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French Teachers of English: Are They Trained to Teach English Pronunciation and Oral Comprehension Properly?

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Abstract—Many researchers agree to say that English teachers generally lack adequate skills to teach pronunciation properly (Macdonald, 2002; Chen & Goh, 2010), and that "there is a definite need for more courses for ESL teachers" (Derwing, 2010, p.27). We propose to present a survey that was conducted with 60 French primary school teachers and 71 secondary school teachers of English. The study was conducted in several private and public primary schools and high schools. Through a questionnaire, it focused on teachers' self-efficacy (i.e their "individual beliefs about their own abilities to perform [the teaching of English pronunciation] (...) and achieve specific results" (Chen & Goh, 2010, p.333), on how the teachers working in these schools were trained (or not) to teach English pronunciation, and how they are used to working on pronunciation and oral comprehension in their classes. An analysis of the responses will make it possible to answer the following questions: what is the profile of primary school teachers and secondary school teachers in France? What are their needs and objectives? Are they capable of teaching English pronunciation efficiently and what can we objectively expect from them?

Index Terms—Pronunciation teaching, teachers' training, English teaching in France

I. LITERATURE

In recent years, several reports and studies have highlighted the difficulties that French learners encounter when it comes to acquiring a good command of English. Examples include the annual reports published by Education First. Each year, Education First publishes a ranking of English language skills by country, and between 2011 and 2019, France was consistently ranked among the countries of Europe where the mastery of English was one of the poorest. In 2013, French learners even had the weakest English skills in Europe, and the 2018's annual report stated that France still had persistent English skill deficiencies. A number of other studies have emphasized that these learning difficulties are particularly noticeable regarding both the acquisition of English pronunciation by French learners and the way they perceive the language (oral comprehension). This way, in 2019, the CNESCO published a report following a national survey on the teaching of foreign languages in French classes. This report stressed out that despite a will of the Ministry of National Education to emphasize the teaching of spoken English as soon as pupils start to learn an L2 (Official website of the Ministry, 2019), French pupils tend to face greater challenges in oral expression and comprehension than when having to write in English. In a study, Hilton (2003) noted that in 25% of cases, French learners of English had not been able to identify a word in its spoken form even if they recognized its written form, nor to make the difference between 'hit' and 'eat' for example, which underlines that French learners face difficulties in understanding spoken English. Learning difficulties regarding the acquisition of English pronunciation by French learners of English have also been exposed in various publications (CNESCO, 2019; Henderson et al., 2012; Moore-Mauroux, 2010), and recurring errors have been identified, both at the segmental and suprasegmental levels (Herry-B énit, 2011; Capliez, 2011).

However, these learning difficulties are not new, and in 1934, Chaffurin already stated that "English pronunciation [was] difficult for French people". This way, if learning English pronunciation has proved to be challenging for French learners for a long time now, one could wonder why the situation has not evolved over the last decades, as learning difficulties have clearly been identified. As far as French learners are concerned, Education First (2013) stressed out that both low exposure to English and declining skills among teenagers could be responsible for that persisting weak level in English, declaring: "It appears that the declining level of English ability in adults is led by young people, who are leaving school with weaker English than ever before. Examining English proficiency trends in teenagers over the past 15 years helps us understand the evolution in adult skill levels, and points to how the French school system is contributing to the overall decline. [...Also,] French students report lower levels of exposure to English in everyday life than any other Europeans polled". Indeed, researchers agree to say that these two factors, namely exposure (Piske et al., 2001; Moyer, 1999 ; Derwing et al., 2008 ; Celce-Murcia et al., 1996) and quality teaching (Saito, 2011, Derwing et al., 1998; Atli & Bergil, 2012) affect the chances of learners to become fluent and/or native-like in an L2, in the same way as motivation for example (Marinova-Todd et al., 2000 ; Suter, 1976; Bongaerts, 1999).

Following the publication of such reports since the 2000's, the French Ministry of National Education has introduced a number of educational reforms to try to help French pupils acquire solid skills in English, but without any real success. In that respect, several recent reports underline that from one year to another, despite these numerous reforms, French pupils' English proficiency skills' are still stagnating or even declining (CNESCO, 2019; Taylor & Manes-Bonnisseau, 2018; Education First, 2013). In this way, significant differences between the Government's expectations and the real level of French pupils have been highlighted. Taylor & Mannes-Bonnisseau' report (2018), quoting the European Survey and data from Key Data on Language Teaching (2017), evoke the case of 15 years old French pupils who had started to learn English at 6, which represents more or less 936 hours of language learning in a school context. For such learners, the French Ministry of National Education expects a B1 level in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, but research has showed that only 11% of these pupils had actually reached this level after 9 years of English learning at school. Another 15% had reached the A2 level, and 71% of the pupils had reached the A1 or A1- levels, which are the levels expected for a pupil leaving elementary school. These results are far below those of other European countries, such as Sweden for example, where 80% of the pupils with the same profile manage to reach either the B1 or even B2 levels after 9 years of English learning (CNESCO, 2019).

As underlined earlier in this article, these difficulties faced by French learners of English are particularly prominent regarding the acquisition of solid oral skills in L2 (pronunciation and oral comprehension of English). In this way, the CNESCO's report (2019) mentioned that a significant number of French pupils face difficulties in making themselves understood in English due to a hazardous pronunciation of English, which would be strongly influenced by their mother tongue. If Education First (2013) declared that the French school system might be responsible for that weak level, the CNESCO (2019) also pointed out the way oral English is taught in French classes and how it could explain why French learners of English do not manage to improve their spoken English over the years. In this report, reference is made in particular to the fact that since 2016 (Official Bulletin n°39, October 2015), the teaching of an L2 has become compulsory in France for any pupil entering primary school. However, this teaching is provided by primary school teachers, who are not specialists of English, as pointed out by the CNESCO (2019) which specified that "imposing the teaching of an L2 to teachers who are not specialists can be productive only if they are provided with adequate professional training". In this way, Derwing (2010) suggested that "an increased focus on pronunciation should extend to K-12 classroom teachers as well, even though they are not necessarily designated as language teachers per se". Literature also stressed out that even secondary school teachers tend to lack professional training to be able to teach English pronunciation and oral comprehension properly (MacDonald, 2002 ; Huart, 2010 ; Chen & Goh, 2010), even if they are specialists. Such a lack of training has direct consequences on the level of their pupils, as claimed by Hodges (2006), who declared that many French speaking teachers never acquire some typically English phonemes and consequently transmit their incorrect pronunciation to their students.

The consideration of the elements mentioned above, namely the declining level of French pupils in English over the years, particularly regarding their oral skills, and the fact that such a persistent issue might be due to the lack of training of both French primary school teachers and secondary school teachers led us to implement the present study. We propose to present a survey that was conducted with 60 French primary school teachers and 71 secondary school teachers of English. The study was conducted in several private and public primary schools and high schools. Through a questionnaire, it focused on teachers' self-efficacy (i.e their "individual beliefs about their own abilities to perform [the teaching of English pronunciation] (...) and achieve specific results" (Chen & Goh, 2010, p.333), on how the teachers working in these schools were trained (or not) to teach English pronunciation, and how they are used to working on pronunciation and oral comprehension in their classes. An analysis of the responses will make it possible to answer the following questions: what is the profile of primary school teachers and secondary school teachers in France? What are their needs and objectives? Are they capable of teaching English pronunciation efficiently and what can we objectively expect from them?

II. SURVEY

A. *Participants and Procedure*

Participants in this survey were 60 primary school teachers and 71 secondary school teachers from various private or public educational institutions. On average, primary school teachers had 19.5 years of experience in teaching. The least experienced teacher was in his first year of teaching, and the most experienced one in her 38th. Secondary school teachers had 16.5 years of experience on average, with experience in teaching going from 1 year of teaching to 37. Out of the 60 primary school teachers who responded to the survey, 9 of them had an English diploma, the 51 others had made studies in the fields of History, mathematics, sciences, philosophy, Spanish or accounting for example¹, and 31 had at least a bachelor's degree. 63/71 out of the secondary school teachers who participated in this survey had a Master's degree in English.

Before they were sent to teachers for this survey, the questionnaires had been developed and revised. Indeed, the instruments were piloted and read by several school inspectors (primary school inspectors and secondary school

¹ It has to be specified that in France, primary school teachers have to teach English, even if they have not studied the language during their postgraduate studies. Having an English diploma is not an obligation to teach English at this level in France.

inspectors) in several French departments. These professionals had been asked to make comments or suggestions for clarification if needed before the questionnaires could be sent to teachers for a larger scale study. This way, once revised, the questionnaires were eventually sent out to teachers and then returned to us for analysis.

The questionnaires for the survey presented here focused on teachers' self-efficacy (i.e. their "individual beliefs about their own abilities to perform [the teaching of English pronunciation] (...) and achieve specific results" (Chen & Goh, 2010), on how the teachers working in these schools have been trained (or not) to teach English pronunciation, and how they are used to working on pronunciation and oral comprehension in their classes. General questions about the teaching of English in French schools had also been added to the questionnaires.

B. Results

1. Secondary School Teachers

The 71 secondary school teachers who participated in the survey had to answer several questions about their professional training. First, it was found that 14% of them had never studied English pronunciation at all during their postgraduate studies. The other 86% had been trained, and a majority of them had studied different aspects of English phonetics. This way, as mentioned in Figure 1 below, teachers said that they had learned about the production of English vowels and/or consonants, or studied articulatory phonetics. As far as English prosody is concerned, secondary school teachers had also been trained, as their university education had included courses on stress, tones, and English rhythm. The detailed results are presented in the following graph:

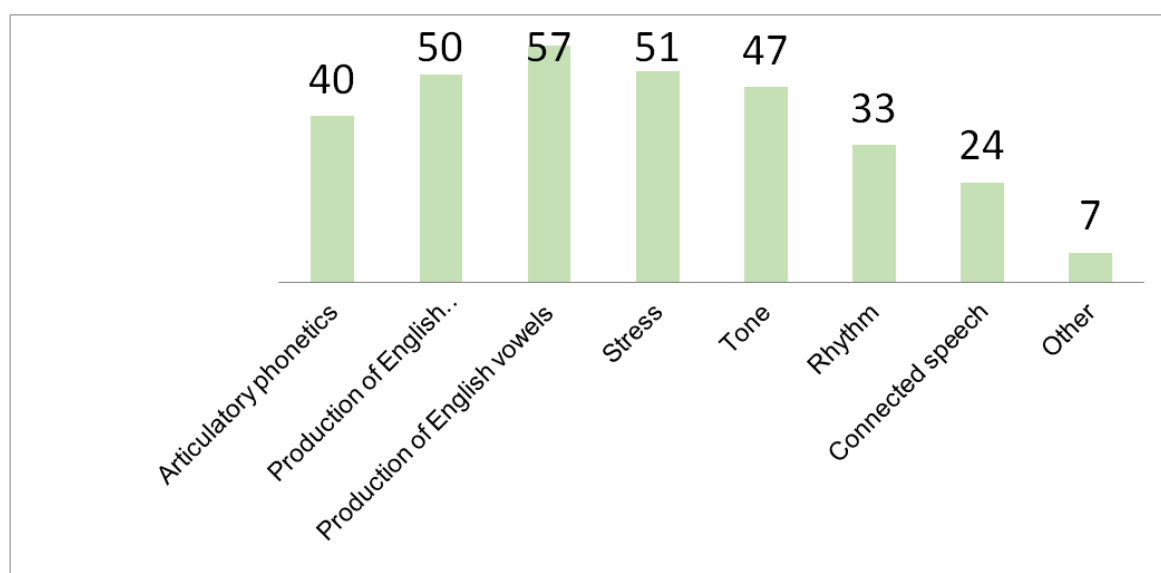


Figure 1: Content of Training – Secondary School Teachers

When asked if they thought that they had been trained to teach English pronunciation, only 10% of the interviewed teachers answered «Absolutely». Half of them (51%) believed that they had been partially trained to teach it, and 39% felt that they had not really been trained for that. The results also show that only 26% of the teachers thought that their initial training helps them on a daily basis to teach pronunciation in class, whereas 74% of them affirmed that it is their professional experience which guides them when it comes to teaching English pronunciation.

The teachers were also asked whether they would be interested in a professional training to help them learn how to teach English pronunciation, and a majority of them answered positively since 84% claimed that they would like to be trained to teach pronunciation and / or deepen their knowledge of English phonetics for example.

Secondary school teachers were also asked questions about their pedagogical practices. Results suggest that only 21% of them systematically correct the pronunciation of the pupils in class when a word is mispronounced. A majority of them declared that they very regularly correct the pronunciation of their pupils (68%), 10% admitted that they correct it from time to time, and only 1% of them affirmed that they rarely do it. However, even if only 21% of the teachers affirmed that they always correct a mispronounced word, 35% of the 71 interviewed teachers declared that they want their pupils to leave high school with a native-like pronunciation. Also, when asked the reasons why they sometimes deliberately omit to correct a mispronounced word in class, the following answers were given:

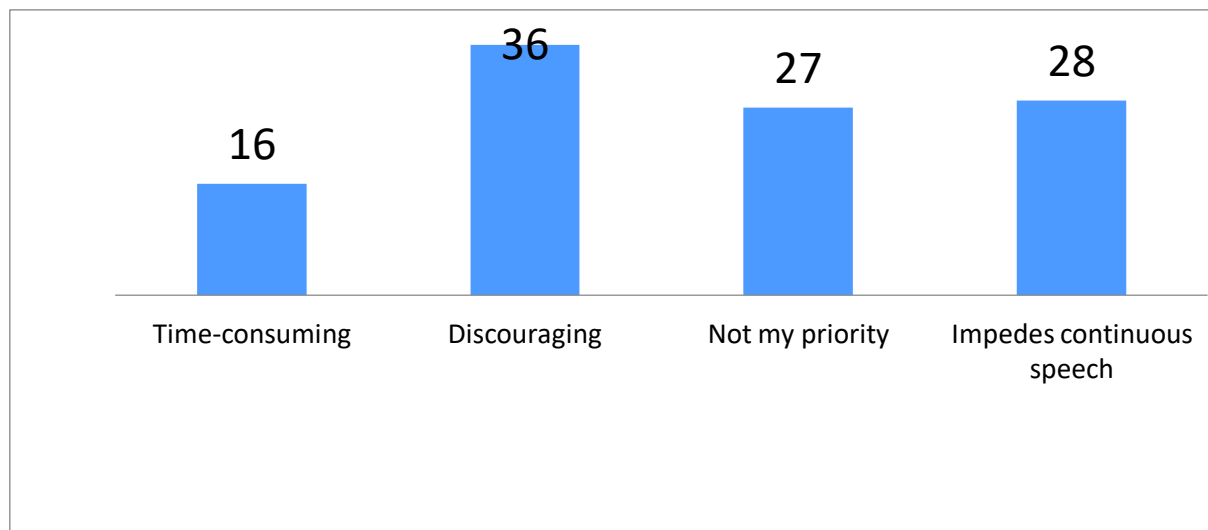


Figure 2: Reasons Why Teachers Choose not to Correct the Pronunciation of Their Pupils

Figure 2 shows that the discouraging aspect that represents a public correction for the pupil was the first reason mentioned by secondary school teachers to explain why they do not systematically correct a bad production of English segments or prosody (36 occurrences). Teachers also affirmed that a correction seems to be impeding continuous speech (27 answers). 27 of them declared that most of the time, correcting the pronunciation of their pupils is simply not their priority, and 16 said that it is time-consuming.

The survey also focused on how French teachers usually work on pronunciation in class. The top 8 answers given were:

1. Repetition of a target word
2. Tongue twisters
3. Reading (texts)
4. Songs
5. Minimal pairs
6. Phonetic transcription of key words
7. Work in a laboratory (computers)
8. Poems

As detailed above, we found that asking students to repeat a mispronounced word is the most common exercise used by French teachers to work on pronunciation in class, followed by the use of tongue twisters and reading activities. Other activities were also mentioned, although more rarely, like film dubbing or use of gestures to make pupils acquire English prosody, with one occurrence each.

Finally, the questionnaire included a more general question about the teaching of spoken English in French classes. Teachers were asked to give their opinion about this aspect of teaching, and to underline what could / should be improved in French classes to make it possible for pupils to acquire a better perception and production of spoken English. A total of 52 different issues were identified by secondary school teachers to explain why it might be challenging to teach English pronunciation efficiently. These included equipment issues, problems linked to the behaviour of pupils, constraints linked to classroom size and time for example. Some answers are detailed below:

«Too few hours available, and too many pupils in each class!»; «We need proficiency groups...»; «Pupils are completely discouraged!»; «Working in a lab is a good thing ... but it is time-consuming!»; «Course books and training manuals are not adapted»; «I don't know how to include a work on pronunciation that could have a link with the theme of my chapter»; «We do not have enough equipment / adapted equipment»; «The pupils have complexes that impedes work on pronunciation»; «Input outside of the class is a real problem!(TV, radio)»; «Pupils rely on the written form of English to talk, and I don't know what to do to prevent that»; «We definitely lack professional training !»; «Each time I have tried to teach pronunciation, it has always been a total failure, so I do not teach it anymore ! »

However, one of the most cited answers was that the teaching of English in primary schools should be completely or at least partially revised in order to make it possible for secondary school teachers to work efficiently on pronunciation. This way, answers like «There is a real problem with the teaching of English in primary schools» or «The pronunciation of the pupils is far too poor when they arrive at secondary school level, we can do nothing, it's too late» were regularly given.

