrong before.*

By violating the maxim of quantity, Kyle implied that he wants to clarify the information. Kyle's utterance belongs to generalized conversational implicatures since it can be directly understood.

Shifting toward the discussion of particularized conversational implicature, it is in contrast with the generalized ones (Al, 2020). Particularized conversational implicature refers to the implicatures in which context and particularity are not general in nature and therefore requires the listeners to imply meaning based on the context. For non-native speakers of English, understanding particularized conversational implicature involves the process of understanding the context which they do not usually share in their social background, so they require more assistance to estimate such deviated utterances (see Suryadi & Muslim, 2019). 29 data containing particularized conversational implicatures were found. We explained the data further in the discussion below.

Datum #8

Jim: Why in the name of all that is holy would you be voting for trump?

Michael & Chris: *Taxes.*

By violating the maxim of quantity, Michael & Chris' utterance implied that Americans have a problem related to taxation. The utterance above is an example of irony since Michael & Chris uttered "taxes". Donald Trump is teased by Michael & Chris since the rate of taxes in America depends on individual income and also people have higher credit and deductions that reduce people's income.

Datum #10

Michael: If you got a platinum record, you can plan on him doing a photo with you.

Jim: *Trump cannot win. We must do better than that spray tan super spreader. I will win because I'm a baller.*

By violating the maxim of relevance, Jim implied that Joe Biden is better than Donald Trump. This kind of utterance belongs to particularized conversational implicature since Jim's utterance contains hyperbole which means that the information is given in exaggeration. From these utterances, it can be said that people need specific context to understand the particularized conversational implicatures.

Four examples presented in the discussions above represented how we analyzed the whole data found in the Saturday Night Live talk show Season 46 Episode 5.

V. CONCLUSION

This research aimed to find out types of conversational implicatures found on Saturday Night Live talk show Season 46 Episode 5. We found 50 utterances containing conversational implicatures. In analyzing the data, Grice's theory of conversational implicatures was used to categorize the types of conversational implicatures. 21 data were containing generalized conversational implicatures and 29 data containing particularized conversational implicatures. We concluded that particularized conversational implicature was the most dominant implicature used in Saturday Night Live talk show Season 46 Episode 5. This finding reflects that people need specific context in doing interaction, especially in informal communication.

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The Effect of Using Simulation Strategy in Developing English as a Foreign Language Speaking Skill

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Abstract—Speaking skill acquisition is a necessity for communication. However, speaking English as a foreign language is not as easy as speaking English as a first language since practice opportunities are limited. This study tried to find out a technique of reinforcement that can help students; who study English as a foreign language; develop their speaking skills. This study investigated the effect of using simulation strategy in developing EFL speaking skills, with the assistance of using a telegram channel "Oxford Bookworms Collection" for PDF books with an audio version, to stimulate pronunciation, intonation and enrich vocabulary. The researchers used a quantitative approach with an experimental design to conduct this study by involving 50 students divided into two groups. 25 students as a control group and 25 students as an experimental group; both groups were from level 3 who were learning Listening and Speaking-3 course, major English, at College of Science and Arts (Muhayil), King Khalid University. Pretest and posttest were used to collect data, results of the tests were analyzed using SPSS, Pearson correlation coefficient. The results revealed that using the simulation strategy helped the students of the experimental group to develop speaking skills and affected speaking micro-skills in terms of body language, fluency, pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and vocabulary usage positively. Moreover, students became motivated to speak spontaneously.

Index Terms—effect, simulation strategy, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Since Adam's creation, children imitate their parents and people around them, copying their attitude, communication habits, speaking accents, body language, and even lifestyle. For communication, people use two methods of production, speaking and writing. Both skills are important, but speaking is more important for daily life. When people speak using their mother tongue, it is an easy task for them, as they are familiar to all factors that are associated with their language production.

Even Arab people who immigrated to European countries excel in English language and gain the accent of the people of those countries due to imitation of the people around them.

Speaking a mother tongue is not a problem. Since birth, everything around the speaker supports and helps develop speaking skills; children imitate their family members in speaking accent, tone, and body language. In other words, speaking mother tongue language is a kind of simulation to family members speaking habits and style. Simulation, according to Longman dictionary, is:

"the activity of producing conditions which are similar to real ones, especially to test something or the conditions that are produced."

But speaking a foreign language is not similar to speaking a mother tongue language; foreign language macro and micro-skills exposure need time and ability to connect them together in order to come out with correct phrases that reflect speaker's thoughts in a right way without interfering with their mother tongue rules. Shumin, K. (2002) stated that foreign language learning requires students to know how native speakers use the language in the context of structured interpersonal exchange, more than just knowing grammatical and semantic rules. He pointed out factors that affect adult learners' oral communication, such as the difficulties that face learners to use the language in social interactions. Using the right paralinguistic elements of speech like pitch, stress, and intonation or using other speaking skills that helped to convey the message while speaking, such: as gestures and body language/posture, facial expression.

Requirement associated with learning EFL mentioned by Shuimin cannot be done in Saudi Arabia, especially using the language in social interactions as the only place for the students to practice their EFL speaking skills is inside the classroom, following their teacher's instruction and simulating his/her pronunciation, intonation and body language in a fixed time, hardly enough to overcome the barriers that students face to speak spontaneously. Learning EFL in Saudi Arabia depends on lessons taken in the class with few supplementally exercises for practice. Speaking is regarded the most challenging skill for the students, they always avoid speaking in the class fearing mistakes or being a source of fun

in front of their mates. Pradeep K. et al. (2020) identified that anxiety plays a major role in public speaking skills which can be overcome with a few simple strategies. Another factor that affects speaking skills is the time devoted to speaking skills practice is not enough to develop such important skill that learners need for everyday communication. Simulation can be one of these strategies that help to overcome anxiety.

Richards, J., & Renandya, W. (2002) pointed that the highest percentage of learners in the whole world learn English to develop speaking proficiency, he illustrated how speaking a second or foreign language is a complex task. Speakers need speaking proficiency for different purposes such as: to establish rapport in conversations and requests, to chat with friends, for discussion, for persuading, for complaining... etc. . They pointed that linguists have provided information on speakers' usage of the language in different situation, and how to develop spoken fluency in a second or foreign language by clarifying the complex issues accompanied in developing spoken fluency.

It is the teacher responsibility to use the suitable method or techniques that suitable to help his/ her students develop their skills and achieve their pedagogical goal. Using the right teaching method or techniques is always the concern of teachers of (EFL) for a long time. They always try to enhance students to learning using all available supportive techniques to motivate students and decrease their anxiety towards learning.

Jones, R. (2002) pointed how the development of teaching methods affected pronunciation and revealed that today's activities are similar to the audiolingual text in 1950s, which leads to uncommunicative results in spite of the change of pronunciation teaching materials.

Many techniques and methods are used to develop speaking skills. In the past, the Audio Lingual Method is used to develop speaking for communication during the Second world War. But its drawbacks resulted in the appearance of other methods and techniques such as the Community Language learning and Communicative Language Teaching, which aimed at developing learners' speaking skills for communication. The problem that faces most educators in Arab countries is the lack of speaking practice. Students have no place to practice speaking except the class where most of them are reluctant to be active in dialogue and conversation inside the class fearing mistakes or being a source of ridicule for their mates which leads to students' anxiety.

So, using simulation may help to overcome these factors such as anxiety and make speaking an enjoyable task. Using simulation can help students practice their correct production of words' tone and accents. It can also help them develop their speaking skills by having a model for rehearsing different types of conversation, besides the confidence the students can gain by practice.

II. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

As speaking skill is essential for everyday communication, the objective of this study is to find the effect of using simulation in developing English language speaking skill in terms of:

- a- Body language and fluency.
- b- Content and information sequence.
- c- Pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and vocabulary usage.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

The four skills of English language are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Listening and reading are the input skills, while speaking and writing are the output skills. Nunan, D. (2002) claimed listening and reading are secondary skills for most people who want to learn a second language. Still, he pointed that listening is the cinderella skill in a second language, is associated with its elder sister, speaking. Being able to talk and write is a sign of claiming knowledge of a second or foreign language.

McCauley, S., & Christiansen, M. (2019) stated that language acquisition usage is a computational model of language acquisition studies in moral growth fashion, based on chunking using online processing, to offer cross-linguistic coverage through merging comprehension aspects and production in a single framework.