2. Primary School Teachers

The questionnaire started with self-assessment questions concerning teachers' opinion about their mastery of English perception and production. The detailed results are presented in the following graphs:

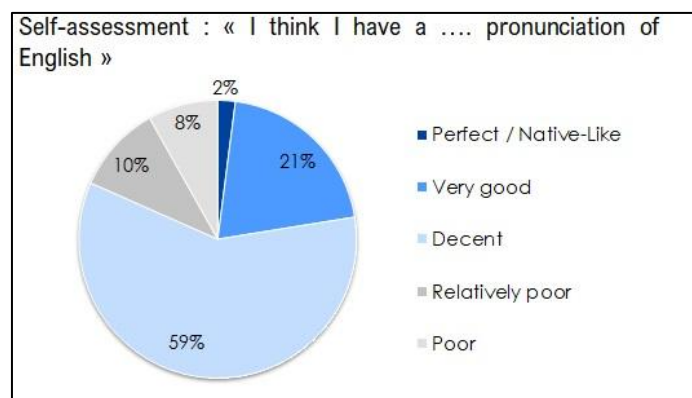


Figure 3: Self-assessment Question: Pronunciation of English by Primary School Teacher

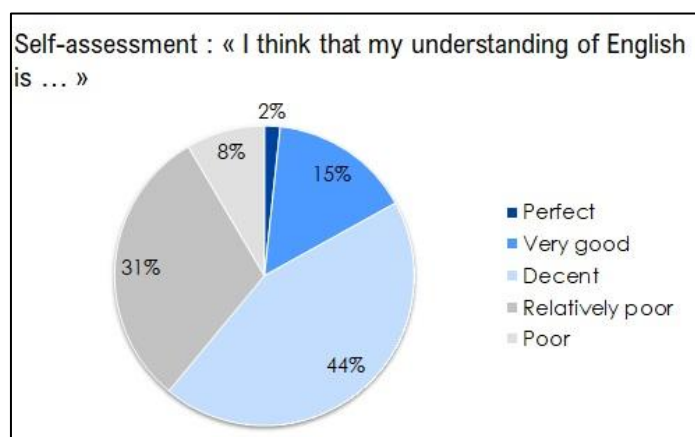


Figure 4: Self-assessment Question: Perception of Spoken English by Primary School Teachers

Data presented in figure 3 shows that only 2% of the primary school teachers who were interviewed think that they have a perfect / native-like pronunciation of English, and 21% believe that they have a very good pronunciation of English. Out of the 60 teachers who responded to the survey, 77% of them thought that their pronunciation of English was at best decent, or even relatively poor or poor with shares of 59%, 10% and 8% respectively. As far as their perception skills were concerned, figure 4 makes it possible to see that again, 2% of the teachers estimate that they have a perfect perception of spoken English. 15% of them think that they have a very good perception of the language. Once more, with a total of 83% of responses, a majority of the respondents declared that their skills in oral comprehension of English were at best decent, or even relatively poor or poor, with shares of 44%, 31% and 8% respectively.

Primary school teachers were also asked questions about their professional training. It was found that barely a quarter of them affirmed that they had received pronunciation instruction during their postgraduate studies, and that only 17% declared that they had been trained to teach English during their professional career (initial training and vocational training taken together). As a consequence, 93% of the teachers who responded to the survey declared that they would like English to be taught to their pupils by another (qualified) person.

Questions about their practices were also included to the questionnaire. This way, it was emphasized that more than a half of the teachers (53%) declared to teach English to their pupils less than one hour a week, with 15% teaching it less than 30 minutes a week. During that instruction time, only 5% of the 60 teachers admitted that they rarely correct the pronunciation of their pupils, and 23% said that they do from time to time. 72% affirmed that a mispronounced word was corrected at least very regularly or even systematically, with shares of 40% and 32% respectively. Reasons evoked to explain why teachers might deliberately omit to correct the pronunciation of a pupil were not proportionally similar to those given by secondary school teachers. This way, even if 19 teachers also affirmed that systematic corrections are discouraging for learners, only one teacher said that it is time consuming. 8 answered that the acquisition of a good pronunciation is usually not their pedagogical priority, but 16 admitted that they almost never correct the pronunciation of the pupils simply because they think that they are not a good model for them and / or because they do not feel qualified to do it.

Finally, teachers were asked to affirm if they felt qualified to teach English production and perception. The results are detailed below:

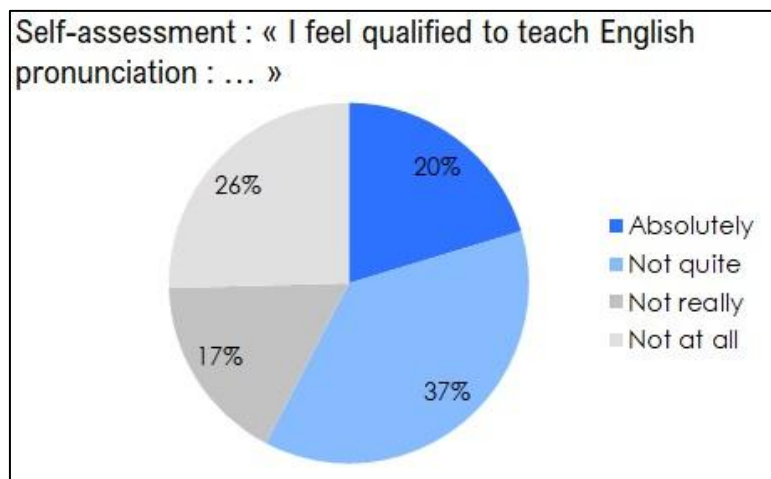


Figure 5: Teachers' Self-efficacy: Teaching of English Pronunciation

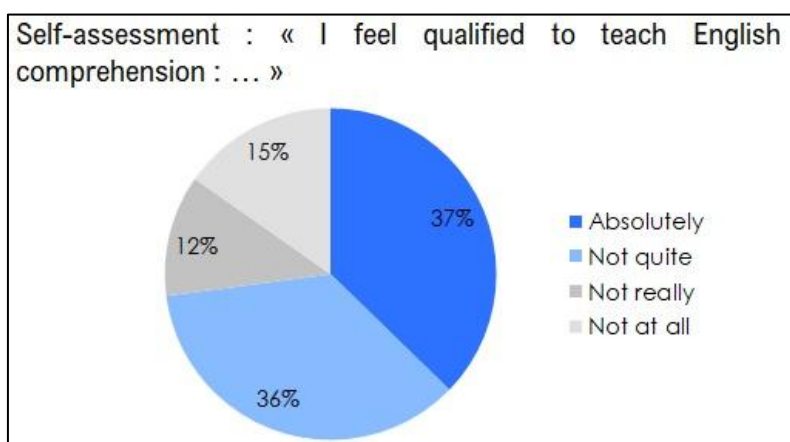


Figure 6: Teachers' Self-efficacy: Teaching of English Comprehension

Results presented in figure 5 suggest that only a fifth of the interviewed teachers think that they are fully qualified to teach English pronunciation. A half affirmed that they are either not completely qualified (37%) or not really qualified (17%) to do it, and about a quarter declared that they are not at all qualified to teach English segments and prosody, with 26% of respondents. As far as the teaching of oral comprehension is concerned, results are similar. Indeed, data presented in figure 6 underline that 37% of the teachers said that they are absolutely qualified to teach the perception of English phonemes and prosody to young learners. A total of 48% of them affirmed that they are either not completely (36%) or not really qualified (12%) to teach it, and 15% of the respondents declared that they do not feel qualified at all.

Again, it had been decided to ask teachers to make some general remarks about the teaching of English in French primary schools. A large majority of them declared that they should not teach English because they have not been trained for that. Plus, it was underlined that teachers have the feeling that their poor level in English has harmful consequences on the level of their pupils, who seem to be acquiring a bad pronunciation of English because of them, according to the responses that we collected. Here is a sample of answers that were made by the 60 primary schools teachers: «My English is damaging to the pupils»; «My level of English is so bad...»; «Teaching quality is limited by our competences in English»; «Secondary school teachers have to repair our mistakes». Collected answers also revealed that most of the time, teaching English, and especially English pronunciation, is a source of anxiety for French primary school teachers, for the reasons evoked above. This way, answers like «teaching English is a cause for concern»; «It is a nightmare for me »; « My colleagues are not comfortable with it »; « I feel neither at ease nor qualified when it comes to teaching English » were given.

III. DISCUSSION

This survey made it possible for us to highlight several elements. First, it seems that overall, French secondary school teachers have received instruction in English pronunciation, and a majority has some basic knowledge of English phonetics contrary to what can be claimed in literature (Breitkreutz et al., 2001; Macdonald, 2002). However, it has to be underlined that even if these teachers have at least some basic knowledge of English pronunciation (segments and prosody), it seems that they have not been trained to teach it in class. In other words, even if they know *what to teach*, they need help to learn *how to teach* it efficiently, and are increasingly in demand of professional training, although questionnaires made it possible to emphasize that most of the time, these vocational trainings are not granted. Also,

even though no teacher affirmed that he/she has a 100% native-like pronunciation, 35% of them would like their pupils to leave high school with such a pronunciation, which is paradoxical. Another point that was raised by this survey is that generally speaking, secondary school teachers in France find it very challenging to teach English pronunciation in class for numerous reasons. The direct consequence of that is a minimal consideration of that aspect of spoken English in language courses, as pointed out by several researchers (Diana, 2010; Gilbert, 2010; Kelly, 1969). As far as primary school teachers are concerned, the survey revealed several worrying elements. First, it seems that a majority of them have neither been trained to master the pronunciation or perception of English themselves, nor to teach it to young learners. As a consequence, it was found that 93% of the interviewed teachers are not willing to teach English because they do not feel qualified to do it, and they would like to be supported or replaced by specialists of English to make it sure that French pupils benefit from effective teaching. Besides, a significant part of primary school teachers who answered the questionnaire declared that they have the feeling that their bad pronunciation of English tends to be transmitted to their pupils, and that generally, their shortcomings in English causes more harm than good. This phenomenon is described by Hodges (2006) or Flege (1991), who developed the *accented L2 input hypothesis*, which predicts that a learner who receives accented input instead of native or native-like input will be likely to develop in turn an accented pronunciation of English, or even be unable to develop good perception and production skills. This way, considering such a hypothesis, one could wonder if asking untrained primary school teachers to teach English pronunciation and oral comprehension to young learners is really constructive and helpful for children learning English as an L2. Also, perhaps that hiring specialists, as suggested by primary school teachers themselves, could be a good alternative, although it might be complex to implement.

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Investigating the Correlation Between Students' Reading Fluency and Comprehension

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Abstract—The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between students' reading fluency and comprehension. It is a correlational design. A purposive sampling technique was employed to select the district, school, students, and grade level. Accordingly, 100 students participated in the study. As the research was quantitative, reading comprehension tests and comprehension-based silent reading fluency tests were applied to collect data. The data was analyzed using statistical techniques like Pearson product-moment correlation and linear regression. The findings revealed that reading accuracy level and reading rate, which are the parameters of reading fluency, were strongly correlated ($r = .885$, $P < 0.01$) with each other. However, silent reading fluency (SRF) had a moderate correlation with reading comprehension. Moreover, the reading rate had a strong positive correlation with reading accuracy ($r = .885$, $p < 0.01$, and reading comprehension ($r = .410$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, the linear regression outputs confirmed that the higher the students' reading rate and accuracy level, the higher their reading comprehension (Beta = 0.42, $t = 4.53$, $p < 0.05$). It means that when reading rate and accuracy increase, so do their reading comprehension. The results suggest that reading rate and accuracy levels are valid measures of reading ability when students read silently with comprehension

Index Terms—silent reading fluency, reading rate, reading accuracy, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Many scholars agree that reading is that the most significant skill that learners got to achieve success within the academic environment. That's why UNESCO (2010) underscores that the pliability to read and extract meaning from text is also a fundamental skill necessary for several types of personal learning, intellectual growth, and academic attainment (Kwiatkowska-White, 2012). The center of reading is the ability to grasp and answer ideas expressed in writing (Nichols, Rupley, & Blair, 2005). Lack of successful word recognition accuracy and automaticity is significant impediment for processing to a level of reading for meaning and learning. Readers who skirmish with words recognition have effort moving to the aim of speed reading and fluency in their reading; that permits them to think about comprehension of what they are reading (Valencia & Buly, 2004; Rasinski, 2010). Students who lack adequate rehearsal in reading are doubtful to develop automaticity in word recognition (Rasinski, 2010).

At least two cognitive tasks are crucial in reading: attention to and competing for word recognition and comprehension. The more attention readers give to identifying words, the less attention they leave to administer reading comprehension (Foorman & Metha, 2002; Samuels, 2002). Fluency serves as a bridge between word credit and understanding. Fluent readers can focus most of their attention on reading comprehension since they can identify words accurately and automatically. In addition, they can make connections between ideas in texts, between texts, and between their previous knowledge. Consequently, this study focused on comprehension-based silent reading fluency. Researchers and language experts relegated the nature of silent reading fluency and its guiding strategy to secondary school status relative to oral reading.

Ultimately, silent reading is most important in the tasks of colleges, workplaces, and communities, such as voting, reviewing documents to purchase large ticket items such as cars and houses, and seeking employment (Hiebert, 2015). Further, evaluators of silent reading based on students' reading proficiencies and national and international assessments. Silent reading is the mode of proficient reading. The present research is based on a theoretical framework by the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) and emerging research on the relationship between silent reading comprehension and reading rate and is labeled as the Comprehension-Based Silent Reading Rate (CBSRR) (Spiching et al., 2016). Thus, this research lies in the CBSRR model.

Kim et al. (2010) argue that the verbal efficiency theory and the automaticity theory articulate the importance of reading fluency to reading comprehension. According to these theories, fast and accurate word reading and cognitive resources can be released for meaning construction and facilitate reading comprehension. Fluency improvement

includes making excellent use of what is already known. The best development of fluency is speed-reading, where students focus on improving reading speed while maintaining good comprehension skills (Nation, 2009). For the advancement of reading fluency, stockholders should prepare textbooks judiciously to work well with EFL students; the reading materials need to be well within the students' level of proficiency. There should be little or no unknown vocabulary or grammatical features in texts prepared for fluency development purposes (Huffman, 2021).

Moreover, when learners sit for a written test as part of an academic study, they write under time pressure. These four constituents of a language course: meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development, ought to take up roughly equal time. Researchers conducted some large-scale and classroom-based studies at the elementary grade levels over the last three decades and discovered that instruction in reading fluency leads to improvements in reading comprehension. Moreover, it improved the overall reading proficiency levels (Rasinski et al., 2014). Although the researchers acknowledged the importance of reading fluency within the early grades, there have been a limited number of studies at the secondary levels, which has led to the necessity to conduct further studies within the area. In Ethiopia, studies have consistently revealed that primary and secondary school students have serious problems and lack basic skills in reading the language (English), which is taken as a tool of science and technology (Early Grade Reading Assessment, 2018, Ministry of education in Ethiopia, 2013).

According to the findings of the above studies, secondary school students tend to have little motivation, interest, and commitment to their education. The studies reported that students did not possess adequate reading skills to continue their secondary and higher education (Ministry of education, 2018). For example, in 2015, half of grade four and eight students scored below the basic reading proficiency level for all subjects. Specifically, about 44% of grade 4 students tested nationally were below the basic level in reading (Early Grade Reading Assessment, 2018). Moreover, Deribe (2019) points out that the reading ability of Ethiopian students has been declining. Furthermore, Bizuwork (2018) underlines that students' reading comprehension performance was low because they lack basic reading comprehension skills in English.

As a teacher of English, the researcher observed that students were making slow progress in learning to read. On the other hand, many of the students had excellent vocabulary; they knew the meanings of many words; others controlled the examination with few mistakes in word recognition; still others demonstrated high levels of comprehension. The most commonly observed reading problem in high school students, however, is slow or inefficient reading. Sluggish reading may necessitate a significantly longer time in the reading task than reading with appropriate pace, and the current study sought to investigate the extent of the accuracy of this observation. In Ethiopian secondary school contexts, the contribution of students' reading fluency to their reading comprehension is not examined. Therefore, the current study, to the researchers' knowledge, is the first of its kind to examine the relationship between students' reading fluency and their reading comprehension at the Ethiopian high school level, where students have ample time for self-study.

The current study aimed to investigate the relationships between students' reading fluency and their reading comprehension. Specifically, it attempted

1. To examine the relationship between students' reading rates, accuracy, and comprehension
2. To see the contributions of students' reading fluency to their reading comprehension,
3. To examine the extent to which students' reading fluency predicts their reading comprehension.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Fluency is a student's ability to have clear meaning from reading comprehension, no hesitation throughout reading the given texts, and appropriate speed of delivery. Instead, ministry of education (2003) defines accuracy as using correct vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and a suitable level of formality. The Grade 11 English for Ethiopia teacher's guide and student textbook strongly suggest that teachers should get the students to bring in their favorite reading materials (a novel or short story) and share them with their classmates. It also suggests teachers give attention to students' reading fluency. The average reading rate of students in grade 11 is expected to be between 250 and 300 wpm in silent reading (Rasinski, 2006). Researchers began to use fluency as a synonym for automated processing, distinguishing between verbal and silent reading. They observed that students first mastered reading aloud and then moved on to silent reading (Paige, Rasinski, Lavell, Smith, 2014). That transition typically happens at the end of the elementary grade, immediately through a developmental shift from learning to read to reading to learn (Nation, 2009). Silent reading has the advantage of not being limited by the speed limit of speech generation. This requires additional resources other than silent word recognition for experienced readers (Schreiber, 1980).

In addition, La Berge and Samuels (1974) introduced the concept of automaticity. They claim that reading a word automatically uses less cognitive resources. Reading comprehension reallocates intellectual resources that require more cognitive resources (Berninger, Abbott, Olson, Gould, Hiramatsu, Holsinger, McShane, Murphy, Norton, Boyd, Westhaggen, 2010). Thus, experts associate automatic word reading with reading comprehension. Fluency has a contribution to the field of Cognitive Psychology. Schneider and Shiffrin (2003) introduced a cognitive study of written word processing that distinguishes between controlled strategic processing that requires conscious attention and automated processing that does not require conscious attention. Researchers have shown that students use conscious and controlled strategic reading processes when learning new words (Berninger et al., 2010). However, they practiced their

skills to master the language; they may switch from controlled strategies to automatic pilots. Their recent research shows that, although automatic processing tends to be fast, initially slow, conscious, and controlled strategic processing may be practiced, and become very fast, but not necessarily automatic (Paige et al. 2014). Current cognitive research on reading has moved beyond spontaneous and controlled processing to research on flexibility. Skilled readers can flexibly apply many knowledge sources and strategies and know when to automatize and when to engage in reflection (Cartwright, 2008, Samuels, 1987). It also has a contribution to the field of special education. Deno (1985) introduced the Curriculum-based Measure (CBM) as an alternative to psychometric test measures.

Curriculum-based measures are timed tasks used to assess students' responses to the reading curriculum. CBM typically measures accurate performance within a constant time limit (1 minute) at a constant rate (number of seconds per word) or speed (words per minute) (Jenkins et al., 2003). CBM is time-related and is frequently used in the assessment of reading fluency. Silent reading dominated the reading of adults in the context of college, careers, and communities (Jenkins, Schulze, Marti, Harbaugh, 2017). The National Center for Education Statistics (2017) focuses on offering instructional experiences to students to be proficient in reading more insights into patterns of silent reading (Hiebert, 2019). The present research built on a theoretical framework and an emerging body of research on the link between comprehension and rate in silent reading (Spichtig et al., 2016, Hiebert & Trainin, 2019). It focused on getting meaning during real-time readings. At the high school level and higher (Hiebert, Samuels, & Rasinski, 2019). It is an efficient way of getting meaning while reading and it is crucial to gain connotations efficiently from the text in all academic works. Besides, it is vital that rate-based measures are valuable in progress monitoring because they are more sensitive to growth than accuracy-based measures. The rate of reading with comprehension is a good measure of general reading ability.

Some researchers have conducted studies on silent reading. For example, Huey (1908) studied the automaticity of silent reading. The research done by Carver (in the 1960s and '90s) showed that an optimum reading rate with maximum comprehension efficiency was possible. The National Reading Panel (2000) says fluency is significant in the inclusion of fluency training in schools. Generally, the availability of eye-tracking technology has accelerated the amount of research on the silent reading rate in the past 15-20 years. This research engrossed on fluency and reading comprehension because students are considered proficient readers when reading fluency and reading comprehension are at grade level. Eventually, it can fill the gap left by studies dedicated only to oral reading fluency, which is limited to the elementary school level. In comprehension-based silent reading fluency, students most often conduct reading tasks silently on their own for a sustained period in high school, the community, and the workplace.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The present research mainly relied on a correlational research design. Thus, this helped to see the relationship between the two variables: reading comprehension and fluency, using the appropriate statistical output for interpretation.

A. *Research Setting*

The researchers conducted this study in an Ethiopian EFL context in the 2020–2021 academic year. It focused on examining the relationships between comprehension-based silent reading fluency and reading comprehension with reference to grade 11 students in selected schools in Wolaita Zone, Sodo Town, South Ethiopia. From this zone, the researchers purposively selected four general secondary schools, since they are better resourced and have better libraries, and the town has advanced public libraries. The researchers anticipated that these might motivate students to engage in reading tasks and build autonomous reading abilities.

B. *Participants*

This research targeted Grade 11 students at four secondary schools in the Wolaita Zone, located in South Ethiopia. The selection of the schools and grade levels was purposeful. The researchers believed that grade 11 students could take responsibility for their learning of the language through reading. To determine the sample size, the researchers applied Morgan and Krejcie (1970) techniques. These researchers created a table to determine the sample size for a specific defined population without the need for any calculations (Cohen, Manion, & Marrison 2007: p.107 as cited in Tekele 2016). Based on the idea of Table 1, as the population increases, the sample length will increase at a diminishing rate and stay surprisingly consistent at barely greater than 380 cases. The formula used to construct it was $S = \frac{X^2NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2P(1-p)}$. In which S = required sample size, X^2 = table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841), N = the population size, the population proportion (assumed to be .50 because this will offer the most sample size) and d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05) (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970: p.607 as cited in Oguttu 2015). In the 2020-2021 academic year, the 11th grade students of the schools surveyed was 140. Therefore, a sample of 100 students was extracted to represent the population. This procedure provided a sample size distribution large enough to manage the selected tools. Researchers selected subjects by lottery using a simple random sample.

TABLE 1
DETERMINING SAMPLE SIZE FROM A GIVEN POPULATIONS

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	287	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Note: N is the Population size
S –is the sample size

C. Instruments

The study employed reading comprehension tests and comprehension-based silent reading fluency tests as instruments of data collection. The reading comprehension and CBSR tests were employed to examine the relationship between students' reading comprehension and comprehension-based silent reading fluency. A 40-item reading comprehension test was applied using true/false, matching headings questions, matching vocabulary meanings in context, and multiple-choice questions. As the purpose of this test was to assess general reading proficiency, the researchers employed the reading proficiency criteria to examine grade 11 students' expected reading standards. In addition, the researcher applied a standardized test adapted from Cambridge Preparation for the TOEFL online test (2014: p. 26) that measures students' reading comprehension skills.

As a complement, the Flesch-Kincaid readability formula was chosen to evaluate the reading complexity of the reading comprehension test. It was fixed in Microsoft Word's spelling and grammar was easily calculated. To enable the readability statistics, the researcher used MS Office Word 2010 in this study. Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level = $0.39 \times \text{ASL} + 11.8 \times \text{ASW} - 15.59$. ASL = average sentence length (number of words divided by the number of sentences) (Asad, 2017). ASW = average number of syllables per word (the number of syllables divided by the number of words) (DuBay, 2006). Grounded in Flesch-Kincaid, the text was analyzed using the number of words, sentences, and syllables in the text. Additionally, the researcher checked the reliability of the reading comprehension test. A frequently used version of the K-21 formula was as follows: Where K is the number of items on the test, M is the mean of the set of test scores, and SD is the standard deviation of the test scores (Irawan 2013). Therefore, the statistics of frequency are as follows.

TABLE 2
PRE-PILOT STUDY READING COMPREHENSION TEST DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive Statistics	Value
Mean	32.44
Std. Deviation	11.649

As shown in Table 2 above, the number of cases valid is 50 & the numbers of items is 40. Further, the mean and standard deviation scores on the same test are 32.44 and 11.649 consistently. There were no missing values. From the table, it is possible to calculate the reliability of the reading comprehension test. $\frac{k}{k-1} \left[1 - \frac{M \sum K - M^2}{K(SD^2)} \right]$ K=40 M=32.44

$SD=11.649 = \frac{40}{40-1} \left[1 - \frac{32.44(7.56)}{40(11.649^2)} \right] = \frac{40}{39} \left[1 - \frac{32.44(40-32.44)}{40(135.699201)} \right] = \frac{40}{39} \left[1 - \frac{245.2464}{5427.96804} \right] = 1.0256410(1-0.04518199) = (1.0256410)(0.954818009) = 0.98$ Thus, there is strong internal consistency for the test in the way that participants responded to multiple items on the scale of the reading comprehension

In addition, the researchers adapted a reading fluency test to the aims of the web plus silent reading fluency, which measures the rate of reading grade-level text with comprehension. Its content consists of texts (stories) written and administered on the screen. The researchers informed the students to be ready to read from the screen at a given time, and they answered the multiple-choice questions without looking back at the screen. The reading text was broken into segments with a question following each segment. The text was written at grade level using reading maturity matrices. In this study, 100 eleventh-grade students were asked to read a 574-word text divided into eight sections. They read a text about Indian marriage in a group setting where the observer recorded the time. Immediately after reading each section, students answered the four-choice comprehension questions (Heibert & Daniel, 2019).

The text was divided into eight segments of 47 to 100 words, and each segment was followed by comprehension questions. The segment was to reduce memory demands and increase the number of independent rate measurements. Directions were given, followed by instructions to work quickly but carefully since students had not looked back at the text when answering the questions. After reading each segment, the observer clicked the next button and saw a new screen with the option questions about the segment. Questions were designed to see whether students understood the gist (Heibert & Daniel, 2019). The rating score for the text was median WPM, and students were likely to answer seven out of ten (75%) questions correctly. Tolerant responses account for 75% of correct answers (Pearson, 2015). The test was as quick and easy to use as possible. Time given to assessment was usually taken away from instruction. Fluency has three levels: word level, sentence level, and passage level. The researchers tested the students with measures of comprehension based on silent reading fluency. Administering the comprehension-based silent reading was to measure the rate of reading at grade level text and computer-administered. It is reliable, valid, and sensitive to growth. Therefore, the researcher determined the level of students' reading by the percentage of words a reader had read correctly (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Deno, 1982, as cited in Rasinski, 2004).

Flesch-Kincaid, Grade Level was used to test the readability rate of the texts. The Flesch-Kincaid readability tests indicate how difficult a passage in English is to grasp (Flesch, 2006). The researchers had two common reasons for measuring readability: to develop the instrument (reading passage) and to apply the language. Readability, as it is practical in document design, is concerned with such matters as sentence line length, white space, font type, and the like. Readability as applied to language is concerned with the understandability of a piece of written text (Sutopo, 2019). It is crucial because it goes to the very heart of our professional ethics. Therefore, the researchers used MSW (Microsoft Word 2010) to calculate the readability statistics for the reading passage. In which case the numbers that MSW generates automatically with the word count. The Flesch-reading ease test scores out of 100% based on its readability. The reading test has a score of 58.9. Flesch-reading ease and Flesch-Kincaid grade level 9.0. A mark of 50–70 means that the content is at the right level for 9th grade or above grade reading level. The table below shows the interpreted scores.

TABLE 3
FLESCH-KINCAID EQUATION MICROSOFT READABILITY PROGRAM

Score	Notes	Grade level
1 90.0-100.0	Easily understood by an average of 11 year- old students	7 th -8 th
2 60.0-78.0	Easily understood by an average of 13 to 18 year- old	9 th -10 th
3 00.30.0	Best understood by above 19 year- old	11 th -12 th

According to Nation (2005), readers should score at least seven out of ten on a comprehension test for careful silent reading. Note, learners should decrease their reading speed and read more texts at a similar level until they improve their reading (p.131–44). Floencio (2004) explained the effects of time controls on comprehension with secondary school and college students under three conditions: one, no pressure (90wpm), next, mild time pressure (130wpm), and last, severe time pressure (300wpm)(Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods (2011). Gordon (2007) strongly suggests that reading rate and comprehension are not two separate elements in the reading process. Reading rate refers to the speed of reading comprehension. To measure the effective reading rate of EFL students, Gordon (2007, P.34) suggested the following calculation: reading rate = reading speed (words per minute) x questions square divided by 100.

TABLE 4
MEASURING READING RATE IN TERMS OF CORRECT RESPONSES ON THE COMPREHENSION TEST (DODI, 2013)

R.N	Reader	Rate (wpm)	Comprehension
1	Poor	10-100	30-50%
2	Average	200-240	50-70%
3	Functionally Literate	400	70-80%
4	Top in 100	800-1000	80%+
5	Top in 1000	1000+	80%+

(Source: Adapted from Gordon Wainwright, 2007)

Based on the Table 4, this study attempted to come up with sound conclusions based on valid data collected through appropriate instruments. Consequently, the trustworthiness of the deductions of a research study refers to its validity. In other words, legitimacy relates to whether research has achieved what it has set out to achieve (Kumar, 2006). It implies the extent to which a study captures the true meaning of the issue under investigation as a function of its validity. On the other hand, the findings of a study should be reliable to replicate with consistent results under similar conditions. The magnitude to which research is pretended was verified using similar procedures to produce consistent results at different times; circumstances refer to its reliability. Therefore, validity and reliability are vital to research concepts (Tekele, 2016).

D. Methods of Data Analysis

The researchers of the present study assessed the relationships of the variables using different statistics. Correlation coefficients are employed with data depending on the level of measurement on which each variable has measured the nature of the underlying distribution (continuous variables) the characteristics of distribution (linear) (Rudolf, William & Ping, 2006). Pearson product-moment association coefficient (r) is employed with like Likert scale as scaled test variables and reading tests as ratio variable. Besides, the researchers also used linear regression. The correlation was concerned with the magnitude and direction of the relationship. However, regression is a statistical method used to determine the strength and characteristics of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Using the data of correlation, the researcher came up with a regression equation for acting the prediction. In regression, researchers use the relationship between two variables to predict the value of one of the other variables.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Results of Reading Fluency Measures

The data of fluency measures (accuracy and rate) were analyzed using SPSS version 21 to see the association with reading grasp. The next table proves the results of the numerical analysis.

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF READING COMPREHENSION TEST, COMPREHENSION BASED SILENT READING ACCURACY LEVEL AND READING RATE

		Participants(N)	Mean(X)	Median	Mode	Std. dv
1	Reading accuracy	100	35.5	30	30	12.3
2	Reading rate	100	87	75	75	30.9
3	Reading Comp.	100	37.58	35	33	13.08

Table 5 above depicts the output of the data. The mean, median, and mode of accuracy levels are 35.50, 30, and 30 correspondingly. These three measures of central values are in close agreement, indicating that the middle of the distribution happens to be the midpoint of the comprehension-based silent reading accuracy level. The standard deviation of the reading comprehension test (13.08) indicates the variability of the comprehension test on average of about two points from the mean. Measures of the central tendency of reading rate show that mean, median, and mode (87, 75, 75.). This statistical output does provide some initial evidence that accuracy level and reading rate are significant; there was no much change in the standard deviation of reading rate. The standard deviation of the reading rate was 30.87 which shows a variability level on reading speed on average about two and a half points from the mean.

TABLE 6
FREQUENCY TABLE OF ACCURACY LEVEL OF COMPREHENSION BASED SILENT READING

R.N	Range of accuracy	frequency	percent
1	10-30	60	60%
2	31-50	30	30%
3	51-70	10	10%
4	71-90	-	-
5	91-100	-	-
6	Total	100	100%

Examination of the frequency table of accuracy level (Table 6) approves that the highest frequency score on reading test accuracy level was between 51-- 70 (10 students, or 10% of students attain adequate level of correct responses y, 90% of students did not attain an adequate level of correct responses on the comprehension test. Students' score is expected 75% accuracy at reading the text segments (words per minute.)

TABLE 7
FREQUENCY TABLE OF THE READING RATE OF COMPREHENSION BASED SILENT READING

R. No	Reading rate	frequency	percent
1	25 -50	17	17
2	75-100	67	67
3	101-125	5	5
4	150-175	11	11
5	Total	100	100

Table 7 depicts that 17% reading rate of grade 11 students is in a range between 25-50 words per minute. During this reading, the construction of meaning occurs while students are reading. The rating score based on time spent on reading the text is conditional on comprehension (Hiebert et al., 2018). In addition, the data presented from a study of comprehension-based silent reading rates 67% of students ranged from 75-100 words per minute silently with comprehension. Only 16 % of students read at a rate ranging between 101-175 WPM of comprehension-based silent reading. There was a deprived relationship between the rate at which readers recognized words in reading and their construction of meaning. The backgrounds and causes for students' patterns of underprivileged comprehension need additional investigation. The table also depicts 15 % of the students were average readers.

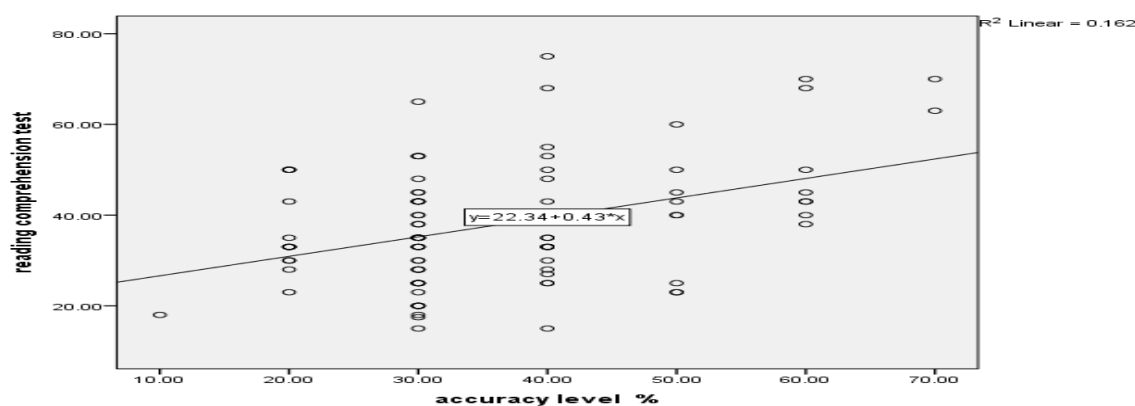


Figure 1: Scatter Plot: Accuracy Level with Reading Comprehension

In the scatter plot Figure 1 above, the horizontal axis displays students reading accuracy levels; the vertical axis shows comprehension test scores. Each dot on the scatter plot represents students' responses from the data set. The location of each point on the graph depends on both reading accuracy and comprehension test scores. Students with higher accuracy level scores are located further to the right, and students with higher comprehension test scores are situated higher up on the graph. For example, only two students answered 70 correctly out of 100 that is 70% accurately. Thus, these students are less accurate, and they are using much effort to achieve optimal comprehension and reading at a frustration level. Only two students attained 70 and 1 student 75 out of 100 on the reading comprehension test.