Teaching speaking is not an easy task. It needs a lot of preparation to motivate students to speak spontaneously. McCarthy, M., and O'Keeffe, A. (2004) pointed six main areas relevant to the teaching of speaking: (1) spoken corpora influence growth, whether native speaker or non-native speaker, as it is based on data or successful user data / expert (2) the debates concerning native speaker (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) models for spoken pedagogy which is clear in shifted shifts in methodology toward language-awareness-based approaches, as well as new materials based on lexicogrammatically and discoursal corpus evidence (3) the issue of authenticity in spoken materials, (4) approaches to understanding speaking in the classroom, including discourse analysis, conversation analysis, cognitive approaches, and the Vygotskian perspective (5) the selection of texts and aspects of spoken language for the teaching of speaking and its application, and (6) developments in materials and methods for the teaching of speaking.

Teaching methods and techniques of English language are in continuous development to meet the pedagogical requirement that aim at developing the four English skills. When the Audio-Lingual Method ALM appeared, it aimed at developing speaking skills. Repetition of dialogues was a kind of simulation. Freeman, D. & Anderson (2011) revealed that, the ALM aimed at helping communicate using stimuli to help students overcome habits of their native language to communicate using the target language through reinforcement and shaping learners to respond correctly to stimuli.

One of the drawbacks of the ALM is that it turned learner to parrots, contributing little to the development of language competence, and resulting the introduction of other methods and techniques such as the Community Language Learning and the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Freeman, D. and Anderson (ibid) pointed that Curran believed that CLT helped learners overcome their negative feeling during learning, and develop it to positive energy to reinforce their learning to have communicative competence which is the goal of most language teaching methods. Speaking is one of the most important ways to convey a message to a person or a group of people, Hebert, J. (2002) pointed out that speaking message are expressed through different language features such as: pitch variation and volume, stress and rhythm, intonation, so it is vital to learn phonology in context not separately, this beside content, grammar, structure, lexical items function skills, methodology and materials related to phonology, to speak effectively you need to be proficient in different element learned in language using various activities. Hamad (2013) points that students fear speaking in the class, and the classroom activities lack activities that support speaking, such as debates and roleplay. Hamad (2017) added that WhatsApp enhanced and helped students learning and develop their English language skills. Oflaz, A. (2019) indicated that language learning strategies affected academic achievement positively, he pointed that when shyness raises speaking anxiety appear; however, both shyness and anxiety can be relieved by learning strategies. Hamad & Metwally (2019) highlighted that technology helped to promote teaching and learning, it also enhanced students' interaction skills students and help to overcome time and other learning problems that limit students' interaction. Maulina, Utami, et al., (2019) pointed out that using Sparkol VideoScribe in learning English in particular writing and speaking activities has a positive effect and helps students be attentive during learning. Laura & Amparo (2019) reveal that simulation-based instruction contributes in developing oral language production and develop students micro skills such as grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. ML Angelini & A Garca-Carbonell (2019) pointed how simulation helped students to progress in oral presentation, pronunciation, expression usage, using the correct grammar and speech fluency, showing that using simulation enhanced the students to research, learn, debate, negotiate, set forth proposals and make decisions. Hwang, et al. (2014) reveal that using activities on mobile learning system developed students speaking and listening skills and motivate students learning according to their proficiency levels. Al-Sobhi B & Preece A (2018) Pointed that lack of teaching resources hinder teachers' abilities to develop students speaking skills, and on the students' side, he emphasized that overuse of Arabic beside students' lack of linguistic knowledge and confidence cause student's low performance. Arunget et al. (2020) discussed that sense of liking, which they called it "Preferent Learning Theory" affects students speaking performance, they revealed that students can learn without rules and formal evaluation. In other words, students can learn in unpredictable ways without any regulations and an informal self-evaluation. This application helped to sustain speaking skills when the students learn in their preferred ways. Vitthal, G. (2010) explained some of the techniques which can be used in training institutions and the higher education pedagogy for developing speaking skills and improving language fluency such as: self-introduction activity, one-minute sessions, asking questions, giving directions, reading newspaper loudly, roleplay and simulation, situational dialogues, debates and group discussion Yeşilçinar, S. (2019) revealed that using flipped learning approach enhanced students speaking skills, and increased their motivation and satisfaction with flipped classroom model, it can be a reference to design oral skills of English Foreign language.

Saeed, Anmar H. (2017) suggested three controlled steps or stages to develop pronunciation and speaking fluency: 1. Repetition (mechanical stage) 2. Substitution activities (meaningful choices of items) 3. Communicative practice (using language within real). Hwang, W. Y et al. (2016) finding suggested that storytelling activity depends on story animations improved speaking skills, and developed learning achievement in final test, adding that it could help students to recall vocabulary when speaking to describe their animated stories. Eissa, H. M. S. (2019) revealed that Digital Story Telling not only motivated learners to speak English but also helped them develop their speaking skills. Digital Story Telling can assist teachers in Saudi Arabia in creating a conducive atmosphere in their classes.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Collection

A quantitative experimental design was used to conduct this study to find out the effect of using simulation in developing learners English Foreign Language speaking skill. This is done by teaching two groups using the same method for 6 weeks, then taking a pretest, results were compared. Then one group is conducted using the same method, and the second group is taught by using simulation. In week 15, both groups took posttests; their results were coded and analyzed using SPSS.

B. Participants

The population of this study were students at College of Science & Arts Muhayil, King Khalid University. The participants of this study were 50 students studying major English at level 3. Students were divided in two sections. 25 students in each section who have already learned two courses of listening and speaking. They were studying Listening and Speaking 3 in the 1st semester of the Academic year 1440-1441

C. Instrument of the Study

Speaking pretest and speaking posttest were used as instruments to collect data. Both sections; the control group and the experimental group; took the two tests. The tests tested different speaking skills such as: body language, fluency, pronunciation, intonation, grammar, vocabulary usage, content, and information sequence.

Reliability and Validity of the Test

To check the reliability and the validity of the test, the researchers used: Cronbach's Alpha. , Spearman and Brown. The results demonstrate proved the validity of the test. See Table .1

TABLE 1
RELABILITY AND VALIDITY OF PRETESTS

	Cronbach's Alpha	Spearman and Brown
Reliable	0.854	0.803
Validity= $\sqrt{\text{Reliable}}$	0.924	0.896

The results in the table above display positive indicator. The validity and the reliability results qualify tests to be applied on the population of this study.

In order to ensure homogeneity between the experimental and control groups in the achievement level of Listening and Speaking-3 course, the scores of the experimental and control groups were monitored in the pretest before implementing the experiment on the sample members.

Independent Sample t-test was applied to identify any significant differences between the two groups. See Table .2

TABLE 2
THE HOMOGENEITY BETWEEN THE CONTROL AND THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP IN THE PRETEST

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Reality of 0.05
Experimental group	7.5400	1.49944	1.511	48	.137	insignificant
Control group	6.9400	1.30160				

It is clear from the Table .2 that "t" value (1.511) and (2-tailed) value (.137) which is insignificant at reality of (.05) which means there is no significant statistical difference between the two groups, and reflecting the homogeneity between the experimental and control groups.

D. Study Design

Two sections of students are the participants of this study. Both sections are studying major English level 3. One section is used as a control group and the second is used as experimental group. Both sections were taught using traditional strategies of teaching listening and speaking using roleplay, free discussion, pair work and groupwork to help students speak after listening to the audio tracks for six weeks. The two groups sat for the pretest. After that the control group continued learning with a traditional strategy, but the experimental group was taught using simulation strategy. 10 minutes at the end of each lecture is used to display the PDF book "Jane Eyre" with the projector associated with audio for the story picked from "bookworm collection, telegram channel". Some students practiced reading paragraphs imitating the narrator and the speakers in the story, trying to copy accent and intonation using their body language. Students used to listen to the story on their way to college. In week 12, students of the two groups took the same posttest. A speaking assessment sheet was designed to test students' speaking skill for both pretest and posttest testing three terms:

- 1- Body language and fluency. (3marks)
- 2- Content and information sequence. (4 marks)
- 3- Pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and vocabulary usage. (3marks)

The results of the two tests are analyzed to find out the effect of using simulation in developing English language speaking skill.