The scatter plot also confirms that there is a moderate increase in students reading comprehension scores as the reading accuracy increases. Its relationship was linear. In addition, the square of the correlation coefficient (R^2) was 0.162. The proportion of the variation in the reading comprehension test is accounted for by the variation in accuracy level. The percentage of the variation in reading comprehension explained by students' accuracy level (R^2 is 0.162) is 16.2 percentages. When its value ranges from zero to one, it is in ratio form. R^2 close to zero shows no linear relationship, whereas a value close to one shows a perfect linear fit.

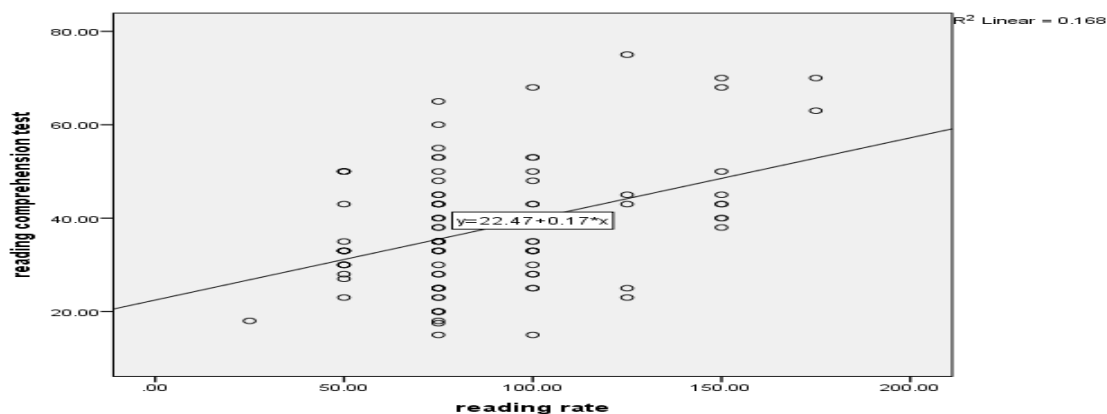


Figure 2: Students Reading Comprehension Test Score and Reading Rate

The scatter plot shown in Figure2 above depicts a moderate increase in students reading comprehension scores as the reading rate increases. Its relationship is linear. The location of each point on the graph depends on both reading rate and comprehension test scores. Students with higher reading rates are located further to the right; comprehension test scores are set higher up on the graph. For example, only two students' reading rate is 175 words per minute (wpm). Taylor rated e students to read 234 WPM at grade 11 level, which is grade equivalent. As per Table 7, grade equivalents for rates in standard-length words per minute these students are about grade 7 level reading ability.

B. Relationship between Rate, Fluency and Comprehension

TABLE 8
PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

R.no			accuracy level	reading rate	comprehension test
1	accuracy level %	Pearson Correlation	1	.885**	.402**
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
		N	100	100	100
2	reading rate	Pearson Correlation	.885**	1	.410**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
		N	100	100	100
3	comprehension test	Pearson Correlation	.402**	.410**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
		N	100	100	100

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8 portrays the correlation between reading comprehension test scores and reading fluency measures (accuracy and reading rate). Reading accuracy level and reading rate are correlated strongly ($r = .885$, $P < 0.01$). However, silent reading fluency (SRF) had a moderate correlation with the reading comprehension test. The reading rate and accuracy had a strong positive correlation ($r = .885$, $p < 0.01$) with reading comprehension of $r = .410$. These results suggest that silent reading rate and accuracy levels are valid measures of reading ability when students read silently with comprehension. When reading rate and accuracy increases, so do their reading comprehension. This interpretation in no way implies causality increases in reading fluency measures caused by increased reading comprehension. The significant relationship merely indicates that the two variables' covariance.

C. The Degree of Reading Fluency to Predict Comprehension

1. Reading Accuracy

The researchers of this study used simple linear regression to examine the relationship between students' comprehension-based silent reading fluency and their reading. The prediction used for Simple linear regression analysis produced regression equations. A statistical test performed regarding the slope (α) of the regression line was to evaluate how well a set of data fits a simple linear regression model. The hypothesis is as follows: $H_0: \beta = \text{zero}$ (there is no linear relationship between students' comprehension-based silent reading accuracy level and reading comprehension) $H_1: \beta \neq 0$ (there is a linear relationship between students' comprehension-based silent reading accuracy level and reading comprehension).

TABLE 9
LINEAR REGRESSION OUTPUT FOR ACCURACY LEVEL

					Predictors: (Constant), reading accuracy Coefficients			
					Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	
Model Summary					B	Std. error	B	
	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error				
R								t
0.402 ^a	0.162	0.153		12.04	22.34	3.70		6.02
								Sign
					Constant			0.00
					Reading	0.09	0.402	4.34
					Comp.	0.42		0.00

a. Dependent Variable: Reading Comprehension Test

To create a prediction equation the researchers used SPSS. So, the prediction equation is $Y' = A + BX$, where Y' = the predicted dependent variable, A = Constant, B = un standardized regression coefficient, and X = value of the predictor variable (Ho, 2006). To make this prediction, the researcher used the reading accuracy. The reading accuracy would be one independent variable (X) variable (Rudolf, William & Ping, 2006). The relevant information for constructing a prediction equation has existed in the coefficient table (Table:9) (Cowan,1998).To predict the students reading comprehension scores from their reading accuracy level, the researcher used the value presented in the unstandardized coefficient column of Table 9. Using the constant and B (unstandardized coefficient) values, the prediction equation $Y =$

0.429 reading comprehension test, $X = 22.340$ accuracy level. So, the equation $Y = .429 * X + 22.34$. X represents the previous reading accuracy level.

Therefore, the researchers predicted for an accuracy level of (X) 99%. Thus, $.429 \times 99 + 22.34 = 64.811$. The predicted result of the reading comprehension test scores the researchers expected from students whose reading accuracy of 99% would be 64.81 correct responses on the comprehension test from 100%. A measure of the computed equation is R-square, sometimes called the coefficient of determination-square (Amulya, 2019). It is simply the square of multiple correlation coefficients listed under R- in the model summary table. Besides, it represents the proportion of variance accounted for in the dependent variable (reading comprehension). In simple regression, where there is only one predictor variable, the multiple R is equivalent to the simple r (Pearson product-moment correlation) (San, 2011). The coefficients for this are 0.402, and the R square is 0.162. Thus, in this sample, the predictor variable of reading accuracy level has explained 16.2 % of the variance in the dependent variable of reading comprehension (Rudolf, William & Ping, 2006). The coefficient table presents the standardized Beta coefficient between the predictor variable (reading accuracy level) and the dependent variable (students reading comprehension score). The Beta coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 0.05 level. Thus, the higher the comprehension-based silent reading accuracy level, the higher their reading comprehension tests score, $Beta = 0.402$, $t = 4.35$, $p < 0.05$. The standard coefficient of 0.402 is identical to the multiple regression coefficients.

2. Reading Rate

The researcher used simple linear regression to examine the relationship between one predictor (independent) variable – comprehension-based silent reading fluency measures (reading rate) and a single quantitative response (dependent variable) reading comprehension test in this study. Simple linear regression analysis produces regression equations for prediction. A simple linear regression model statistical test was performed regarding the slope (α) of the regression line to assess the appropriateness of data. The hypothesis is as follows:

H0: $\beta = 0$ (there is no linear relationship between reading rate and comprehension)

H1: $\beta \neq 0$ (there is a linear relationship between reading rate and comprehension)

TABLE 10
READING RATE AND READING COMPREHENSION TEST

Model Summary		Adjusted R	Std. Error	Predictors: (Constant), reading rate Coefficients					
R	R ²			Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			
				B	Std. error	B	t	Sig.	
0.41	0.168	0.159	11.99	Constant	22.46			6.23	0.00
				Reading com.	0.174	0.41	0.41	4.44	0.00

a. Dependent Variable: Reading Comprehension Test

To create a prediction equation the researchers used SPSS in order to predict a reading comprehension. So, the prediction equation is $Y' = A + BX$, where Y' = the predicted dependent variable, A = Constant, B = unstandardized regression coefficient, and X = value of the predictor variable (Rudolf, William & Ping, 2006). To make this prediction, the researcher used the reading rate. The reading rate would be one independent variable (X) variable. The relevant information for constructing a prediction equation exists in the coefficient table (Table: 10). To predict the students reading comprehension scores from their reading rate, the researchers used the value presented in the unstandardized coefficient column (Rudolf, William & Ping, 2006). Using constant and B (unstandardized coefficient) values prediction equation (Rudolf, William & Ping, 2006) would be $Y = 0.174 \text{ reading comprehension test, } X = 22.466 \text{ reading rate}$. So, the equation $Y = 0.174 * X + 22.466$. X represents the students' previous reading rate. Therefore, the researchers predicted for silent reading rate with comprehension of (X) 237 wpm thus, $0.174 \times 237 + 22.466 = 63.704$. The projected result of students reading comprehension test scores the researcher expected from the students who have reading rate with comprehension of 237 wpm would be 63.704 correct responses on the comprehension test out of 100. A measure of the strength of the computed equation is R-square called the coefficient of determination. R-square is actually the square of the multiple correlation coefficients indexed under R in the model summary table. It represents the proportion of variance responsible for the dependent variable reading comprehension test by the predictor variable (Amulya, 2019). The multiple regressions is equivalent to the multiple R (Pearson product-moment correlation) (San, 2011). Thus, the multiple correlation coefficients are .410, and the R-square is .168. Thus, for this sample, the predictor variable reading rate has explained 16.8% of the variance in the dependent variable of reading comprehension test score.

D. Discussion

However, the construct of fluency might also were left out in the past (the neglected reading goal and was a critical variable for reading success, yet it is often ignored in reading curricula.) it is receiving plenty deserved interest presently. Rasinski, Nageldinger, and Paige (2015) for instance reported despite its importance, fluency continued to be miss understood, both in research and in practice. Supporting the same idea, Games, Jacob, Horest, and Unlu (2008) noticed that fluency continues to be neglected in reading classroom. Very robust studies and theoretical base shows that at the same time as fluency is not always sufficient to make sure excessive ranges of reading comprehension achievement, fluency is essential for that achievement, as it depends on and typically displays comprehension. Pikulski

and Chard (2005) reported fluency as a bridge between word recognition accuracy and reading comprehension. Ming and Dukes (2008), stress fluency as an essential element of comprehensive reading in an inclusive classroom.

If a reader has no longer developed fluency, the process of interpreting words drains attention, and inadequate attention is available for building the meaning of texts. The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000) identified fluency as one of the five key elements necessary to become a proficient reader in its National Reading Group report. These components include: a) speech, b) phoneme awareness, c) fluency, d) vocabulary, and e) understanding. For many teachers, teaching reading is mainly an exercise of meaning or understanding (Rasinski, 2003a). Focusing on a certain aspect of reading teaching can actually hinder reading development and ultimately lead to long-term reading difficulties for middle school students (Archer, Gleason, and Vachon, 2003; Marston, Deno, Dongil, Diment, and Rogers, 1995).

Still, there may be a shortage of research studies on developing fluency through developing the amount of independent reading; wherein large correlational evidence shows a clear association of the amount students read, their reading fluency, and their text comprehension. Paige (2020) pointed out that although reading fluency has been extensively studied as an independent reading process, it is best considered to be the result of lower level of multiple reading skills than when runs efficiently and simultaneously, resulting in smooth and expressive reading, which is crucial for text understanding. Conversely, students who are struggling with reading are not in a function to interact in reading, and they will want extra guidance and assistance so that they can increase fluency. Research suggests a few techniques, primarily based on repeated readings, to help suffering readers to enhance their fluency.

Until recently, reading fluency had not been a priority in Ethiopian reading instruction. Supporting the idea researchers argue periodic calls for a reexamination of reading fluency would not capture the attention of most reading educators (Zutell & Rasinski, 1991). That may have been due to many educators perceived fluency as nothing more than reading fast or with good oral expression (Rasinski, 2006). Neither of those regarded even remotely related to the well-accepted purpose of reading comprehension. Things begin to change when reading researchers begin to show that reading fluency is a necessary precondition for good reading comprehension (Stanovich, 1994). Most recently, the meta-analysis conducted by the national reading panel (2000) assured reading accuracy as a vital component of the reading process. In the 21st century, reading fluency has taken its place and reading comprehension as a critical component of active reading instruction. Therefore, the present study contributes the understanding of whether there is a relationship between comprehension-based silent reading fluency measures (accuracy and reading rate) with reading comprehension.

Regarding relationships, the relationship between reading fluency and reading comprehension was linear (Figure 1 and Figure 2). There is a moderate increases in students reading comprehension scores as the reading accuracy increase. The correlation between the students' reading comprehension and their reading fluency (accuracy and reading rate) is positive and statistically significant ($r = .410$, $P < 0.001$) for rate and ($r = .402$, $P < 0.001$) reading accuracy (Table 8). Therefore, the null hypothesis in this study was stated in this study as, "There is not any significant relationship between Ethiopian EFL learners' reading fluency on reading comprehension" is rejected.

The study has also found that students are being deprived of reading speed. The relationship between the speed at which the reader recognizes a word in the text and the composition of the meaning from the text is very poor (Table 4). That is, 78% of the 100 participants read 25-100 wpm (they only say 10-40). Correct answer from 100% comprehension test within a certain period of time). Correlation regression analysis showed a significant association with small effect sizes, but the results cannot be considered simply trivial. The effect size is small when the sample size is small and comfortable, or what Arnold and Feldman (1981) calls social appeal-reaction bias, that is, "hope when answering a specific question or statement. It can happen if the person who does it has to present it very positively." (P.379). In the present study, the students used cognitive resources to comprehend the texts because it was difficult for them to understand the texts automatically. Reading fluency involves not only fast and efficient processing but also the efficient coordination of items. Ethiopian grade 11 students as the study revealed lack fast application of procedures to interpreting without conscious and effortless use of fast reading strategies. This research is consistent with the research conducted by Rasinski (2004) disclosed that fluent readers can accurately and automatically decode words without using their limited attention or conscious cognitive resources. Similarly, Hibert (2015) proved that when students reading skills reached automatic stage, it could be performed without conscious thought about its execution.

However, in this study, it is difficult for students to understand texts that simultaneously learn the structure of vocabulary and grammar. Through this reading, students will be focused on deciphering the meaning of words and understanding their contents, and gradually develop the habit of reading slowly. Such students are exposed to limited comprehension; and become poor readers. Brenner et al., (2010) found that poor readers read less, approach the reading tasks with low level of motivation and interest. Rasinski et al. (2006) investigated the inability of students with limited vocabulary and background knowledge to construct meaning from passages, which led to slow and painstaking reading.

However, in most cases it is mere mechanical decoding that is mistaken for 'fluency', without any attention to comprehension. Samuels et al. (2011) suggest that we must focus on the best means to develop silent reading proficiency, which encompasses a multitude of skills needed to achieve ease and comfort, adequate reading rates, comprehension competency, and vocabulary enhancement in reading. Therefore, developing students studying fluency is fundamental to Ethiopian EFL students to transport from mastering to examine to studying to learn. That is the

competencies of the scholars to turn out to be unglued from print (deciphering process) and to pay attention at the message of the text (comprehending the writers' conversation in mind in their personal historical past understanding and energetic creation of private meanings) (Rasinski, Lavell, Smith, 2014).

Notion (2007) proposed developing language fluency as one of the four elements of a language course (meaning focused input, meaning focused output, language-focused learning and Fluency). The development of the language flow provides foreign language learners with the opportunity to process and generate languages. It is based on the language skills students have already acquired. Although fluency is important, in recent decades, development in the L1 environment has become noticeable, but this issue has not received much attention in the foreign language environment and there is still a need to develop fluency in FL. The multiple coefficients in the results of this study are 0.416 and the R square is 0.173. Therefore, in this sample the predictor variable explained 17.3% of the variance of the reading comprehension of the dependent variable. Thus, the higher the comprehension-based silent reading accuracy level, the higher their reading comprehension, Beta = 0.42, t= 4.53, p< 0.05. The standard coefficient of 0.42 is identical to the multiple regression coefficients because there is only one predictor variable besides; the higher degree of reading rate is related to a higher degree of accuracy level. It is also interesting that the correlation between the reading comprehension test and reading fluency measures was moderate and statistically significant.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

The result of this study can generally contribute to students who are not reading at grade level to read fluently, understand vocabulary and comprehend text, the assessments provide parents with a clear indication of how far away their students are from expected levels of performance. Hence, parents can understand this and have an idea of just how much ground their children have to make up to meet grade-level expectations. The investigation will also provide information on what teachers, parents, and students can do to improve their reading and thus, they will become better readers in the target language by learning, reading strategies and increasing their reading rate. More specifically, provides high-level information to teachers about the growth of students' reading fluency and performance over time and enables teachers to make informed, and data-driven teaching decisions to improve teaching and learning. It may support teachers' improvement of their understanding of the principles and concepts of teaching reading. The findings also have implications for curriculum designers. Lastly, this study may serve us an input for researchers who are interested in conducting studies on related topics.