Figure. I Jane Eyre in Oxford Bookworms collection

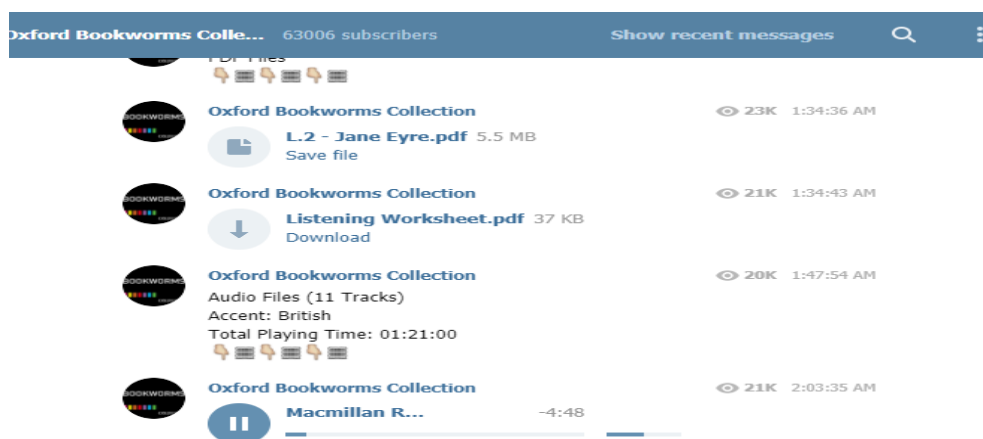
Source : Oxford Bookworms Collection, retrieved on Aug 21, 2020 from <https://t.me/OxfordBookworms>

Figure. II Jane Eyre audio playing in Oxford Bookworms collection

Source : Oxford Bookworms Collection, retrieved on Aug 21, 2020 from <https://t.me/OxfordBookworms>

V. STATISTICAL AND ANALYTICAL RESULTS

After the sixth weeks from the pretest, and displaying the audio stories in the class for ten minutes in each lecture of 60 minutes, students sat for a posttest. Results of the post-test for the two groups were analyzed using SPSS to find out the effectiveness of using simulation in developing English language speaking skill in term of a- Body language and fluency. b-Content and information sequence. c-pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and vocabulary usage.

To compare using simulation strategy on students' achievement of the experimental group, to using the traditional strategy on the control group, the researcher applied a (t) test to find the average of the two independent groups in terms of "Body language and fluency". Table .3 illustrates the results of this procedure:

TABLE 3
EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROLLED GROUP DIFFERENCES IN TERM OF BODY LANGUAGE AND FLUENCY

group	Group Statistics				Sig. (2- tailed	reality Of 0.05
	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df		
Experimental	2.6200	.48477	2.122	48	.039	significant
Controlled	2.3000	.57735				

Seeing Table .3 above, it is clear from the results that the value of (t) calculated (3.777) with a degree of freedom (48) and a probability value (0.000), which means that there are statistically significant differences between using the simulation strategy and the traditional strategy on students' achievement of speaking skill in term of body language and fluency, results are in favour of the experimental group that learned by using simulation strategy at level of (0.05) .

To find the difference between the two independent groups achievement in speaking skill in term of "content and information sequence" after using simulation strategy , the researchers applied a (t). test to find the average of the two independent groups. Table .4 illustrates the results of this procedure:

TABLE 4
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROLLED GROUP IN TERMS OF CONTENT AND INFORMATION SEQUENCE

group	Group Statistics				Sig. (2- tailed	reality Of 0.05
	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df		
Experimental	3.3800	.52599	1.498	48	.141	insignificant
Controlled	3.1400	.60415				

Seeing Table .4 above, it is clear from the results that the value of (t) was calculated (1.498) with a degree of freedom (48) and a probability value (.141), which means the results are statistically insignificant at reality level of (0.05). Hence there are no clear differences between using the simulation strategy and the traditional strategy on students' achievement of speaking skill in in terms of content and information sequence significance.

Inspecting difference between the two independent groups' achievement in speaking skill in terms of "pronunciation, intonation, grammar and vocabulary usage" after using simulation strategy and the traditional strategy, the researchers applied a (t). test to calculate the average of the two independent groups. Table .5 illustrates the results of this procedure:

TABLE 5
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROLLED GROUPS IN TERMS OF "PRONUNCIATION, INTONATION, GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY USAGE"

group	Group Statistics				Sig. (2- tailed	reality Of 0.05
	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df		
Experimental	2.6200	.48477	2.122	48	.039	significant
Controlled	2.3000	.57735				

Seeing Table .5 above, it is clear from the results that the value of (t) came to be (2.122) with a degree of freedom (48) and a probability value (.039), which means that the results are significant. There are statistical differences between using the simulation strategy and the traditional strategy on students' achievement of speaking skills in terms of pronunciation, intonation, grammar and vocabulary usage. The results are in favour of the experimental group taught by using simulation strategy at a reality level of (0.05).

To find the difference between the two independent groups' achievement in speaking skill in total results of the students covering the three terms: a-body language and fluency. b-content and information sequence. c. pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and vocabulary usage; after using simulation and traditional strategies, the researchers applied a (t). test to find the average of the two independent groups in total. Table .6 illustrates the results of this procedure:

TABLE 6
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROLLED GROUP IN TERM OF TOTAL RESULTS

group	Group Statistics				Sig. (2- tailed	reality Of 0.05
	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df		
Experimental	8.2800	1.04163	2.027	48	.048	significant
Controlled	7.5400	1.49944				

Looking at table .6 above, it is clear from the results that the value of (t) calculated (2.027) with a degree of freedom (48) and a probability value (.048), which means that there are statistically significant differences between using the simulation strategy and the traditional strategy on students' achievement of speaking skill in total. Results are in favour of the experimental group which was taught by using the simulation strategy at a reality level of (0.05).

VI. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Speaking English as a foreign language in a fluent way is regarded the biggest challenge that faces Arab learners. This study was conducted to find the effect of using simulation on Arab learners EFL speaking micro skills such as: pronunciation, intonation, grammar, using of vocabulary and fluency. Researchers of this study tried to do that by using audio tracks embedded with a PDF transcript of *Jane Eyre* story of 11 chapters. It was downloaded from Oxford Book Worms -Telegram Channel, as mentioned in the study design.

The results of the analysis proved that listening to audios while following up the transcript developed students' speaking skill achievements of the experimental group, as their results were better than those of the control group in terms of using body language, intonation, accent and fluency.

Coping the narrator and characters of the story in tone, accent and intonation is a kind of simulation to the story-speakers. Simulation helped students produce similar speaking model of sadness, happiness, etc. whenever they come across similar situation. This solved the problem of students' little practice opportunity to speaking in class. Simulation here served as backbone for correct speaking production, beside the students' high motivation which was observed during listening and simulating speakers of the story-audio within students own time, this action became a self-introduction activity, as Vitthal ,G. (2010) pointed. This finding also supports results of Hamad (2013) and Hamad (2017) which show that roleplay helped to develop speaking and using telegram channel here enhanced students' listening and speaking skills. Using simulation can be an active technological strategy to promote teaching as Hamad & Metwally (2019) pointed. Simulation using technology can be a helpful teaching strategy to decrease students' anxiety and develop speaking skill as also Oflaz, A. (2019), Maulina, Utami, et al , (2019) and Vitthal ,G. (2010) pointed.

Comparing students results analysis of the two groups, the experimental group and the control group regarding the effect of simulation on content and information sequence while speaking "see table 4" after taking posttest showed that, there was no different between the students in both group in choosing content and information sequence in their speech.

Pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and vocabulary usage constituted the third part in the assessment sheet of the students' speaking tests. The results proved that students' development in pronunciation, intonation, grammar and vocabulary usage were in favour of the experimental group who learned with simulation strategy. So simulation can be used as a teaching strategy to affect students speaking skill positively, this beside having the telegram channel in students mobile phones increased students chance of listening, practice and repetition which later developed their speaking proficiency level. as Hwang, et al. (2014) revealed. Finding also agreed with Saeed, Anmar three suggested controlled steps or stages for developing pronunciation, and Laura and Amparo (2019) who pointed that simulation - based instruction contributes in developing oral production.

Comparing speaking total results in the assessment sheet of the two groups were in favour of the experimental group. Students who learned using simulation strategy got higher marks, that reflected the positive influence of simulation on students speaking skills. Simulation usage reinforced students' fondness to listening and then speaking as well, so results showed how these two skills can be posted by using simulation strategy.

When educators solve students' preference, their interest will be posted, and when students' interest is posted then their learning outcomes can be achieved. Students' freedom to access and read different books according to their preference motivated and helped them learn better as Arung, et al. (2020) discussed. Results also agreed with Eissa, H. M. S. (2019) and Hwang, W. Y et al (2016) regarding the use of stories in developing speaking skill. Having different materials with easy access helped the students to relisten to the story as many times as they need, till they are satisfied, this also agreed with Saeed, Anmar H. (2017) steps.

VII. CONCLUSION

Speaking EFL is the most important skill for communication, simulation can help to develop students speaking skill in terms of body language and fluency, pronunciation, intonation, grammar and vocabulary usage. In general it affected speaking skill positively, and can be an adapted strategy to Audio-Lingual Method. Making use of the advantages of Audio-Lingual Method and overcoming all its drawbacks. Using the assistance of technology and phone Apps, helped the students to overcome their low practice opportunities and enhanced their learning.

Using simulation will help educators introduce other strategies that can develop EFL different skills in general and speaking skill in specific. Simulation motivated students to develop their speaking skills that suit their interests and decrease anxiety associated with speaking practice. It also made the students able to overcome their first language habit. Simulation helped to fill all gaps related to teaching speaking skills as EFL.

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Review of the Study on Rhetoric Translation in China (1997-2021)*

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Abstract—Rhetoric and translation help to promote language and cultural exchanges. Therefore, the study of the two fields can be traced far back. Scholars focused on the translation of rhetorical devices long before. In order to learn the trend and problem of the current study of rhetoric translation in China, this paper adopts the method of bibliometrics to analyze the relevant academic articles, theses and dissertations published from 1997 to 2021 on China National Knowledge Infrastructure (short for CNKI), a well-known academic website of China. The analysis goes through six dimensions, such as languages involved in the transfer, translation direction, text type, research perspective, rhetoric device and citation frequency.

Index Terms—rhetoric, translation, CNKI, bibliometrics

I. INTRODUCTION

Rhetoric is an important part in a language and culture for any nation, (Cui, 2012). The study of rhetoric, both in China and the West, can be traced back to the 6th century B.C.

In the West, the systematic study of rhetoric originated from Aristotle who indicated that rhetoric might “be defined as the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion” (Stade, 2005, p.97) and he pointed out three ways of persuasion in which the first one depended on the personal character of the speaker; the second on putting the audience into a certain frame of mind; the third on the proof (ibid). From the period of Ancient Rome to the Middle Ages, scholars in the field of rhetoric, such as Cicero, Marcus Fabius Quintilian and Saint Augustine, promoted the study of traditional rhetoric. In the Renaissance period, since scholars had different views on rhetoric, three schools of rhetoric study were formed, which were traditionalists, Ramists and figurists. Rhetoric did not earn much concern in the 19th century in the west but it started to rejuvenate in the 20th century. Western new rhetoric developed in the 1930s and the study of it was based on Aristotle’s classical rhetoric but the research domain was expanded to cover rhetoric situation. And then the nature and function of rhetoric were elaborated anew.

In China, the origin of rhetoric can be traced back to *Yi Jing (The Book of Changes)* in which two Chinese characters “Xiu” (*modification*) and “Ci” (*speech*) first appeared together signifying that rhetoric should be based on sincerity. Being different from the western study, Chinese traditional rhetoric focused on the study of language. According to the concept and experience of rhetoric study in China, Chen (2020) classified rhetoric into two categories: positive and negative. Zhang (2014) explained the correlation between rhetoric device and linguistic elements in his book *Rhetoric of Modern Chinese*. Tan & Zhu (2008) focused their study on extended rhetoric and they argued the western rhetoric study was an extended one from the age of Aristotle. Luo (2008) claimed rhetoric in a narrow sense was restricted to the study of language aiming at exploration of rhetoric device and verbal skills. He further claimed that rhetoric in a broad sense expanded the study from perspectives of culture and mind. Obviously, the broad one has been beyond the limit of linguistic study.

Rhetoric has long been related to translation. Cicero, in ancient Rome, was a great scholar of rhetoric as well as a famous translator. Both rhetoric and translation concern the verbal communication and pursue the goal of exchanges and cooperation (Feng, 2012). Therefore, in recent years, scholars of rhetoric have started to consider the relationship between rhetoric and translation. In China, Feng (2012) stated that there were similar features in the study of rhetoric and translation, so theories of rhetoric could be adopted for solving the problems of translation systematically. Liu (2014) clearly stressed the correlation between rhetoric and translation. He viewed rhetoric as the theoretic foundation of translation and considered translation as a special practice of rhetoric. Peter France, a British scholar, wrote an article entitled with “*The Rhetoric of Translation*” in 2005 which explained translation and rhetoric played the same role of mediation (ibid). All of these demonstrate scholars have raised their interest in the relationship between rhetoric and translation. This paper focuses on articles, theses and dissertations on rhetoric translation cited from CNKI to probe Chinese scholars’ current study and problem in this field.

II. THE STUDY ON RHETORIC TRANSLATION IN CHINA (1997-2021)

* This paper is a phased achievement of the research project funded by Philosophy and Social Sciences Association of Tianjin, No. TJWW18-011 (The Translation Study of Chinese Discourse in *Xi Jinping the Governance of China*)

In order to get a full picture of the study on rhetoric translation in China, this paper adopts statistical method to describe and explain the relevant articles, theses and dissertations sorted from the website of CNKI. “translation” and “rhetoric” are set as the subject and the key word respectively on the website to search for articles from journals, theses and dissertations. Finally, there are 529 articles, 385 theses (among which 135 theses are virtually research reports) and 19 dissertations available. In order to ensure the collected articles reliable and influential, these articles are further scanned by ticking the two options of “Core Journal” and “CSSCI” on CNKI to obtain 46 articles with relatively high standard (see table 1).

TABLE 1
LITERATURE AND CLASSIFICATION

Literature	Classification		Total
Article	General Journal	483	529
	Core Journal/CSSCI	46	
Dissertation	Academic Paper	19	19
Thesis	Academic Paper	253	385
	Research Report	132	
			933

Among the sorted 529 articles, the earliest one was published in 1997 and the latest in 2021. The trend of publication from 1997 to 2021 can be observed from *Figure 1* which is downloaded from CNKI (see figure 1).

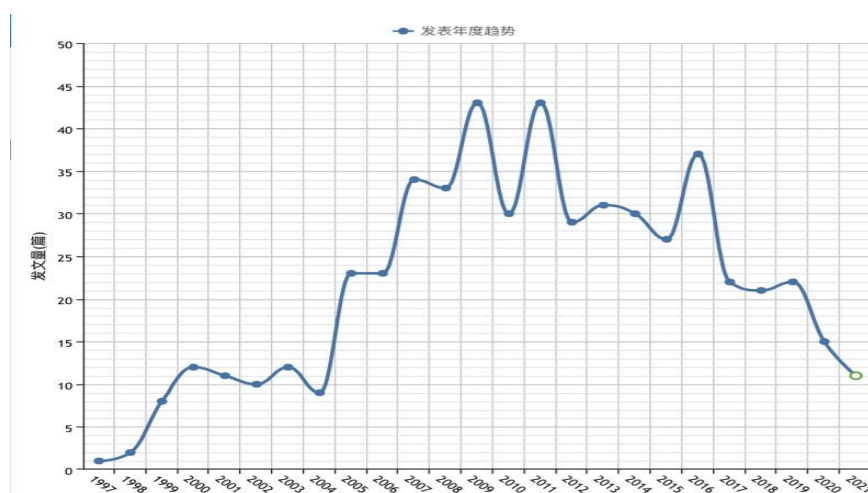


Figure 1 The Trend of Publication from 1997 to 2021
(The curve stands for the number of articles published in the period.)

From figure 1, it can be found Chinese scholars have gradually focused on rhetoric translation since 1990s. Since then, the number of published articles has grown averagely. The curve shows 2009 and 2011 saw the publishing peak. After 2011, the trend once went down but it rose again in 2016. In the past four years, more than 10 articles were published in each year. Although the total number has been slashed compared with the previous years, the above statistics shows that Chinese scholars keep their interest in rhetoric translation.

The above literature sorted for the study of this paper shows that the current research on rhetoric translation usually focuses on the following six dimensions: discussion of languages involved in the transfer, translation direction, text type of the original text, research perspective, rhetoric device and citation frequency. Therefore, this paper tries to describe Chinese current study on rhetoric translation from the above six dimensions.