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An Investigation of the Consequences and Imperatives for the Development of the Problem-Solving Skill of Saudi English Major Students in Online Classrooms

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Abstract—Based on the claim that problem-solving is one among other indispensable skills that 21st-century learners have to acquire and develop as it helps them face the increasingly intricate academic issues, especially at the tertiary level and due to the widespread pandemic that led to the resort to online learning as the only alternative available to guarantee the continuation of the learning process, the current work investigates the imperatives and consequences of problem-solving development in an online environment among Saudi English majors. It also examines the impact of online classrooms on Saudi academic learners and the difficulties they face. Whether online learning has provided the environment for students to thrive and develop their various skills or whether it has hindered their progress and negatively increased their reliance on technology with their skills and abilities, it also looks into the academic factor and the various impacts it has on students' language learning and skill development. 30 Saudi English majors in Jeddah University, Khulais faculty, contributed to the conduct of this research, which uses a mixed-method approach to get both the breadth and depth of the research. In addition to the study's theoretical work, it also shed light on the numerous challenges and obstacles that stand in the way of problem-solving skill development among learners.

Index Terms—problem-solving, Saudi Arabia, academic difficulties, online learning, COVID 19

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid change in the academic environment from online classrooms to shifting work requirements has made it vital to look into different qualities among individual learners (Kutlu et al., 2010). Instead of individuals who are taught only to memorize a given data as it is common in the Saudi educational system, the potentials of those who can use, challenge, and discuss given information, as well as solve problems with it, has increased significantly (Alrabai, 2016; Şentürk & Baş, 2010). Memorizing data that can be irrelevant in a short amount of time at our current rapidly advancing technology might be a thing of the past in favor of skills that enable individuals to endure, adapt, and solve problems they might face throughout their lives (Çevik, 2011). Accordingly, choosing and putting forward individuals who are skilled at problem-solving ability is one of the main goals of today's education (Kutlu et al., 2010; Çevik, 2011), and the development of such fundamental abilities and skills is critical for any modern comprehensive educational program that takes into consideration the real-world work environment, and the daily obstacles learners face during their lives. Such educational programs face a plethora of challenges in the rapidly changing academic and working environments, including the recent major shift to online learning and online workplaces caused by the COVID-19 pandemic that gave rise to numerous online platforms and applications that serve and cover the needs of learners, workers, and individuals from all walks of life. This raises many questions on the viability and usefulness of such platforms in the development of the problem-solving skill and whether our increased dependence on technology has impacted this vital skill in the Saudi Arabian academic context in more particular terms. In fact, in the traditional environment, the Saudi academic EF learners face many difficulties in academic writing and comprehension skills that hinder their academic performance (Alrabai, 2016; Alharbi, 2019).

In all fields, a problem is commonly defined as something unpleasant that deprives people of achieving their goals. The field of education is no exception, where both teachers and students frequently face different kinds of problems and are supposed to quickly solve them for the smooth continuation of the learning process. This led to the emergence of the terminology problem-solving skill, whose introduction to the classroom was as old as ancient times thanks to Socrates, who applied it. However, it was abandoned afterward till the 60s, when its revival started to take place, to receive a deeper recognition in the late 80s when it became very popular (Martinez, 1998). According to Doghonadze and Gorgiladze (2008), this skill is conceptualized as the ability to use existing knowledge and skills to address an

unanswered question or solve a troubling situation. It refers to the skill of finding the main causes of a particular problem and the ability to formulate viable solutions to overcome it.

It is worth mentioning that the revival of problem-solving is, in fact, strictly intertwined with the gradual shrink of the role of the teacher and the move in focus towards the learners who have become more and more responsible for their learning and more actively engaged in education as they take individual decisions according to their needs and preferences. As such, today's learners are expected to acquire and develop all the skills needed to help them face contemporary challenges and thus develop productive education. Problem-solving is definitely one of these skills. With the sudden move to the digital learning mode in almost all over the world, including Saudi Arabia, an investigation of the consequences and imperatives for the development of the problem-solving skill of the Saudi English major students in online classrooms makes up the focus of the present paper.

A. Statement of the Problem

Much consideration has been given to the development of the learners' problem-solving skills, which comes as a response to the different challenges the 21st-century requirements pose in the academic settings. Indeed, Rotherham and Willingham (2009) emphasized that with the bulk of the information available nowadays, the content itself is no longer important; the way of knowing and dealing with information is what really matters. The real issue that educationalists should focus on, according to the same authors, is to find out the appropriate ways to equip learners with the most suitable skills such as problem-solving and critical thinking that would allow them to reach content and thus improve their learning outcomes. With more challenges posed at the beginning of the academic year 2020 because of the emergence of coronavirus and the spread of the pandemic, which led to the total closure of the academic settings and the resort to the online teaching mode, the question of developing learners' skills becomes much more pressing. Is the online learning environment better than the traditional learning environments for the development of the problem-solving skill, or is the increased reliance on technology on our learning has negative repercussions on our mental abilities and skills such as the problem-solving one? These questions are what researchers around the world strive to answer.

B. Rationale for the Topic

With all the unprecedented circumstances caused by the widespread COVID-19 pandemic, which resulted in the total closure of schools and the resort to relatively unprepared and poorly established platforms for learning online, more charges and challenges that faced the academic institutions were added to the already existing ones. Saudi Institutions are considering the different ways possible in order to meet these challenges and help learners become well prepared and informed to succeed in their future jobs and become active members in their communities. Thus, educators are expected to equip their students with the different skills that allow them to achieve the aforementioned goals; problem-solving skills rank high in this respect.

C. Scope of the Study

Based on the claim that problem-solving is one among other indispensable skills that learners have to acquire and develop as it helps them face the increasingly intricate academic issues, especially at the tertiary level, the present research aims to identify both the consequences and the imperatives for the development of such skills among Saudi learners majoring in English who are currently taking their courses online which, in turn, confers more particularity on the study. Thus, an investigation of the consequences and imperatives for the development of the problem-solving skills among the Saudi English major students in online classrooms seems of relevance.

D. Research Questions

The current research is designed to answer the following questions:

- a. What are the problem-solving skills acquired by Saudi students when learning online?
- b. What are the consequences for the development of the problem-solving skill of Saudi English major students in online classrooms?
- c. What are the imperatives for the development of the problem-solving skill of Saudi English major students in online classrooms?
- d. How do Saudi learners' problem-solving skills develop when learning online?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In answer to the question "what is problem-solving?" Woods et al., (1997) claimed that it refers to the process followed to get the best answer to something unclear or to make a decision about a novel situation that is subject to some constraints. He postulated that the problem situation should be unknown to the learners and added that problem-solving necessitates too much mental effort. The same author stressed the difference between "problem-solving" and "exercise solving" and argued that the former term is more complicated while the latter simply indicates the recalling of standard solutions suggested to already solved problems. Problem-Solving skill is an active component in various fields from philosophy and medicine to computer science and artificial intelligence; therefore, a wide variety of definitions exists for each of these distinct fields. In the linguistic context, it refers to a conscious, inductive, and heuristic form of

learning (Bourke, 1997).

Skilled problem-solvers can easily determine the source of the problem and identify practical solutions. It is also stated that this skill itself is intertwined with other skills such as communication, creativity, critical thinking, and active listening. According to Schoenfeld (2013), Problem-solving was generally defined as attempting to achieve some outcomes when there was no known method for trying to achieve that outcome (p.10). Woods et al., (1997), on the other hand, demonstrated thirteen attributes of problem-solving skills and claimed that if the learners developed them, they would obtain the best possible answer from the resources available.

- a. While trying to solve the problem, learners should be aware of the processes being used.
- b. Learners should use “pattern matching” in order to quickly figure out if the given situation is a problem or an exercise.
- c. Learners should be able to apply a variety of strategies and heuristics.
- d. Learners should demonstrate an adequate level of accuracy.
- e. Learners should be very active in writing down ideas and creating charts and figures.
- f. Learners should show great ability in writing down ideas, creating charts and figures
- g. Learners should be able to monitor and reflect on the process to be applied in order to solve the given problem.
- h. Learners should be well organized and systematic.
- i. Learners should be flexible by conceptualizing the given situation from different perspectives.
- j. Learners should be able to draw on the pertinent information they have about the subject and assess it in an objective, critical way.
- k. Learners should display the ability and willingness to manage stressful situations and face the challenge.
- l. Once they identify the situation as a problem, learners should show their willingness to go through the process of spending time reading, collecting data, and identifying the problem.
- m. Learners should not resort to already memorized solutions for previous solutions but try to follow a particular approach to solve the present situations.

These attributes, as claimed by Woods, et al., (1997), are what characterize the different skills learners need to develop.

Hassan and Ahmad (2015) conducted a research about the availability of problem-solving skills among Saudi students in Special Education. They emphasized the importance of these skills in helping learners manage the challenging and pressing situations they face in their day-to-day lives. They argued that a skilled problem solver is someone who is able to first identify, evaluate and divide the unpleasant situations into different elements, then react faster while brainstorming the possible ways to handle and solve these situations, to end up with the analysis of results. The same authors came up with the conclusion that problem-solving mainly involves the following skills, which they consider as keys to problem-solving as “analytical ability, lateral thinking, initiative, logical reasoning, and persistence” (p.15).

When it comes to developing problem-solving skills, Gyula (2016) reckoned that the way how students end up being successful problem solvers is subject to “the ability of the teacher to gauge the abilities of the students and to fit it the level of difficulty of the problems which is vital in the course of teaching and problem-solving” (p. 2). He added that the real change lies in the hands of the learners themselves and in their willingness to indulge in the problem and solve it. He asserted that by doing this, the real achievement would take place not only at the academic level through better and significant performance in the short run but also at later stages after graduation in preparing them for future careers. Additionally, the extensive use of technology that characterizes the world today makes it indispensable for learners to acquire it so as to perform tasks related to their fields of study. The technological knowledge the students come to acquire and develop is said to help them improve their problem-solving skills.

The problem-solving process always centers around the problem. Students, during the problem-solving process, apply analytical and creative thinking skills to previous knowledge. The final outcome is generally some sort of a decision, in other words, the choosing and assessing of a solution. According to Blanchard-Fields (2007), two general types of problems exist. Those with known solutions upon which students can apply a similar methodology to one they have already used are called close-ended problems. For instance, if a student understands the single-digit method of adding two plus two create four, he would most likely be able to solve a problem that asks him to add one plus one. On the other hand, open-ended or loosely structured problems are those with multiple or uncertain solutions rather than one right answer. These kinds of problems require the ability to apply a variety of different methods and knowledge to come up with a solution. Many courses, educators, and exams show or request just the problem-solving outcomes and not the whole process that students have to go through in learning about how to reach a feasible solution. As a result, most individuals use their personal understanding to try to address open-ended issues, but the bias of limited knowledge makes it difficult for individuals to understand the trade-offs or inconsistencies that these issues present. Therefore, students need to be able to use both problem-solving abilities and an efficient inquiry mechanism to solve specific problems.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The study participants consist of thirty Saudi EFL applied linguistics majors from the University of Jeddah, Khulais branch. Participants represent a variety of age groups, schooling level, genders, EFL experience, as well as social and regional backgrounds. 21 (70 percent) of the participants were women, and 9 (30 percent) were men. About 10 (33.3 percent) aged 20 – 29 years, about 12 (40 percent) aged 30 – 40 years, about 8 (26.7 percent) aged more than 40 years. Sixty-seven percent were not traveled, and 33 percent were traveled outside the country.

B. Instruments

Two instruments are employed in collecting this study data. These were in the form of a multiple-choice questionnaire (appendix A), and an in-depth interview (appendix B).

C. Data Collection Procedure & Rationale

Study participants are to complete their tasks when they are available. The first task was the multiple-choice questionnaire which consists of four themes and twenty randomized questions that are scaled from one to five in terms of agreement. Then, the participants partake in interview questions that require short-form and long-form answers.

A mixed-method approach is adopted because combining qualitative and quantitative research allows for a more in-depth understanding of the obscure details of quantitative data, as well as a more practical and insightful analysis (Alasmari, 2020).

The questionnaire includes four themes, namely; a) proficiency and interest, which reflects the participants' desire and motivation to contribute to their field of learning a foreign language as well as their views concerning their abilities to be proficient, b) the academic side, which consists of gathering knowledge of Saudi majors' difficulties as well as determining if the university and the academic system in the country hindered their learning progress or any of their problem-solving skills, c) problem-solving, and d) online learning.

The interview is also used in order to get a better insight into how learners approach problems that could arise in their conventional learning or when they are learning online. The main focus of the interview is first on the problem-solving skills, online classrooms, the academic environment, as well as the difficulties the participants faced in their learning. In the problem-solving section, learners' prior knowledge of the problem-solving skill as well as their community interest in its development is one of the main focal points, their use and understanding of problem-solving skills are also examined in the educational setting. The online section, on the other hand, focuses on the learners' dependency of their mental skills on technology in online classrooms as well as their views and perspectives in the online learning process and if it is more relaxing than the traditional counterpart and whether that helped or hindered their mental skills developments.

In their academic environment, we look if the various academic institutions the participants went to had helped them understand and develop their mental skills, such as the problem-solving skill, as well as look into their prior experience and impressions of the academic environment and if it was an encouraging place to develop their mental skills or not. Moreover, in their difficulties section, revealing obstacles learners faced throughout their mental skills developments is the main focus of this section, and also look into their points of view on the place of the relevant issues as well as their views on what the appropriate solutions are according to them.

The interview questions and answers have two forms, first is the short-form in which participants can answer with yes or no, which should gradually increase their desire to express themselves. Then is the long-form, which gives learners a chance to answer with as much as they want; this should provide their whole perspective on all the given aspects of the questions as well as being able to share some not-so-obvious points that can be absent to researchers and observers.

D. Data Analysis & Reliability Diagnostics

The Cronbach's alpha was used to assess whether the 5 items used to measure each of the four themes on the questionnaire are reliable or not. As table 1 below indicates, proficiency and interest Cronbach's alpha were found to be 0.884, which is a high number and thus, the 5 items used to measure proficiency and interest are reliable. The same holds true for the rest of the themes as it equals 0.913 for the academic achievement, 0.946 for problem-solving, and 0.832 for online learning.

TABLE 1
VALUES OF CRONBACH'S ALPHA RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT FOR THE SURVEY SCALES

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
proficiency and interest (Items 1-5)	0.884	5
academic achievement (Items6-10)	0.913	5
problem-solving (Items 11-15)	0.946	5
online learning (Items 16-20)	0.832	5

IV. FINDINGS

Study results are divided into two main sections, quantitative and qualitative, to have the full scope and depth of the study's findings. Various methods have been utilized in the analysis process to give a clear picture of the study findings. Such methods significantly contribute to the study's validity and reliability, which will assist future research in problem-solving, students' language proficiency, academic and online learning.

A. *Quantitative Results*

Characteristics of the distributions of the participants' answers were obtained by calculating means and standard deviations for each item on the questionnaire as displayed in table 2, which also shows the information collected and analyzed by the researcher based on student's opinion towards proficiency and interest, academic achievement, problem-solving and online learning, based on 5- point Likert Scale, (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Not sure, 4= Agree, 5 = Strongly agree).

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Items	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Proficiency & Interest					
I feel I am proficient in English	30	1.00	3.00	2.0667	.63968
Learning English is very important	30	1.00	2.00	1.1333	.34575
Linguistics as a major is very interesting	30	1.00	4.00	2.0000	.78784
Learning English is hard	30	2.00	5.00	3.6333	.99943
I am interested in Learning English	30	1.00	2.00	1.3667	.49013
Academic achievement					
There are difficulties when writing academically	30	1.00	4.00	2.2000	.80516
The academic field in Saudi Arabia needs improving	30	1.00	3.00	1.5333	.68145
I like reading and writing for academic purposes	30	1.00	4.00	2.0000	.69481
Improving academic writing is necessary	30	1.00	2.00	1.4333	.50401
Academia is very important to me	30	1.00	4.00	1.7667	.85836
Problem solving					
I am good at solving problems	30	1.00	3.00	1.7000	.59596
The university improved my problem-solving ability	30	1.00	4.00	2.6333	.92786
I use problem-solving strategies for learning	30	1.00	4.00	1.9333	.69149
I am interested in Improving my problem-solving skills	30	1.00	3.00	1.8000	.61026
I think solving problems is important in learning languages	30	1.00	3.00	1.8000	.61026
Online Learning					
Online learning increased my dependence on technology	30	1.00	4.00	1.6667	.80230
My writing has improved with online learning	30	1.00	5.00	2.7000	1.05536
Online classrooms hinder my learning	30	2.00	5.00	3.4667	1.04166
Writing and reading online is more comfortable	30	1.00	5.00	2.2667	.98027
I like learning online	30	1.00	5.00	2.1000	.95953

In general, there was positive feedback from respondents in relation to proficiency and interest, with a high level of agreement for most of the items. More specifically, learning English is hard, Linguistics as a major is very interesting are rated high by the student respondents.

On the other hand, it was found that it is a big challenge for the Blackboard administration to exert all efforts needed to enhance the student's capability so as to be able to solve their problems, which is their ultimate goal, that online learning and problem solving are rated very low (Mean of 2) in general, which means that the students disagreed. As concerning academic achievement, this variable was rated very low. More specifically, the students did not agree that academia is very important to them, improving academic writing is necessary. Also, they do not like reading and writing for academic purposes.

1. *Proficiency and Interest*

This section examines learners' own perceived level of knowledge as well as their desire to learn and improve in their respective field in simple and understandable words. As is shown in the first question, the majority feel they are proficient in the English language with a total agreement of 23, which makes up 76.7 percent of the total. Only 7 are neutral and no disagreement, which indicates confidence in the language level.

This segment received 100% agreement which further indicates the informants' interest in the given language and

their field that includes learning and teaching English. In this segment, a high agreement of 83 percent is counted; however, disinterest in linguistics is still present with a 10 percent neutral and 6.7 disagreements from the overall sample. In fact, most of the participants do not believe that learning the English language is hard, with 60% disagreements and a 23.3 neutral, which further indicates interest and confidence in their field, but some agreements do exist with 16.7 of the overall percentage. The learners further demonstrated high interest in enhancing and improving their language skills and abilities with a 100% agreement rate on their interest in learning the language, which may suggest a welcoming attitude for any future improvements to their learning abilities of the language and its relevant aspects.