In order to ensure the sorted literature from CNKI to be highly relevant to rhetoric translation, a further analysis of the titles including subtitles, abstracts and contents of the theses and dissertations are approached. Ultimately, it is discovered that 13 theses and 9 dissertations are less relevant to the study of the paper. And since the research reports among the theses are not of high academic value, they are not analyzed in the paper. Among the 46 articles with relatively high standard, 3 of them are virtually beyond the academic focus of this paper. Finally, 240 theses, 10 dissertations and 43 articles with high standard are observed in the paper.

A. Languages Involved in the Transfer

After a further analysis of the 43 articles, it is found 39 articles deal with English and 4 articles focus on other languages, like Japanese, French, Russian and Uyghur (a language of minority nationalities in China). Examples can be cited: Meng (2018) studied Japanese translation of the report to the 19th national congress of the CPC from the perspective of reception theory; Wang (2012) analyzed Chinese translation of rhetoric device from French scientific and technological passages. After studying the 10 dissertations, it is detected that 9 involve English and only 1 is on another language, which is Thai. Due to the analysis of the abstracts and contents of the 240 theses, it is traced that 211 theses

deal with English and 29 involve other foreign languages (Japanese, Russian, Thai, French, Vietnamese) and Chinese ethnic languages (Uyghur, Tibetan, Mongolian and Kirgiz). The distribution of different languages in the literature can be seen in the following table (see Table 2)

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT LANGUAGES IN THE LITERATURE

Language	E.	J.	R.	F.	Th.	V.	B.	Uk.	Uy.	Ti.	M.	K.
Literature												
Article	39	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Dissertation	9	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Thesis	211	5	4	3	3	2	1	1	5	3	1	1
Total	259	23							11			

(E.=English, J.=Japanese, R.=Russian, F.=French, Th.=Thai, V.=Vietnamese, B.=Burmese, Uk.=Ukrainian, Uy.=Uyghur, Ti.=Tibetan, M.=Mongolian, K.=Kirgiz)

Table 2 shows the majority of Chinese current study on rhetoric translation focuses on the exchange between English and Chinese which covers almost 90% of the whole literature sorted for this paper.

B. Translation Direction

Translation direction in this paper refers to the translated direction of languages involved in rhetoric translation. According to the above literature, there are 3 different directions discussed in the paper. The first direction is from Chinese to a foreign or Chinese ethnic language; the second one is from a foreign or Chinese ethnic language to Chinese; the third is a complex that consists of translation both from Chinese to a foreign or Chinese ethnic language and vice versa. Among the 43 articles, 18 articles studied rhetoric translation from Chinese to another language, 15 articles analyzed translation of rhetorical expressions from a foreign or Chinese ethnic language to Chinese and 10 articles explored translation from Chinese to English and vice versa. As for the 10 dissertations, 7 of them focused on rhetoric translation from Chinese to English, 1 dissertation dealt with translation from English to Chinese and 2 dissertations involved the exchange between Chinese and Thai. Among the 240 theses, 120 theses analyzed rhetoric translation from Chinese to a foreign or Chinese ethnic language, 76 theses observed translation from a foreign or Chinese ethnic language to Chinese and 44 theses handled the complex coving the exchange between Chinese and English. The following table (Table 3) shows the distribution of the 3 directions in the literature.

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION OF 3 DIRECTIONS IN THE LITERATURE

Direction	C. → F/ CE.	C. ← F/ CE.	C. ↔ F/ CE.
Literature			
Article	18	15	10
Dissertation	7	1	2
Thesis	120	76	44
Total	145	92	56

(C.= Chinese; F/ CE. = a foreign or Chinese Ethnic language)

C. Text Type

Through the discussion of translation direction, it is found that the study on rhetoric translation in China usually adopts the concrete texts as the corpus for the research. The most frequently analyzed text types are advertising discourses, literature works, classic works and publicity texts. Advertising discourses are persuasive and therefore they consist of many rhetorical expressions. Literature works also cover abundant rhetorical expressions, so scholars prefer choosing advertising discourses and classical literature works as the corpus for their analysis of rhetoric translation. “*Hong Lou Meng*” (A Dream of Red Mansions), one of the four classical novels in China, is found to be frequently cited for the analysis of rhetoric translation among the literature. Responding to the call of “Go global” for China, scholars have realized the importance of introducing Chinese classic works to the world. Among the literature for the study of this paper, there are 7 theses exploring rhetoric translation of “*Huangdi Nei Jing*” (Yellow Emperor’s Canon of Medicine), a classic work on traditional Chinese medicine. In recent years, publicity texts have gained the attention of scholars. As rhetorical expressions are pervasive in Chinese President Xi Jinping’s political discourses, scholars started to analyze rhetoric translation in President Xi’s speeches. This analysis can be found in the above articles, dissertations and theses collected for this paper.

All in all, various text types are involved in the study on rhetoric translation which means rhetoric is pervasive in language. Burk (1969), a significant scholar of western new rhetoric, even claimed language and rhetoric were symbiotic.

D. Research Perspective

It is accepted that rhetoric can be studied in a broad or narrow sense. Therefore, rhetoric translation can also be observed from two research perspectives: broad and narrow.

The research on rhetoric translation in a broad sense is found rarely among the literature of articles and theses sorted for the paper. Only 9 articles and 25 theses explored rhetoric translation from the broad perspective and they have almost been published in recent years. Typical examples are the study on the translation of publicity texts. Scholars tended to focus on rhetoric persuasion or adopt the new rhetoric theory to analyze translation strategies of this type of texts. The former study can be found in theses of Lin (2016), Luo (2017) and Hu (2018), while the latter in the works of Yu (2017) and Zhu (2019).

However, the situation is quite different in the sorted dissertations. The study on rhetoric translation in a broad sense can be easily found in dissertations. There are 7 dissertations exploring this phenomenon in 2011, 2012, 2013, 2018 and 2019, which demonstrates rhetoric translation in a broad sense has earned much concern and the research has made much progress in innovation and theory in the past ten years. The above dissertations made further explanation for rhetoric translation of literature works and publicity texts from the broad perspective. As for literature works, Pan (2011) analyzed the relationship between rhetoric and ideology in the translation of “*Joan Haste*” on the basis of rhetoric in a broad sense; Feng (2012) studied English translation of “*Hong Lou Meng*” (*A Dream of Red Mansions*) from the perspective of extended rhetoric. In the field of translation of publicity texts, Xue (2011) adopted theories from new rhetoric to construct appropriate rhetoric situation to solve major problems in soft news editing and translating in Chinese international communication.

E. Rhetoric Device

Rhetoric device, or figure of speech, is the focus of rhetoric in a narrow sense. Chinese scholars have classified rhetoric device into different categories according to various criteria. Chen (2020) divided rhetoric device into 38 kinds of 4 categories based on the structure and function of rhetoric, while Zhang (2014) claimed 24 kinds of 3 categories. Chen (2017) studied rhetoric translation from English to Chinese and differentiated rhetoric device into 3 categories which were lexical, structural and phonetic.

Two research perspectives of rhetoric translation have been elaborated in 2.4 of this paper. It is found that Chinese scholars preferred the study on rhetoric translation from the narrow perspective. They usually focused on translation of rhetoric device, which was demonstrated in 33 articles, 215 theses and 2 dissertations. Chinese scholars are also discovered to prefer to study translation strategies of particular kinds of rhetoric device in a concrete text. An explicit example is the dissertation completed by Chen Kefang in 2006. Chen’s dissertation analyzed translation strategies of 3 kinds of rhetoric device (Chinese folk wise cracks, euphemisms and imitation words) in “*Hong Lou Meng*” (*A Dream of Red Mansions*) on the basis of pragmatic principles and theories.

F. Citation Frequency

The sorted articles, dissertations and theses are ranked on CNKI according to the citation frequency. The article entitled with “*Translation of Rhetorical Constructs in Advertising Discourse between English and Chinese*” has received 233 times of citation, the highest one among 43 articles. This article was written by Tan Weiguo in 2003 and published in *Chinese Translators Journal*. Undoubtedly, Tan’s article has won the highest citation frequency due to the early year of publication. But the highest citation also proves rhetorical expressions in advertising discourse were once the focus of translation study. In the past 10 years, another article, “*Rhetoric: A Theoretic Foundation for Translation Thought*”, has earned 70 times of citation, the highest frequency during this period. The author of this article is Liu Yameng and it was published in *Contemporary Rhetoric* in 2014. The publication of the article clearly shows that Chinese scholars have started to observe translation from the perspective of rhetoric and they are interested in the relationship between rhetoric and translation. Among the sorted dissertations for the study of this paper, 3 of them have elaborated translation with some inspiration from rhetoric. The 3 dissertations were written by Chen Xiaowei (2011), Zhang Yu (2013) and Feng Quangong (2012) with the citation frequency of 40, 33 and 18 times respectively. As for theses, one of them got 16 times of citation, the highest one among the theses. It was written by Wang Zhimei (2011) with the title of “*Study on Translation of Ellipses in Huangdi Nei Jing (Yellow Emperor’s Canon of Medicine) from Perspective of Hermeneutic theory*”. Another thesis with 10 times of citation, a relatively high frequency, was completed by Liang Hu (2012). This thesis, from the perspective of scheme-mapping theory, observed translation of three kinds of rhetoric device by contrasting three translated versions of *Huangdi Nei Jing (Yellow Emperor’s Canon of Medicine)*. Obviously, the above two theses, both enjoying a high citation frequency, adopted *Huangdi Nei Jing (Yellow Emperor’s Canon of Medicine)* as the corpus for their study which means rhetorical expressions in Chinese classic works on traditional Chinese medicine have become an academic focus in the field of translation.