TABLE 3
PROFICIENCY AND INTEREST

Items	1	2	3	4	5
I feel I am proficient in English	5	18	7	0	0
Learning English is very important	26	4	0	0	0
Linguistics as a major is very interesting	7	18	3	2	0
Learning English is hard	0	5	7	12	6
I am interested in Learning English	19	11	0	0	0

2. Academia

The second central theme of the questionnaire is academia which investigates learners' perceptions, abilities, perceived achievements, and obstacles that prevent them from improving. According to the table below, a majority of participants find difficulties in academic writing, with 76.6 percent agreements and 13.3 percent uncertain. 10 percent minority do not have such difficulties; this implies the need to improve academic writing skills. On the other hand, 90 percent of the informants agree on improving the academic field in Saudi Arabia with no disagreements, while 10 percent are uncertain. This reflects their dissatisfaction with the current model and the need to improve it among academics. A vast majority of 83.3 percent do indeed like writing for academic purposes, so the difficulties in writing are not due to the lack of desire. However, 3.3 percent do not like to write for this purpose as well as 13.3 percent are uncertain. This further indicates the need for ways to improve their academic writing output with a 100 percent agreement rate. In addition, a vast majority of 86.6 percent view academia as an important aspect to them which also suggests that it is not necessarily the lack of desire that hinders them; however, 6.7 percent disagree, and another 6.7 percent are uncertain.

TABLE 4
ACADEMIA

Items	1	2	3	4	5
There are difficulties when writing academically	4	19	4	3	0
The academic field in Saudi Arabia needs improving	17	10	3	0	0
I like reading and writing for academic purposes	6	19	4	1	0
Improving academic writing is necessary	17	13	0	0	0
Academia is very important to me	13	13	2	2	0

3. Problem-solving

The third central theme is problem-solving, which investigates and examines possible variables that may affect this crucial ability growth and development among academic learners. As the table below indicates, the vast majority perceive themselves as good at solving problems with 93.4 percent agreement while 6.6 percent are uncertain. A slight majority of 53.4 percent believe that the university has improved their problem-solving ability, while 23.3 percent disagree, and the same percentage is uncertain. The table also demonstrates that learners with 86.6 percent majority use some sort of problem-solving strategies to improve their learning which shows the usefulness and importance of developing better strategies; however, 3.3 percent disagree, and 10 percent are uncertain. It is also indicated that there is an immense desire to improve and develop this essential skill with a 90 percent agreement rate and no disagreements. It may also imply students' interest in developing mental capabilities, however 10 percent uncertain. Besides, a vast majority of 90 percent think problem-solving is important when learning a language. Their view reflects the significant role problem-solving skills play in learning languages, worth noting 10 percent are uncertain.

TABLE 5
PROBLEM-SOLVING

Items	1	2	3	4	5
I am good at solving problems	11	17	2	0	0
The university improved my problem-solving ability	2	14	7	7	0
I use problem-solving strategies for learning	7	19	3	1	0
I am interested in Improving my problem-solving skills	9	18	3	0	0
I think solving problems is important in learning languages	9	18	3	0	0

4. Online Learning

The fourth central theme is online learning, which aims to identify and investigate the role online learning plays on their mental abilities and if they have difficulties in this new learning environment. As the table below displays, the vast majority of 86.7 percent believe that online learning increased their dependence on technology which may imply that there is an over-reliance on modern technology. However, a minor 3.3 percent disagree, and 10 percent are uncertain. A tiny majority of 50 percent believe online learning improved their writing output. However, we cannot conclude anything solid from this as the other 50 percent are either in disagreement or uncertain, 26.6 disagree, and 23.3 are uncertain. A great majority of 80 percent like learning online, which may imply that this new learning environment is more desirable for them; however, 10 percent disagree with that, and the other 10 are uncertain. 53.2 percent, disagree with the notion that online classrooms hinder their learning, and only 23.3 percent agree, while the other 23.3 percent are uncertain. This indicates that online classrooms may not be a challenging change for most students to adapt and overcome as it might be a much smoother change than what one may assume. In addition, a substantial majority of 73.4 percent believe that writing and reading online is more comfortable, 10 percent disagree, and 13.3 percent are uncertain. This may entail that online learning becomes a more relaxed environment than regular classrooms for the student.

TABLE 6
ONLINE LEARNING

Items	1	2	3	4	5
Online learning increased my dependence on technology	15	11	3	1	0
My writing has improved with online learning	3	12	7	7	1
Online classrooms hinder my learning	7	17	3	2	1
Writing and reading online is more comfortable	0	7	7	11	5
I like learning online	5	17	4	3	1

B. Qualitative Results the Interview

In the interview phase, there are three main variables that each has four questions; three of them can be answered with short-form answers such as yes or no, and one with only long-form answers with an unlimited number of words. The variables are Problem-solving, Academic environment, and Online learning.

In the first variable, the first short-form question asks if the participants ever sensed the significance of problem-solving skills during their study years; the majority stated “yes” while a minority of four stated “no”. In the second question, which asks if the schools they attended showed some interest in their ability to solve problems, the majority also states “yes” while a minority of five stated “no”. And in the third question that asks if they ever used any problem-solving strategy in their studies; the majority answered with “yes” while a minority of five stated “no”. The last question of the problem-solving variable is a long-form one that asks if there is interest among their community in developing problem-solving skills: the majority are in disagreement, generally stating there is no interest in the problem-solving skill in their communities. However, a minority of four answered in agreement, one of them stating, “As one of the 21-century learning skills, it has become evident that society in general has taken an interest in problem-solving among other skills” and another stating, “Yes, as educational institutions have recently prepared courses to solve educational problems by developing appropriate plans and strategies that help in developing educational skills”.

In the second variable, the first short-form question asks if the university environment developed their problem-solving abilities; half of the participants disagree with that, and the other half agree, no clear majority here. The second long-form question asks, with their previous experiences in mind, was the university environment nourishing their problem-solving skill development; the majority are in disagreement, some of them stating, “No, universities have nothing to do with developing problem-solving skills, but rather personal motivation and mental ability” as well as “I do not think so ... I gained the skill of solving problems from life experiences more than studying itself” while a minority of five are in agreement, one of them stating “Yes, the university prepared a domain under the name of the Student Council to listen to the problems of male and female students and solve them”. The third question, which is a short-form one, asks whether the universities in Saudi Arabia gave them the opportunity to develop problem-solving skills at any point; the majority stated “no” while a minority of nine stated “yes” which may indicate an opportunity for the development of their mental skills is needed. And the last short-form question asks whether they believe there are obstacles to developing their problem-solving skills in the university environment; the majority stated “yes” while a minority of eleven stated “no” this may imply the need for universities to give the students more chances to express the obstacles they face and solve them.

In the third variable, the first short-form question asks whether online learning affected their ability to solve problems; the majority answered with “no” while a minority of ten stated “yes”. The second short-form question asks if online learning made it easy for them to identify and solve their study problems; the overwhelming majority stated “yes” while a minority of five stated “no” which may indicate the mental benefits that online learning technology may bring. The third short-form question asks whether the online learning environment increased their reliance on technology with their cognitive skills; the majority answered with “yes” while a minority of seven stated “no” which may indicate students' self-awareness of the increasing mental reliance on modern technology. The final long-form question asks whether they think online learning has positive qualities for their mental abilities; the majority are in

agreement, some of them stating, “Of course, because with online learning I gained problem-solving ability. Apart from that, it is calmer and gives me a chance to focus on my abilities, strengths and weaknesses” as well as “Yes absolutely; I have developed many skills to use technology for education” while a tiny minority of three are in disagreement one of them stating “Face to face interaction is much more engaging to the mind of the learner”.

V. DISCUSSION

Problem-solving skill development in Saudi majors’ online classrooms was investigated, and the results showed high confidence in their language levels as well as in their mental abilities. It reveals obstacles and difficulties learners face in the academic environment. Results also showed their high dissatisfaction with the current Saudi academic process and environment. Learners were also found to hold positive views of online classrooms as they cited numerous benefits on their academic and mental skills, such as the Problem-solving. Findings of the current research are somewhat in line with Tuzlukova & Usha-Prabhukanth (2018)’s which foregrounded the significance of mental skills such as critical thinking and the benefits it can provide, including students’ increased self-confidence. It is worth noting, however, that multiple factors might be at play here, which can have an influence on our results, such as the fact that the majority of the respondents are females, as well as the largest age group being over thirty, and that some of the respondents indeed traveled outside Saudi Arabia to English speaking countries which may not reflect a complete representation of the country’s educational output in the English language side of this study.

Findings also revealed an almost unanimous agreement and desire (92%) from the part of the participants to improve their mental skills, such as their problem-solving ability, as well as developing their academic writing, online classrooms, and language learning. Nonetheless, there is also an almost unanimous disagreement on English language learning being hard or online classroom hindering their learning. These general perspectives may also reflect that the online environment is more comfortable and less anxious to learn than traditional classrooms.

In terms of proficiency and interest, nearly all participants showed a high degree of confidence in their English language ability; thus, the lack of motivation may not be an influential factor in this context. They also agreed on the importance of learning foreign languages such as the English language, which they do not perceive as challenging to learn and understand. This explains the high disagreement among them about the English language being hard.

As far as the academic side is concerned, findings showed that learners are having difficulties in their academic life, as well as some dissatisfaction with the current Saudi academic system and institutions. However, a high degree of interest in the improvement and advancement of their academic abilities, such as their writing for academic purposes, was reported. In fact, the majority of participants had challenges when writing academically; in the Arab FLL context, it sides with numerous studies around this issue in recent years (Al Fadda, 2012, Al Murshidi, 2014), which can be linked to multiple factors, including educational, motivational, and even a social one (Al Khairy, 2013) as well as to other know well-studied issues when learning foreign languages such as code-mixing and language transfer.

When it comes to problem-solving, the participants articulated high confidence in their problem-solving ability, with the majority (93.3%) believing they are good with their ability to solve any given problem. They slightly agreed on the belief that universities are an aiding factor in their problem-solving skill improvements. Broad problem-solving strategies are numerous, as asserted previously in the literature review section; however, it is not unfathomable that a learner comes up with his own unique problem-solving strategy, which was the case here with the majority of participants stating that they indeed use problem-solving strategies in their learning. In addition, an overwhelming majority of the participants also expressed their interest in improving their problem-solving abilities. This outcome is constant with Samson (2015)’s conclusion that the majority of students have a high interest in problem-solving in their learning.

As for online learning, most of the participants acknowledged that it indeed increased their dependence on technology. Evidently, the increased reliance on technology is hard to deny in the educational sector, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic. Total shutdowns in Saudi Arabia forced the majority of all educational institutions to go online. With students studying at home, the need for more modern technology in all aspects of their learning has become a must; this reliance can have multiple psychological effects on the learners’ mental skills and abilities, as numerous recent studies showed (Irawan, Dwisona & Lestari, 2020; Saddik, et al., 2020). Which can negatively impact their problem-solving development; nonetheless, half of the participants agreed that online learning improved their writing. This can be due to more time available when learning at home to further develop the various skills and abilities that help in the learning process. The most disagreement was on the notion that online classrooms hindered learning, which is not their belief. This also further indicates the positive view learners have on the online learning environment. Participants also overwhelmingly agreed that reading and writing online is more comfortable; this demonstrates that wiring and reading online might have less anxiety involved than in the traditional way of reading and writing. It further shows how preferable online classrooms are, as the majority also stated that they like learning online. These findings are confirmed through the results obtained from the interview. Indeed, the majority of participants expressed their views on the significance of problem-solving skills in an academic and linguistic context; this shows that they prefer the online classroom environment and cited the numerous benefits it provided for them in learning and developing their mental skills. Also, most of the students reported negatively on the Saudi academic and university environment in the development of their mental skills, such as the problem-solving skill. Academically, they reported difficulties and

obstacles within the academic system and environment that hinder their learning and problem-solving skill development. Mixed responses on if the university helped develop their mental skills were reported. This reflects the multiple challenges the academic system is facing, which is in line with numerous studies on this issue (Alharbi, 2019). In addition, most of the participants showed that their communities lack interest in and have knowledge of the problem-solving skill.

VI. LIMITATIONS

Despite its informing findings, the current work is confounded by a number of issues, namely; the scarcity of references and related literature: despite its particularity, the current research suffers from the lack of documents that link the three variables under focus, namely; problem- solving skills, their development, and the online setting which lays the ground for more contemporary researches to be carried out in order to enrich the literature on the topic. In addition, carrying out the research with online instruments, namely online questionnaires and interviews may affect the students' responses and reduce the reliability of results. Thus, using a third data collection instrument would have conferred more validity on the findings obtained. Lastly, the subjects contributing to this research are 30 students majoring in English. Choosing one category of Saudi students in a limited setting, the Khulais branch (Jeddah University), which may constitute a shortcoming of the study that prevents the results from being generalized.

VII. CONCLUSION

The work presented in this study suggests multiple conclusions regarding learners' language proficiency, interest, academic environment, problem-solving ability, and online learning. In their language proficiency, the data shows high confidence among learners in their language learning ability. Therefore, the lack of confidence may not have a substantial role in their problem-solving development with the given context. Moreover, the data reveals the learners' high interest in their language learning and online learning. This indicates that it may not be learners' lack of interest that hinders their progress. However, in the academic environment, learners showed considerable discontent citing the numerous challenges and difficulties they faced. These difficulties may be one of the main factors that hampered their problem-solving ability. This indicates a crucial need for further independent research on these difficulties that may lead to the root cause of one of the main challenges to learners' problem-solving development. Moreover, it was also found that learning online is more desirable and comfortable for students. The relaxed environment of online classrooms may positively impact learners' mental skills development, such as their problem-solving ability.

It is imperative for universities to address the numerous challenges learners face to create an environment where they can communicate and recognize the difficulties they encounter during their learning. Recognizing and identifying the challenges they face is one of the first steps to developing students' various skills and abilities. This includes having a place where students can easily present the difficulties they face, as well as having the means to resolve them rapidly. It is also important to note that these difficulties may not be due to the lack of involvement but rather to the overinvolvement of college administrations that may have complicated students' learning. It is critical for universities to be transparent with their students and not stand in the way of their development. In order to better understand the learning challenges that hinder students' problem-solving ability not only in the academic context but also in their daily lives, we should always provide the opportunity for them to express these difficulties that discourage any further development of their skills.

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Communicative Skills Through Corporate Storytelling Video: Students' Perception

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Abstract—In this era of advanced technology, students must be equipped with essential skills for success in today's world; critical thinking, problem solving, collaboration and communication. Having a successful communication does not only refer to success in delivering information, but also how it has engaged the audience. Corporate storytelling is a communication strategy in presenting a company's brand and values to an audience using narrative techniques. Using corporate storytelling video as an English language competency course can offer activities that assist students to use their creativity in presenting ideas and expressing opinions confidently. This paper presents students' perception on the effectiveness of these activities in enhancing their communicative skills through a survey questionnaire. The data were obtained from 227 students who took the Corporate Storytelling course through a questionnaire survey with the inclusion of open-ended comments distributed at the end of the semester. The findings show that the students perceive the activities to have improved their reading, writing, listening, speaking skills, presentation skills, critical thinking, and creativity. It is also found that the activities have helped the students to interpret the message in the video and to give their reaction to the video. The activities are also perceived to have boosted their motivation to use English to enhance their communicative skills.

Index Terms—corporate storytelling video, communicative skills, storyboard, video response presentation

I. INTRODUCTION

The increase in volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (VUCA) in our world today has called for a need to equip students with the 21st century skills. Critical thinking, communication, technology, flexibility, leadership, and initiative are among the 21st century skills that should enable students to stay competitive in a changing job market. In Malaysia, employer surveys have repeatedly found that even though our young graduates are hardworking and possess the fundamental knowledge and skills in their own fields, they lack language proficiency, especially in English, and shortcomings in communication which hinder employment prospects (Lee, 2020). Communicating in English is an essential component as English is an international working language. The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013-2025 stipulates that each learner equips himself/herself with the necessary skills and is independently proficient in English language as defined by the Common European framework of References (CEFR) for languages.

The CEFR is the prevailing international standard for the teaching and learning of languages. It identifies three broad levels of language proficiency namely Basic (A1 and A2), Independent (B1 and B2) and Proficient (C1 and C2). According to English Language Education Reform in Malaysia: The Roadmap (2015-2025), the target level for university students to graduate is at B2; that is for students to achieve the independent level. At this level, students have a greater chance to secure a job and to function adequately using English. As there is a need for undergraduates exiting the university to be at CEFR B2, it is important that they have good communicative skills. This had triggered the initiative to design a corporate storytelling English module, to equip the students with the needful English language competency in their communicative skills for workplace in the industry.

According to Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis, language is acquired by receiving comprehensible input. Studies have shown that in watching movies, students are exposed to comprehensible input such as real language and non-verbal linguistics elements in contexts. The story usually gives an element of curiosity during the learning process and encourages watching and listening that can increase students' interest in their learning. Storytelling has become more relevant nowadays as Fisher (2021) states that storytelling is perhaps the single most important skill for the younger generation to have in this 21st century. Storytelling works on language skills in an engaging, and contextualised way, stimulating students' interest in listening to stories as well as speaking, writing, and reading about them (Lucarevski, 2017). Nowell (2019) poses that, students can use commercials to help them make links between their classrooms and the real world.