The above literature with high citation frequency has demonstrated that rhetoric and translation share some similarities. Owing to this, Scholars have tried to combine the two together for the study of translation.

III. THE TREND AND PROBLEM OF THE STUDY ON RHETORIC TRANSLATION IN CHINA

Based on the statistical study of the above literature from CNKI, it is found Chinese scholars have started to study

rhetoric translation in a broad sense. They have reexamined the relationship between the writer, the translator and the audience from a perspective of rhetoric persuasion. The study of rhetoric in a broad sense has offered a new approach to describe and explain the complicated process of translation. Responding to the call of “Go Global” for Chinese culture after the 18th National Congress of the Communist Party of China which was held in 2012, the recent study on rhetoric translation usually focuses on literature works, classic works and publicity texts. In recent years, rhetoric translation in publicity texts, especially Chinese President Xi’s spoken and written works, has raised scholars’ interest.

Based on the analysis of the sorted literature, it is found that the recent research on rhetoric translation in China needs much room to be improved. Taking articles as an example, 529 articles are received by setting “translation” and “rhetoric” as the subject and key word. However, after further being scanned, only 43 articles with relatively high standard are accessed, which means most articles are still vulnerable in theory and analysis. In addition, this paper finds that a large proportion of the current research on rhetoric translation is repetitive and unworthy.

IV. CONCLUSION

Because of the correlation between rhetoric and translation, scholars have made achievements in the translation of rhetoric device for several years. In this paper, 933 academic works including articles, dissertations and theses are searched from CNKI and finally only 43 articles, 10 dissertations and 240 theses are analyzed for they are academically valuable and highly relevant to rhetoric translation. Statistical analysis is adopted for the sorted literature from various dimensions including languages involved in the transfer, translation direction, text type, research perspective, rhetoric device and citation frequency.

It is found languages involved in the study on rhetoric translation are almost Chinese and English. In this paper, there are 39 articles, 9 dissertations and 211 theses which deal with rhetoric translation from Chinese to English or vice versa. This means 90% of literature collected for the paper focuses on the exchanges between Chinese and English. Other languages have been discussed but the proportion is small. Among the literature sorted for the paper, it is discovered that languages of Chinese minority nationalities, like Uyghur, Tibetan, Mongolian and Kirgiz, have been discussed in rhetoric translation. When translation direction is explored, it can be found the current study on rhetoric translation usually focuses on one direction that is from Chinese to another language. 145 articles are detected to deal with the translation of rhetorical expressions from Chinese to another language that is almost English. Through the study of this paper, it is found Chinese scholars prefer concrete texts as their corpus for the study on rhetoric translation and the major text types are literature works, classic works and publicity texts. Research perspective for the current study can be in a narrow or broad sense. In this paper, it is traceable that most sorted literature chooses the narrow perspective which only concerns translation of rhetoric device. Therefore, rhetoric translation from the perspective of a broad sense is rare and only 41 academic works (9 articles, 7 dissertations and 25 theses) adopt the broad perspective. Although the study on rhetoric translation from the broad perspective is in small numbers, the works with high citation frequency on CNKI in the past 10 years are the ones from the broad perspective.

On the basis of CNKI, this paper has reviewed the study on rhetoric translation in China from 1997 to 2021. Since the number and type of literature are restricted to articles, dissertations and theses on CNKI, this paper has not been able to review the published books on rhetoric translation. Therefore, it is meaningful to make further efforts to study the books on rhetoric translation in the future.

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Burmese Women Portrait Under the British Imperialism in Orwell's *Burmese Days*

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Abstract—This study aims to expose the Burmese women portrait under British Imperialism. The writer believes that *Burmese Days* is created as a response to the social phenomenon that was happening during the process of its creation. This study used a qualitative method using a sociological approach by Laurensen and Swingewood. The data of this study were collected from the description and utterances of the characters and narrator in the novel. The result of this study shows that the women were portrayed as the slave of the English men. The women are not valuable, they merely become entertainment for the English men to entertain them. Even, some of the Europeans have concubines to accompany them in killing their time or killing their boredom. It looks like the women are created for the English men as dolls which can be played as often as they can, and of course, like a doll, they can be thrown easily after the English men being bored. As this research limited to the analysis of women portrait as a concubine for the English men, it is suggested for other researchers to analyze and find the relevant problems that still exist around the society, such as social inequality, resistance, obedience, strategy, gender, racism, corruption and other social aspects in the novel *Burmese Days*.

Index Terms—women portrait, British imperialism, Burmese Days, George Orwell

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays most people define literature as a written piece of work containing aesthetic merits produced by authors (Arafah, B., Kaharuddin, A., Mulyanto., Arifin, M.B., Rofikah, U., Arafah, A.N.B. 2021). The aesthetic merits which are produced by authors are shown by the quality of the literary work which has been written and can be enjoyed by the readers, the literary works are favorably viewed as reading resources that are used for enjoying the scenes, plots, and characters in the works when spending their leisure time (Sunardi, S., Akil, M., Arafah, B., & Salija, K. 2018). Besides enjoying it as reading material to fill spare time, literary works are not only a story that describes an imagination without value inside but also is a reflection of real-life which was written by the authors through their experience during certain periods in the past specifically. Value refers to something worth which can be used as an individual's standard of behavior in life and the authors commonly express values and ideas play out in the daily life of the people as they found in novels, poems, or short stories (Arafah, K., Arafah, A.N.B., & Arafah, B. 2020., Arafah, B., et.al. 2020, Kaharuddin., & Hasyim, M. 2020). It shows that literary works contain many salutary lessons and strong sources of information on reality regarding people's way of life (Purwaningsih, Y. R., Arafah, B., Abbas, H., & Arafah, A. N. B. 2020). Arafah, Kaharuddin, Mulyanto, et al (2021) state that literary work is rich in varieties such as novels, short stories, comic books, diaries, letters, folktales, fantasies, mysteries, and so on.

The rapid development of the literary works as a response of the reader is caused by the development of the theory of literature. Furthermore, the advances in information technology in this era have also changed the way people thinking (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019). It means that the style of literature was influenced by the author's thoughts that changed as time passed following the development of an era. In the 20th century, several multidisciplinary theories of literature have developed rapidly such as sociology of literature, anthropology of literature, and psychology of literature (Kaharuddin & Latif. 2017., Arafah, B, 2018). In literary works, the authors use language as a medium to communicate and interact among the characters in the story. The use of language in the story is aimed to make the readers are more interested in reading the literary works. The language used in the literature is an utterance that performs an act used by the speaker or character in communicating with other characters (Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019). Through the utterances which are shown in the story, the readers are led to give their opinion for the literary works. These readers will convey different opinions based on what they have in their minds. If a reader thinks about something, then he will give an opinion based on the meaning he understands from the utterances in a literary work (Hasjim, Arafah, et.al, 2020).

Little (1981) argues that literature is also the chief art of mankind because it can effectively express one's idea to others. Meanwhile, Spector and Kitsuse (1977) state that literature usually reveals situations or problems that occur in social life. The problems are called social problems. It is an unusual condition or a form of behavior, which is considered to have deviated from the social norms. Further, Then, Althusser (1971) states in an essay entitled *A Letter on Art: in Reply to Andre Daspre* that I believe that the college of art is 'make us see', 'make us perceive', 'make us feel' something which alludes to reality. The very complex reality of life that is well connected with fellow citizens can be seen in the storyline in literature. Not just looking at it, but literature is also able to make its readers pay attention to a period when the literary work was created. Through these three processes, there is an implication that the author wants to convey through the literary work presented and the reader will respond to the reality presented by the author in literary works. In the end, the conclusion of these arguments can be argued that literature is a product of art in society. It can be stated that literature is the social product that is equivalent to cultural, political, and social studies issues (Irmawati., Arafah, B., Abbas, Herawaty., 2020).

Literature provides useful information on the most appropriate types of literature such as short stories, poems, novels, plays, as well as songs (Arafah, 2018). From these types of literature, some people are more interested in reading a novel. Laar and Schoonderwoerd (1963) define a novel as work as far as introducing us to a living world; in some ways resembles the world in which we live, but with its individualist. By reading this, the writer views that literature is an author's expression during its period. By their imagination and social fact which was happening around them in a certain period, they write various stories and that story nowadays can be a satire for a certain people. It looks like that the literary works can be an alarm for people.

The study aims to describe women's portraits in the past. The term which talks about women is called feminism. Brunell & Burkett (2019) & Beasley (1999) argue that feminism is a range of social movements, political movements, and ideologies that aim to define and establish the political, economic, personal, and social equality of the sexes. Women are one of the most interesting issues to be discussed. They have not been deeply discussed until now. Many things which are related with the women, such as discrimination, gender, freedom, inequality, independence, slavery, women's right and women's desire. One of the most common cases involving women is discrimination and slavery.

In the past, women's condition was described as weak so the women always got discrimination against the men. Through discrimination, the women were presented as inferior. In addition, Orwell's *Burmese Days* presented the slavery of women. Women's slavery is the worst side of British Imperialism which should be accepted by the Burmese. They do not have any power to fight them up. They just follow the British order, they know that their town was really poor, outdated, before the British come to colonize them and build them a civilization towards progress. The British emphasize that the Burmese people are uncivilized and uneducated citizens. Most women become concubines for every white man or woman in slavery, and the cost for every woman is cheap enough. "The woman was Ma Hla May, Flory's mistress... He was a woman of twenty-two or-three, and perhaps five feet tall... Flory had bought her from her parents two years ago, for three hundred rupees" (Orwell, 1962, p. 51-53). In contrast in this era, this world is surrounded by a cacophony of news that women are willing to sell themselves for men to gain money and making it their job (Purwaningsih, Arafah, & Abbas, 2020).

By reading this, the writer argues that women's slavery will exist as long as the women are not respected at all. Through this story, *Burmese days* novel, shows vividly that at that period in Burma, women-only is concubines or mistresses for the Europeans. In addition, the researcher believes that Orwell's work, *Burmese Days* is a mirror of the age of society in that period, for women specifically. Burmese women are treated worst by British men. They deserve to be treated whatever they want because they have bought it or paid for it every time they make love. Buddhist is the largest religion for the Burmese people in Myanmar. For them, whose religion is Buddhist, they believe that the one who has done an evil along with their lives, they will spend their life in the incarnation whose shape is similar with a rat, a frog, and other low animals. In addition, they also believe as the Buddhists that the women's position is the same as a rat or a frog.

The writer assumes that the British treat the Burmese women like an animal because of the Buddhist belief toward the women at that period. Coming from all these facts that happened in Burma, Orwell utilizes the history and cultural heritage owned by every country or region to produces a literary work (Hayim, Arafah, & Kuswarirni, 2020). It also makes Orwell write this novel because behind this writing many events happening at the time, and by writing this, he shows his concern toward the Burmese people under the British Imperialism. Myint-U (2001) defines a lot about Burma before being colonized by the British. He describes that Britain had colonized India and then the conflict between Burma and Britain occurred because the Konbaung dynasty decided to expand to Arakan in the state of Assam, near British-controlled Chittagong in India. This led to the First Anglo-Burmese War (1824–26). The British sent a large expedition at sea that took Rangoon without a fight in 1824. At Danuphyu, in the Ayeyarwady Delta, General Maha Bandula of Burma was killed and his army was defeated. Burma was forced to give up Assam and other northern provinces. Further, Anthony (1998) adds that the Yandabo Treaty of 1826 officially ended the First Anglo-Burmese War, the longest and most expensive war in British Indian history. Fifteen thousand European and Indian soldiers died, along with an unknown number of Burmese soldiers and civilian casualties. The campaign cost Britain between 5 and 13 million pounds sterling which led to the economic crisis in British India in 1833.

George Orwell is one of the leading novelists of the modern age. Orwell's *Burmese Days* is a literary work that has become a part of the mythology of imperial experience not only for Burma but for the British Empire as a whole. Stephen (2005) states that *Burmese Days* are often assigned to complement general service courses in world history, literature, and political science. The political and social hypocrisies are powerful satire in his novels. *Burmese Days* was his first novel published in 1934, written when he worked in the Indian Imperial Police in Burma, now is Myanmar, from 1922 until 1907. During the involvement in the police, he did a lot of torture on the prisoners, the peasants, and an old advance, and the servants and laborers whom he had beaten with his stick. His great quality of writing delivers him to achieve international fame and recognition. Orwell emphasizes the relationship between literature and politics and economic issues in most of his works. Through his fiction writings, *Burmese Days*, *Animal Farm*, *Nineteen Eighty-Four*, declare him as a political thinker and it is undoubtedly.

Orwell concerns also toward the problems faced by the Burmese. No wonder, there are many differences among them. The color of the skin, body posture, intelligence, gender, racism, corruption, women's slavery make the British proud and be the superiority and the Burmese are always be the inferiority. By seeing all the complex problems faced by the Burmese under the British Imperialism, it makes Orwell pouring his experiences during staying in Burma and joining Imperial Police for five years became a story which is written in the novel and performed by some characters, the Europeans and the Burmese specifically.

Burmese Days novel is set in Burma, Myanmar, and Kyauktada is the fictional district in the story. It is a town where Orwell served for five years in the 1920s during Imperial Burma. OED In Loomba (2000) defines "imperial" as simply something that "refers to kingship", and "imperialism" as the rule of an emperor, especially despotic and arbitrary ones; the principle or spirit of kingship; the act of advancing the interests of the empire. Further, William (1976) states that imperialism is supreme or superior power. It can be assumed that imperialism is a practice of some countries which targets territorial expansion and control of markets, including the deprivation of material resources and interference in a political and cultural system against the territory it occupies. Right under British Imperialism, there some impacts were given to the Burmese people. As the colonizer and the white skin men who have power in Burma, they build some buildings. At the time, Burma was portrayed as the slum town under the British Imperialism which is Kyauktada as the government center, "Kyauktada was a fairly typical Upper Burma town... in 1910 the Government made it the headquarters of a district and a seat of Progress—interpretable as a block of law courts... durable jails which the English have built everywhere" (Orwell, 1962, p. 18).

Many researchers have been analyzed the same topic, Orwell's *Burmese Days* such as Perdana and Wardhani which analyzed crisis of identity and mimicry (2017), then Dewi, Priyatna, Aksa analyzed the masculinity of the white men (2013), and Anjasari analyzed anti-racism in Orwell's travel writing (2015). The differences between this study and these previous researches lie on the main object, this study focuses on the Burmese women portrait under the British Imperialism.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Durkheim (1958) argues that sociology can be understood as the discipline that aims to study human behavior, the formation of a social structure, and a joint agreement in the economy, politics, culture, and others. In addition, Uer (2013) describes three realities in literature and sociology. Firstly, the reality in sociology is factual which is the social fact of human life, while the reality in literary works is a fictional fact, author's imagination by using language metamorphosis which touching the reader. Secondly, sociology describes the social phenomena by using denotative meaning and it is easy to analyze without causing any other interpretations, whereas in literary works the social phenomena are described by using connotative meaning which rising some interpretations and touching the reader's feelings. Thirdly, the sociologist processes their thoughts and feelings more rationally so that they are easily understood by the readers, while the literary author processes their thoughts and feelings emotionally. From the two explanations above, the writer concludes that sociology describes reality and social fact by using straightforward language as a medium to deliver to the society, whereas literature describes a fictional through the authors' imagination which using connotative language and as a result from some readers, they have some interpretations about that. Nevertheless, the existence of literature cannot be separated from the social reality which occurs in society. The source of this research is a novel from Orwell, *Burmese days*, while the data are the result of analyzing the women portrait under the British Imperialism in *Burmese Day's* novel written by Orwell.