Since movies and commercials have been found to be valuable resources in language teaching, the researchers have used corporate storytelling video, a type of commercial or short movie, as a learning tool for their Corporate Storytelling course. Corporate storytelling is one of the communication strategies in the industry that aims at enhancing market engagement. This skill of presenting a brand through a story is crucial in capturing customers' attention for a business, be it small or corporate.

II. THE CONCEPT OF USING CORPORATE STORYTELLING VIDEO

The advanced development in technology has provided new opportunities and methods for enhancing the process of teaching and learning (Lertola, 2019). In this Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) era, students are familiar with various technologies and tools of the digital age. It is therefore expected for the teaching and learning to integrate these tools.

Movie is an audio-visual tool that stimulates people to see and hear that can motivate students to watch for skills improvement (Liando et al., 2018). Movies or short films are authentic materials that can provide lessons that are fun. Films give a visual context to students to help them understand better, making them an invaluable language teaching material (Yilmas, 2020). Mirvan (2013) poses that watching films give more sensory experience than reading materials because films provide colour, movement and sound accompanying the verbal communication. In other words, students can grasp the different expressions and intonations that express different meanings.

Storytelling conveys information in words, images, and sounds that should help to enhance social competencies. This is beneficial for the students when they go out working in the corporate world. Corporate storytelling video is a short film that delivers information through stories. There are four aspects that must be incorporated in a corporate storytelling video: (i) having a 'hero' in the story (ii) a strong story plot (iii) drama and twist and (iv) a solution and message. This makes corporate storytelling video similar to a movie except that it is not as lengthy as a movie, with a duration of usually less than 10 minutes. As this corporate storytelling video is real world material, it is appropriate to be used as a learning stimulus. Through corporate storytelling, we can engage the students and facilitate meaningful learning.

More and more large and small brands are engaging storytelling mode in their content marketing as the key to attract and retain customers (Pulizzi, 2012). This means that there are many corporate storytelling videos available online that the students can choose for the purpose of this course. The use of the videos is supported with structured activities that can help students to develop all four communicative skills. The tasks, activities, and guidance should help the students to enhance their critical thinking skills among others, to meet the learning goals and course outcomes. As Buehl (2013) states, classroom strategies or innovative ideas are needed to support learning for students with diverse learning needs.

Thus, this study aims to investigate students' perception on the effectiveness of the activities developed from the corporate storytelling video in enhancing their communicative skills. The two activities developed for this course are creating a storyboard and giving a response on the corporate storytelling video.

III. METHODOLOGY

Since several studies have posed the benefits of using movie as a language tool and the importance of storytelling in language learning, the researchers decided to combine these two aspects by using corporate storytelling video in this course. The course incorporated structured activities in its tasks as a process for students to acquire respective skills using corporate storytelling videos. These skills were acquired through the use of language skills in completing the tasks in the activities. The framework is as illustrated in Fig. 1.

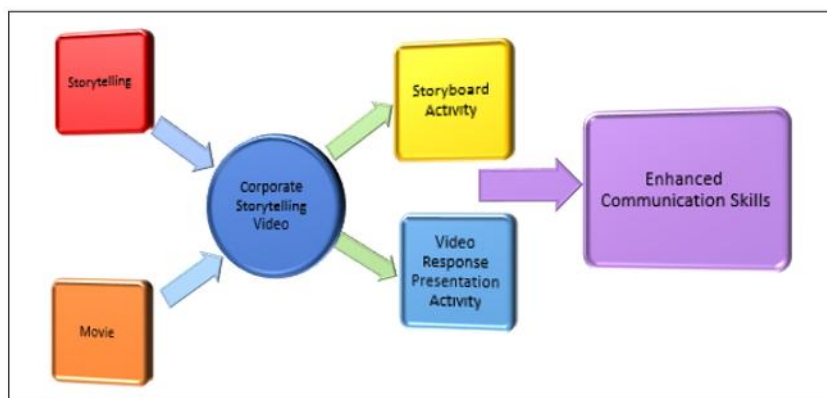


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

A. Data and Sampling

The respondents for this study were 227 students who had enrolled in the Corporate Storytelling course and had responded to the questionnaire survey. These students were generally of the CEFR A2 (basic user) and B1 (independent user) levels of competency who have completed two prior English proficiency courses. The Corporate Storytelling course is an enhancement course.

The data were collected through a questionnaire which investigated their perception on the teaching and learning of Corporate Storytelling course. The questionnaires were initially distributed to 845 students at the end of the course and 227 responded. This constituted a response rate of 27% approximately. The respondents in this study were undergraduate students from various faculties, male and female between the ages of 20-22. Their level of proficiency was lower intermediate to intermediate. The study took place over a period of 14 weeks.

B. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into two parts excluding the demographic information. The former included questions on the course, and the latter focused on the activities derived from the corporate storytelling video. It covered the perception on the activities on statements of items with level of agreement in a four-point Likert scale statements from 'Definitely Disagree' to 'Definitely Agree'. The questionnaire also included open ended comments to reflect on what respondents enjoyed most and their major improvements throughout the course.

C. The Process

1. Creating a Storyboard

Akyeampong (2018) says habitual utilisation of the intellectual traits produces a well-cultivated critical thinker who can raise vital questions and problems; gather and assess relevant information; use abstract ideas to interpret it effectively and come to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions. Among the four language skills needed to get an idea of the meaningful language in the video is listening skills (Metruk, 2019 cited by Murshidi, 2020). Listening is a process that involves receiving, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding to the message from the speaker. Receiving the message involves understanding the speaker's pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. When students are given a task to complete, their listening and comprehension would be more structured as they have a purpose which is to complete the task. The task is to watch the corporate storytelling video and transfer the message and relevant information onto a storyboard.

A storyboard is a graphic representation of the video comprising sequential illustrations or images. It is formed from a certain number of boxes known as frames or panels either by drawing it on paper or using a certain software. Creating a storyboard is usually a step in the process of making a video. In this course, on the other hand, students create a storyboard from a corporate storytelling video that is ready and available.

The reason behind this is that a storyboard makes it easier for students to show their understanding and to better explain the storyline from a video. A study has shown that having students create visual storyboard for movie scenes can improve their reading skills and comprehension (Bruce & Chiu, 2015). Students are encouraged to explore beyond the story in the video to get the message by understanding the story plot, characters and settings that set the atmosphere and mood.

Students are put in groups of three in this course to enable them to work collaboratively. Sonnayi & Alapati (2021) note that students are most willing to partake in collaborative learning and it is an effective strategy to develop speaking skills. Students are given the autonomy on their learning when they work on the storyboard as they get to decide what to put in their storyboard. They also become aware of their strengths when they work on different tasks of the storyboard.

Based on what they watch and transfer onto the storyboard, students will develop their creativity and critical thinking skills by developing and presenting their opinions in a video response presentation.

2. Giving a Video Response Presentation

In this activity, students describe the messages and core values reflected in the stories in the video through an oral presentation that also evaluates the effectiveness of the corporate storytelling video. Storytelling integrates language and content and allows students to develop competency, increases awareness and appreciation of other cultures, and increases students' confidence level (Mokhtar et. al, 2012). The storyboard assists the students to picture the storyline and to better grasp the message. They should be more creative and critical, as digital storytelling promotes critical and creative thinking (Akyeampong, 2018). Critical thinking is the art of conceptualising, analysing, reflecting, and evaluating. Students can also critically engage with new knowledge and make meaning from this new knowledge.

In this course, students analyse and evaluate the video, then present their reflections in an oral presentation. This is a recorded video presentation of about 3 minutes in which the students express their opinions and responses to the corporate storytelling video. Since videos provoke interest, curiosity, convey feeling and texture of real experience (Harris and Mayer, 1993), videos are an excellent tool for students to improve on their responses. Students find the core values of the company in the video and identify which values are reflected in the video and how those values are demonstrated in the video. Students can evaluate the effectiveness of the video in delivering the intended message.

Recording their responses in videos also enhances their oral presentation skills as students did better in their language, facial expression, eye-contact, and body language when they see themselves in the recording and improve, according to

Ahmad and Lidadun (2017). Speaking is one of the important skills in English besides listening, reading, and writing. People can convey opinions, ideas, and perceptions by speaking. It can make students be active to communicate with others and give opinions or ideas in the teaching and learning process.

IV. RESULTS

A. Tabulation of Respondents

Questionnaires were given to students who enrolled in the course in one semester. From a total of 845 students, 227 students responded. The questionnaires were given out through google survey by 13 instructors teaching 37 sets of classes. The tabulation of the students in Fig. 2 is by faculty.

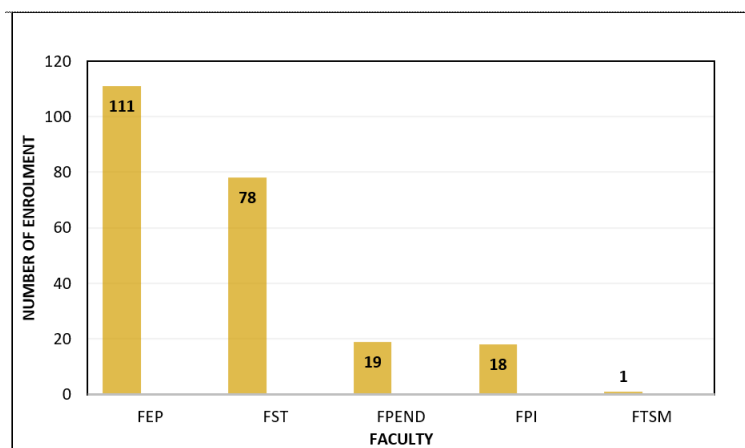


Figure 2 Tabulation of Students by Faculty

The students comprise 111 (48.9%) from Faculty of Economics and Management (FEP) and 78 (34.4%) from Faculty of Science & Technology (FST). There are also 19 (8.4%) of the students from Faculty of Education (FPEND), 18 (7.9%) from Faculty of Islamic Studies (FPI) and 1 (0.4%) from Faculty of Information Science and Technology (FTSM). There are 69.2% female students and 30.8% male students.

B. Reflection on Corporate Storytelling Video Activities

There are two activities generated from the corporate storytelling video in this course, which are creating a storyboard and giving a video recorded response on the corporate storytelling video. One of the questions in the questionnaire was for the students to reflect their experience in the activities related to the corporate storytelling video. The table below summarises their responses.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' REFLECTION ON CORPORATE STORYTELLING VIDEO ACTIVITIES

No	Corporate Storytelling Video Activities	Definitely Agree	Agree, but with reservation	Total
1	Producing the storyboard helped me to understand the video better.	80.2%	18.9%	99.1%
2	The recorded Video Response Presentation that I did, helped me to improve my language.	75.3%	22.9%	98.2%
3	I participated actively in both activities.	64.6%	35.2%	99.8%
4	I was motivated to use English language throughout the learning process.	74.4%	25.1%	99.5%
5	The activities encouraged me to learn English language.	79.7%	20.3%	100%

From Table 1, 99.1% of the respondents agree that producing the storyboard has helped them to understand the video better. While 98.2% respondents say that the recorded video response presentation, which is the second and final activity, has helped them to improve their language. In response to the next question, Table 1 displays that 99.8% of the respondents say they have participated actively in both activities. When asked if they were motivated to use English language throughout the learning process, 99.5% of the respondents say yes. All of them or 100% of the respondents are encouraged by the activities to learn English language.

C. Perception on Learning Skills from Corporate Storytelling Video

In another part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked if the corporate storytelling video activities contributed to their learning and development of the skills. Table 2 below is their responses.

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON LEARNING SKILLS

No	Corporate storytelling video helps to improve my	Definitely Agree	Agree, but with reservation	Total
1	reading skills	68.7	29.5	98.2
2	writing skills	71.8	24.7	96.5
3	listening skills	78.4	20.3	98.4
4	speaking skills	78.4	19.4	97.8
5	presentation skills	76.7	20.7	97.4
6	critical thinking skills	75.8	19.8	95.6
7	creativity	77.1	20.3	97.4

The respondents' perception on the improvement of the four basic language skills can be seen in Table 2. They perceive that they have improved in their reading skills (98.2%); writing skills (96.5%); listening skills (98.4%) and speaking skills (97.8%). Going down the table, they also believe they have improved in their presentation skills (97.4%); critical thinking skills (95.6%); and creativity (97.4%).

V. DISCUSSION

A. Reflection on Corporate Storytelling Video Activities

Regarding the first activity, which is producing or creating a storyboard, most of the respondents believe that it has helped them to understand the corporate storytelling video better. This supports Bruce & Chiu (2015), who pose that when students create a storyboard for a movie scene, they improve their comprehension. In this course, students create a storyboard from a ready-made video. They have to comprehend the story in the video to enable them to transfer the information onto the storyboard. Interpreting the language and the story in a visual context enhances their understanding more.

In this course the students work in groups of three. The three students in each group share and create one storyboard, which means one student works on 3 – 4 frames or panels. Fig. 3 below is an example of a storyboard created by one group of three students.

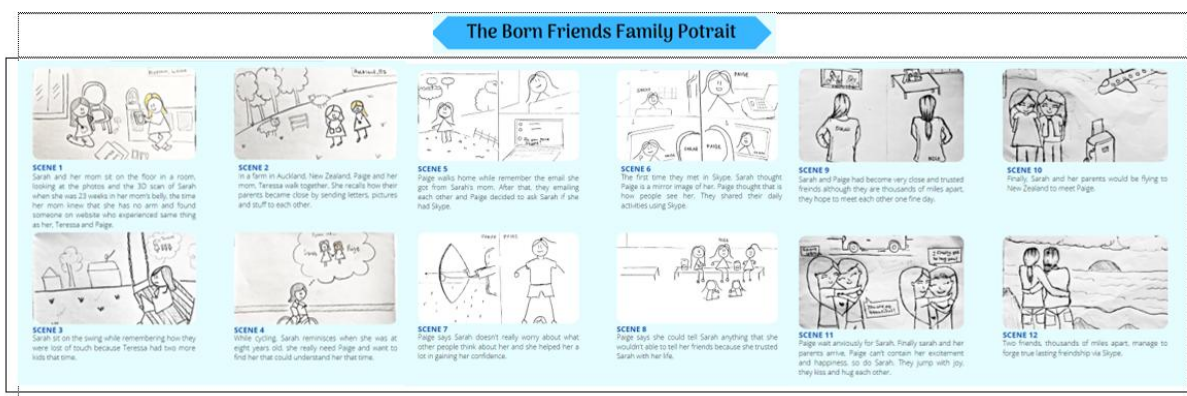


Figure 3 One Complete Storyboard

Figure 3 exemplifies a storyboard with twelve (12) frames depicting seven (7) elements, that are required for this course, shown on their storyboard which are title, setting, characters, plot, conflict, resolution, and conclusion.

From the storyboard, the students demonstrate their comprehension of the corporate storytelling video by retelling the story through images and words in sequential order. This activity illustrates that the students collaborate among them to create four frames per person, producing one storyboard which reflects their creativity and critical thinking skills. This is consistent to what Desi et al (2020) suggest, that storyboard is a way to make students be creative, critical, and collaborative. Collaborating to do the activities and making decisions together enable the students to develop their communicative skills. As Moradi and Chen (2019) state, research has shown that storytelling facilitates students' collaboration.

In the second and final activity, the students are required to give a 3-minute presentation of their response to the corporate storytelling video. They should talk about the company's values that they see reflected in the video and give their opinion on the video and its effectiveness in delivering the message to the audience. From the results, most of them also believe that it has helped them to improve their English language. When the students present their opinions in a video response presentation, they need to explore beneath the story to get the message. When they do this, they develop their creativity.

The presentation, being video recorded is an advantage to the students. They can record, then watch and identify their errors, weaknesses and strengths and work on the improvement. They can repeat this process as many times as they like

until they are satisfied. Every time they redo is a learning process and they improve gradually. This supports the findings of Ahmad and Lidadun (2017) and Berlian Nur and Mohamad Jafre (2011) which is by recording responses on video, students can see themselves and improve on their language, facial expression, eye-contact, body language and speaking skills.

From the results, almost all respondents say that they have participated actively in all activities. According to Harris and Mayer (1993), short films or corporate storytelling videos have colour, movement and sound accompanying the verbal communication, giving more sensory experience, making them excellent for provoking interest and curiosity. Being interested and curious will stimulate the sense of hearing and the sense of seeing. Our senses help us to understand everything around us and we learn through them. Therefore, having activities through a corporate storytelling video has induced participation from the students.

This can be seen from the results that show a very high number of the respondents stating that they were motivated to use English language throughout the learning process. Motivation plays an important role in learning a second language. When students are motivated, they are more open to the learning process involving the activities. This is proven in Table 1, where all the respondents are encouraged by the activities to learn English language.

A. *Perception on Learning Skills from Corporate Storytelling Video*

These results reveal that activities from the corporate storytelling video are positively connected to motivation to learn as the students perceived they have improved in all the learning skills of the 21st century. Perception is the basis of thoughts that bring about judgements or beliefs that influence the attitude towards something (Ahen, 2009). In other words, when the perception is positive towards the language, students will be moved to do the activities and learn the language.

The high percentage also shows that these respondents are feeling positive about learning this course that uses corporate storytelling video as a tool. Engaging in the activities related to the video contributes in many ways, from motivation to skills development. These results also support the findings by Murshidi (2020) who says that watching movies are positively related to the enhancement of the listening and speaking skills of the students.

When students watch and listen to the corporate storytelling video, comprehending and getting the message and then transferring onto the storyboard, this enhances their listening skills. When they create the storyboard, they work collaboratively in discussing and deciding what should be on the storyboard. They identify the story plot and explain in the notes accompanying the storyboard. It helps them in their writing skills. The activity also encourages creativity among the students.