In this study, the writer uses the theory by Laurenson and Swingewood, sociology of literature. Laurenson and Swingewood (1972) introduce three perspectives in their theory, as follows: first is the research which considering the literary work as a mirror of age. The second is the research that considering the literary works as the sociology of the authors, and the third is the research that considering the literary work as a manifestation of historical events and the social culture condition.

Laurenson and Swingewood (1972) argue that literature as a mirror of age deals with the time when literary works are created and set. It indicates that the readers can discuss the social phenomenon which happens to the society in a certain period and certain place through the literary work. In addition, literary work deals with the social situation of the author, it looks like the author is influenced by the situation and condition where the literature is written because the author is a member of the society. Further, literary work is as the specific historical moment, it shows the condition of

society in certain times in accepting and understanding a literary work, the work has special issues in the history which make it become an interesting work.

Those explanations above can be viewed that literary works are created through the phenomena which occur in the society in a certain period and certain place and also the author is always inspired by the happening in his society. In this case, the authors have to be more sensitive toward the social phenomena surrounding them. In addition, literary works reflect the essence, abridgment, and summary of all history. Furthermore, it cannot be separated by the author's manners and attitudes because those things reflect automatically through his works, and by knowing that, the readers understand fully the style of his works.

III. METHOD

Leedy & Ormrod (2001) state that research is the process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data to understand a phenomenon. This research is a qualitative descriptive method using the sociology of literature approach by Laurensen and Swingewood. This method is used by collecting the whole data then explained in detail, and words, descriptions, and dialogues were the data. Library research was the first step for collecting the data. The writer reads the main source of this study, Orwell's novel *Burmese Days*, published in 1962 by Harcourt, New York. Besides reading the novel, the writer also read some journals, articles, some thesis, and books related to this study to add some sources. Then, the writer marked the descriptions to collect the data related to the women's portrait in the novel.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

In *Burmese Days*, Orwell describes his concern toward the Burmese who faced many problems under British Imperialism. Many aspects that Orwell concerns about at the time, he realized that racism, gender, corruption, women slavery, lying, cheating, are the complex problems faced by the Burmese. Orwell served with the Imperial Police in Burma for five years, he saw what the British did toward the Burmese. Through his writing, he blew up his anger toward the British and covered it with a fictional story. Surely, he wrote this story based on his experience during staying in Burma. Here, the writer only focuses on women slavery portrays in *Burmese Days* as the character performs under British Imperialism. At the time, the women are easy to own by buying and selling at the lowest price. So that, most of the British have some concubines or mistress. Then, being bored of the mistress, they are easy to buy another mistress. "There is also a young village girl with a baby. She says that the baby is yours, the holiest one... It did not take him long to deal with the other visitors and to send the village girl away unrewarded, having examined her face and said that he did not recognize her" (Orwell, 1962, p. 8-13). This passage vividly shows that the woman's position merely lies on concubine or mistress for some of the men. This passage illustrates that asking the responsibility to the man, the man easily does not admit then expels the woman without getting anything, even money for the baby.

Another evidence of the women in that period can be seen by the English men illustration which is illustrated by the narrator. "Mr. Macgregor is of the type of the Fine Old English Gentleman, such as, in these happy days, we have so many examples before our eyes. He is "a family man" as our dear English cousins say. Very much a family man is Mr. Macgregor. So much so that he has already three children in the district of Kyauktada, where he has been a year, and in his last district of Shwemyo he left six young progenies behind him. Perhaps it is an oversight on Mr. Macgregor's part that he has left these young infants quite unprovided for, and that some of their mothers are in danger of starvation, etc., etc., etc" (Orwell, 1962, p. 9-10). In addition, to show clearly about the English men, the narrator adds a sentence to support the situation in that time. "Mr. Lackersteen, drunk, supported on either side by a naked Burmese girl, while a third up-ended a whisky bottle into his mouth" (Orwell, 1962, p. 21). Besides Mr. Macgregor and Mr. Lackersteen, there is also Flory who has a concubine also. "The woman was Ma Hla May, Flory's mistress" (Orwell, 1962, p. 51). These quotations state that the English men, wherever they are, it is sure that they have some concubines, two of them are Mr. Macgregor and Mr. Lackersteen. Both of them invite some concubines or mistresses to accompany them in their leisure time or to kill their boredom time. The English men do not want to marry the Burmese woman because of the different colors they have.

In supporting the Burmese women's portrait right under British Imperialism, the author describes the English men's treatment toward the women. The English men portray as rude, never respect the women, even though toward the Burmese women. They do not even consider them. For the English men, the Burmese women are the entertainment only to kill their time. "The girls he has ruined, raping them before the very eyes of their mothers!" (Orwell, 1962, p. 45). This sentence shows that how to disgust his action toward the girl is. Even, he never considers that his acts can hurt the girl and her mother herself. It shows also that it is totally clear that the girl or woman has never had dignity in front of the man.

The writer has written that almost the English men have concubines, but the author vividly emphasizes the one who has a concubine who stays more than 2 years. It is Flory whose concubine's name is Ma Hla May. "So you would rather sleep alone than with Ma Hla May? How ugly you must think me, then! Am I ugly, master?... "Go away," he said, pushing her back. "I don't want you at this time of day" (Orwell, 1962, p. 52). This illustration exposes that Flory treats Ma Hla May rudely. In addition, Flory's description of his concubine shows that he does not need her anymore. "Two years ago you would have redeemed them for me. Ah, you do not love Ma Hla May any longer!" (Orwell, 1962, p. 52).

Completely, Ma Hla May remembers that two years ago she was Flory's wife who was bought from her mother with the lowest price. Ma Hla May does not want to leave Flory because of money. He gets a lot of money after making love or accompanying Flory for sleeping. "Go away, go away!" he said angrily. "Look in the pocket of my shorts. There is money there. Take five rupees and go"... "Get out of this room! I told you to go. I don't want you in here after I've done with you"... "That is a nice way to speak to me! You treat me as though I were a prostitute"... "So you are. Out you go," he said, pushing her out of the room by her shoulders. He kicked her sandals after her. Their encounters often ended in this way. (Orwell, 1962, p. 55). No wonder, Flory's attitude toward Ma Hla May is impolite. Flory thinks that his concubine or mistress will obey him because he gives her a lot of money after making love. So he never thinks about his concubine's feelings.

Another reason why Flory treats badly Ma Hla May is that Flory has fallen in love with the English woman. Ma Hla May knows that and she wants to keep Flory to stay by her side. "Ma Hla May knew, and all the servants knew, that he was getting rid of her because of Elizabeth. Because of "the Ingaleikma with dyed hair", as Ma Hla May called her"... Ma Hla May was clinging to the gatepost and Ko S'la was trying to bundle her out" (Orwell, 1962, p. 113-145). In addition, Ma Hla May's anger has been expressed in front of Flory. "Ah, what shame, what shame! Two years I was your wife, you loved me and cared for me, and then without warning, without reason, you drove me from your door like a dog. And I must go back to my village, with no money, with all my jewels and silk *longyis* gone". These passages show that when Ma Hla May knows that Flory will leave her because of another English girl, she gets angry, she could not accept it because she feels that she deserves to have Flory as her master. She thinks that for more than two years, her life only treats Flory well and she will never want to be left by Flory. For her, Flory is her money resource, so that she will not let Flory leave her easily. She will do anything to keep Flory by her side even if Flory treats her worse than two years ago.

V. CONCLUSION

In line with the idea of Laurenson and Swingewood (1972) states that literary work is socio-culture records that can be used to see the phenomenon in society during this period, it is significant to restate that these are called literary records which refer to the mirror of age. Orwell's *Burmese Days* is one of the historical records by the author when he became police in Indian Imperial Police in Burma, now is Myanmar, from 1922 until 1907. Being police, he expresses his anger toward the British who colonized the Burmese in the past, and *Burmese Days* novel is his masterpiece work to express and illustrate the complicated situation in Burma under British Imperialism.

The English men come to colonize them under British Imperialism. Besides colonizing their country, robbing their natural resources, and ruling them through their law, the English men also colonize the women. No freedom for the Burmese women. The English men consider that the country is poor enough, has no abundance of food, many criminals happen every day. So, most of the women are never worried about being bought by the English men.

In *Burmese Days*, Orwell illustrates many problems in the past among the English men and the Burmese people. As the result of the Burmese women portrait performed in the story, the writer concludes that the author through its fictional story concerns with the situation which was faced by the Burmese people, particularly the women. No wonder, Burmese women are treated worst like an animal. No price for them unless the lowest price, no respect for them, the English men show no politeness toward them.

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