To better understand the corporate storytelling video, they must read up on the company that is represented in the video. This allows them to practice their reading skills. For the video response presentation, the students are required to give their response and opinion on the effectiveness of the corporate storytelling video in delivering the company's brand and value. In giving a video response presentation, it enhances the critical thinking and creativity, as mentioned by Akyeampong (2018). The respondents themselves perceived it that way too. The students can improve on their presentation skills every time they record and redo their video response. These activities give the students the context to use and improve their communicative skills. The findings have also indicated what Kusuma (2017) and Omer (2017) pose that, when (corporate storytelling) videos are used, pedagogically, it can benefit oral presentation skills.

The authenticity of the corporate storytelling video with compelling characters and relatable story plot is a link to the real world. Corporate Storytelling videos in general would have the elements of a hero, a main plot, drama, and obstacles to overcome and a simple, trustworthy, and consistent message (Stoyanov, 2016). Consequently, these videos are very interesting to watch and to identify the underlying message from the company or organization.

Another dominant factor is that the duration of these videos that are, usually less than 10 minutes. This can resolve the problem of students' having short attention spans. It is expected that this motivation to learn English will lead to improved language skills as Murshidi (2020) says which is combining movie videos and motivation to learn English can result in improved language skills.

The above findings support Yilmaz (2020) and Mirvan (2013) who state that, a video gives visual context and sensory experience to the students. It becomes relevant and useful. It is a highly motivational teaching tool to enhance listening, speaking, and writing.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The discussion is pointing to the fact that the activities generated from corporate storytelling videos are able to enhance English communicative skills and is highly recommended to be incorporated in an English course. Videos are generally interesting, challenging and stimulating resources. The students' responses reveal that the videos can capture their attention as the corporate storytelling videos boost their motivation, and most importantly they find it an enjoyable learning activity in improving all their communicative skills.

This initiative to incorporate the respective activities in this course has proven to provide students with an additional value to their existing acquired skills that should then enrich their employability skills. It is relevant and meaningful to offer such English course to students of an undergraduate program before they enter the working world. This study

highlights the significance of ‘storytelling’ itself which is up scaled to ‘corporate storytelling’ that also enhances the persuasive skills that are much needed in the branding industries.

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Reflective Teaching in EFL Online Classrooms: Teachers' Perspective

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Abstract—One of the noticeable changes in the tertiary education scene is the continuous quest for quality-driven teaching and learning that prepares students for the demanding employment market. At the heart of this increasingly transformative process is competitiveness. This shifting view has made teaching a multi-faceted and dynamic process that calls upon teachers to adjust their teaching and align their pedagogical practices and decisions to emerging circumstances and challenges. Online learning has become the 'new normal' formula in language classes across the Sultanate of Oman due to the COVID-19 Pandemic. This paper reports (N=49) teachers' perceived reflection and adjustment in online classes and the various strategies they adopted in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Oman. Data were collected from the responses of the participants to a semi-structured online survey. Data analysis showed that most teachers practiced reflection on action and for action more frequently while demonstrating lower awareness of reflection in action. The paper also draws on the significance of the spaces created by online teaching for reflection-driven action research to inform effective teaching for better learning experiences.

Index Terms—quality-based teaching, reflection, online teaching, action research, effective learning

I. INTRODUCTION

An observable feature of the changing reality in university teaching is the realization that teachers need to turn into effective catalysts for effective learning. Students can only learn effectively when their teachers form a deep understanding of their needs and use effective instruction (Nunan, 2004, 1989; Tomlinson, 1999), and this requires educators to reflect on issues that may obstruct students' learning and adjust their pedagogic practices accordingly. The post-covid era has witnessed an inclusive transformation in different aspects in the broad educational context, which has led to changes in students' needs. The response to the altering needs of students was limited to changes in the media of instruction and communication with less reconsideration of the teaching methods, practices, curricula and other components of the educational process as the pandemic-triggered and abrupt shift to online teaching has necessitated a quick resuscitation of the educational process without having the opportunity to reflect on all aspects of the newly-tested educational environment. This has undermined the quality of education to some extent. The unforeseen mutation in educational systems requires reflective practice as a much-needed approach to improve and sustain the quality of teaching and learning during the experimentation of a changing educational environment.

Researchers ascribe the notion of 'reflective teaching' to the seminal work of the American philosopher John Dewey (Zeichner & Liston, 2014; Zwozdiak-Myers 2012) first in his publication *How We Think* (Dewey, 1910), republished later with some revisions as *How We Think: Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process* (Dewey, 1933), and then in his publication *Democracy and Education* (Dewey, 1916). Dewey (1916) introduced the term of 'reflective inquiry' as a strategy to investigate the effectiveness of teaching practices based on "personal observations and ideas as in effect to isolate mind and set it apart from the world to be known" (p. 360). The inquiry needs to be complemented with reflective practice which gives our teaching experiences their full meaning by trying to create a link between "what we try to do and what happens in consequence" (p. 187). Although inquiry starts with personal observations, "reflection lies upon keeping one's self out of the data" (p. 190), and this can happen by coupling one's observations with those of the learners. Dewey believes that a teacher can only rectify his/her theoretical knowledge "only by a pupil's own observations, reflections, framing and testing of suggestions" (p. 371). This complementarity between inquiry and reflection gives rise to experiential knowledge "as an outcome of inquiry and a resource in further inquiry" (p. 238).

Reflective teaching has several characteristics that need to be observed closely by the teacher. First, reflective thinking is organized and regular (Soodmand & Farahani, 2018) as it is based on a "systematic and protracted inquiry" (Dewey, 2010, p.23); second, reflective practice follows a consecutive as well as a cyclical pattern of thought and action (Afshar and Farahani, 2017; Barnard & Ryan, 2017; Larivee, 2000; Loughran, 1996); third, reflective thought is flexible and involves no fixed practices or inertia (Ghaye, 2011) in developing one's knowledge or complementing it with experiential knowledge. Accordingly, reflective practice generates a new form of knowledge which is the result of

an inquiry or framing the issue, experimentation and reframing the issue (Schon, 1983; Zeichner & Liston, 2014), planning, and implementation. The following paragraph provides a succinct description of the characteristics of reflective thinking:

Reflection involves not simply a sequence of ideas, but a consequence- a consecutive ordering in such a way that each determines the next as its proper outcome, while each, in turn, leans back on its predecessors. The successive portions of the reflective thought grow out of one another and support one another; they do not come and go in a medley. Each phase is a step from something to something... The stream or flow becomes a train, chain, or thread. (Dewey, 1910, p.12)

Practicing reflection has become an indispensable requirement in academic institutions worldwide to raise educational standards and improve the quality of teaching and learning. This is why it needs to be incorporated in the discourse of teacher professional development to promote the professional experience of teachers by integrating theory with practice (Osterman & Kottkamp, 2015; Tarrant, 2013). A teacher needs to develop his/her practical knowledge by becoming a reflective practitioner, researcher, and extended professional (Hoyle, 1974; Johnson & Maclean, 2008; Stenhouse, 1975; Zwozdiak-Myers, 2012), and academic institutions need to embrace this view to respond to the demands of institutional development, growth, and sustainability. Studies have shown that reflective teaching is not practiced on a high level in Middle Eastern countries and that it is overlooked in teacher professional development programs (Soodmand & Farahani 2018) adopted by higher learning institutions. We can further build on these studies by extending research on teachers' conceptualization and practice of reflective teaching and its impact on their professional growth. Academic institutions in these countries have a particular need to ensure the integration of reflective practice with teaching English as a Second Language (ESL)/ English as a Foreign Language (EFL) courses that are not always taught by L2 specialists who can merge theory with practice. Oman is a Middle Eastern country that faces similar educational challenges to other countries in the region. Omani Higher Education Institutions have the challenge to embrace and support quality-enhanced reflective teaching to fulfill the Oman 2040 Vision requirements concerning education. According to the Education Council (2018) quality is one of the main pillars of the National Strategy for Education 2040 in Oman (see <https://www.educouncil.gov.om/downloads>). This strategic goal transforms not only the HEIs' social responsibility but also their objectives, priorities, and plans.

Despite the significance of reflective practices in teaching that is evident in the growing volume of research in general, there is a paucity of studies examining how teachers in Omani HEIs perceive and practice reflection in their profession. The present study seeks to examine teachers' understanding of the concept of reflection and the realization of that in their teaching practice. This study is significant and timely as it aims to investigate a neglected aspect of effective teaching at a time of high competition among academic institutions to achieve quality education and fulfill national and international academic accreditation standards. Enhancing teaching quality through reflective practice is not bound to Oman only, and thus, it is hoped that the study's insights can generate implications that can extend the usefulness of investigating reflective teaching in other similar contexts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Dewey (1910) defined reflective thought as an "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p. 6). After the term 'reflective practice' was introduced by John Dewey in the early years of the twentieth century, scholars like Stenhouse (1975), Donald Schon (1983), Mezirow (1991), and others developed the notion of reflective practice and added new dimensions to its applications in pedagogic practices. In this regard, Zeichner and Liston (2014) reviewed the main contributions to reflective teaching from a historical and conceptual perspective. The authors explained how Dewey distinguished routine action and reflective action, calling teachers to strike a balance between the two in their professional practice. Routine action refers to practices that are controlled by a collective educational system and apply to general educational contexts, situations, etc. Conversely, reflective action refers to the active and personal experimentation of pedagogic practices by collecting evidence and accepting "many sources of understanding" (p. 10) rather than sticking to a unified static code for solving problems. As such, reflective action encourages a flexible approach to teaching away from embracing stagnant educational practices. Hence the term 'reflective teaching' requires teachers to review their pedagogic practices and reflect on them actively and critically for evidence-based analysis of existing issues in the teaching process and reconsideration of routine strategies and techniques.

Kolb (1984) and Schon (1983, 1988) were concerned about using reflective practices to contextualize and integrate instruction. Consequently, they highlighted the connection between reflective practice and action. Kolb (1984) developed a model for practicing reflection by teachers. This model is described as the model of "experiential learning" because it is based on reviewing and analyzing the teachers' concrete experiences in the three phases of reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. Following the completion of the three phases, action will be adopted to update former practices and the new experiences will become the point of departure for a new cycle of experiential learning. On the other hand, Schon (1988, 1983) maintained that there are two types of reflective practice: reflection in action and reflection on action. Reflection in action takes place while the teachers are involved in the teaching process as they encounter certain situations in which their students react unpredictably. In this case, a teacher needs to reflect promptly to adapt their teaching to the emerging situation. Reflection on action happens in two

phases: before the action takes place (to prepare and plan) and after the action takes place (to assess and evaluate the impact/results of the action). These two types of reflection enable the teachers to reconstruct their knowledge (Mezirow, 1991; Larrivee, 2000) by adding new experimental dimensions to what they have already acquired academically and professionally.

Other research focused on extending the aspects of reflection. Thompson and Pascal (2012) added to these two levels of reflection a third level which they described as 'reflection for action', maintaining that effective reflection requires thinking and planning for improvement and flexible management of the teaching process whenever needed. Zeichner and Liston (2014) described the newly-acquired knowledge using the term teachers' "practical theories" (pp. 25-35), and they criticized Schon's account on 'reflecting in action' and 'reflecting on action' for falling short of incorporating the notion of 'collaborative reflection' in which teachers discuss their practices and reflective ideas with other professionals on the institutional level. This type of reflection allows the teachers to co-construct their knowledge by cooperating with other colleagues "through reflective dialogue on the participants' personal theories" (Moreira & Ribeiro, 2009, p. 64). Teachers may also need to create communication channels with the community outside the educational institution to create "contexts for collaborative action" (Zeichner and Liston, 2014, p. 22). The researchers also remark that:

although reflection can at times be a solitary and highly individualistic affair, it can also be enhanced by communication and dialogue with others. Second, reflection needs to focus not only within the classroom but also on the contexts in which teaching and schooling are embedded. (p. 24)

The ultimate objective behind practicing reflective teaching is to improve the quality of education and help pedagogues keep an objective distance from routine, entrenched practices that may not provide optimal solutions to all educational problems. As such, critical reflection is suggested as a response to a problem that is observed by the teacher (Dewey, 1910; 1916; 1933; 1938) and it involves several steps such as reviewing, analyzing, and evaluating past and present practices. Zwozdiak-Myers (2012) defined the reflective practice as "A disposition to inquiry incorporating the process through which student, early career and experienced teachers structure or restructure actions, beliefs, knowledge, and theories that inform teaching for the purpose of professional development" (p. 5). According to Zwozdiak-Myers (2012), teachers' practice of reflective teaching needs to be guided by 'the framework of reflective practice. This framework marks a departure from earlier theories on reflective teaching in that it does not necessarily require teachers to confine their reflective practice to the occurrence of a problem in the classroom (problematising the educational process). Accordingly, practicing reflection becomes an inherent part of effective teaching (Brown & Atkins, 2002; Martin-Kniep & Picone-Zocchia, 2009; Hunt, Wiseman & Touzel 2009), regardless of the existence of challenges or issues, which gives a protracted scope for improvement and experimentation of new ideas and strategies. The framework of reflective practice comprises the following dimensions:

1. Examining one's teaching for improvement;
2. Evaluating one's teaching by embracing classroom research activities
3. Integrating theory and practice
4. Questioning one's theories and practices
5. Openness to alternative practices
6. Experimenting new strategies
7. Maximizing the learning potential of students
8. Enhancing the effectiveness of one's teaching
9. Continuous improvement of teaching

Larrivee (2000) maintained that there is a relationship between critical reflection and the ethical considerations of the teaching practice because teachers develop unintended presuppositions which are the result of their filtering of situations as per their prior experiences, sets of beliefs, assumptions, feelings, personal agendas as well as aspirations. These presuppositions need to be challenged and reformulated based on an experiential systematic inquiry. The researcher stressed the importance of reflexive awareness, inquiry, and reflection for teachers but at the same time called for involving other professionals in the process of reflection to avoid confrontational feelings or disputes within the educational community. This tendency to involve others in reflective practice is called collective or group reflection. According to Elbaz (1988), practicing reflection to improve teaching and learning should occur as part of educational research in collaboration between the teacher who practices reflection in the classroom and a researcher (teacher educator) studies and analyses the reflections of teachers to elaborate on their experiences and empower them objectively. Teachers who practice self-reflection feel that the investigation of their practices "is not altogether legitimate as a research activity" (p. 171), hence the importance of group reflection. Besides, they have a preemptive tendency "to search out immediate solutions, before the issue at hand has been analyzed" (p. 171).

The suggested collaboration between teachers and researchers is expected to lead to actions that benefit teachers in reconstructing their knowledge and students in learning effectively. Practicing collective reflection (Moreira & Ribeiro, 2009) does not only contribute to the professional development of teachers. It is also the road to institutional development. Research on the robust relationship between reflective teaching and quality education started with contributions that addressed the situation on the level of schools. Recently, practicing reflection to improve teaching practices and achieve professional development has become an indispensable requirement for college teachers (Biggs,

1999; Lyons, 2006) and higher education institutions in their quest to provide quality teaching and achieve quality learning (Biggs, & Tang, 2007; Brockbank & McGill, 2007), as a step towards international recognition and accreditation. According to Biggs and Tang (2007), reflection on teaching challenges provides a contextualized understanding and treatment of teaching problems as long as it embraces the framework of constructive alignment between reflective practices and the intended learning outcomes. This cannot be achieved without synergy between reflective teachers, staff developers, and the administration, as a whole, because teachers' practices are not only informed by their personal choices. They are also guided by the priorities of their institutional administration.

Biggs and Tang (2007) believe that in order for reflection to be practiced effectively, it must be transformative leading to an improved learning environment that creates and maintains high levels of motivation among students. Transformative reflection is in harmony with the accounts of earlier research, discussed above, on reflection for action. Reflection can be transformative when it is practiced within the framework of action research. Action research is an educational strategy used by researcher teachers to introduce positive changes to the teaching-learning process. Practicing transformative reflection means acquiring new strategies which empower teachers and help them survive in a highly competitive educational environment. Larrivee stated that "Effective teaching is much more than a compilation of skills and strategies. It is a deliberate philosophical and ethical code of conduct... to invent new strategies" (p. 294). Such strategies enhance the learning experience of learners and teachers alike, as expressed in the following paragraph:

The 'learning' in action learning refers not only to student learning, or even to learning about teaching, but to learning about oneself as a teacher and learning how to use reflection to become a better teacher. Learning new techniques for teaching is like the fish that provides a meal today; reflective practice is the net that provides meals for the rest of your life. (Biggs & Tang, 2007, p. 43)

Action research involves the virtuous cycle of observing, reflecting, planning, and acting. Reflective practice is one pillar in action research and it employs different types of research tools. For Biggs and Tang (2007), teachers can keep a record of their reflective practice by using reflective diaries to record critical incidents and any other observations throughout their practice. This will help the teachers relate their academically and professionally acquired knowledge to their teaching practices, on the one hand, and the intended learning outcomes of their courses, on the other hand. The authors believe that practicing reflection is not limited to teachers. Rather it should be supported with evidence collected from the point of view of learners. Students' perceptions can be incorporated with the collected evidence using strategies like questionnaires, focus group discussions, and reflective journals which the learners can use to record any critical incidents or observations on the course they are studying.

Practicing reflection is not limited to the two main parties of the educational process: teachers and learners. It is an overarching practice that needs to be consolidated at the institutional level. Biggs and Tang (2007) highlighted the significant role played by the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) in promoting transformative reflection. According to SoTL, institutions should not overlook the importance of researching teaching and learning activities. SoTL (Perry & Smart, 2007; Murray, 2008) is a recent research practice which most academic institutions do not recognize or recognize only theoretically. In other words, most academic institutions attach importance to the research endeavors of academics without relating them to their teaching practices. For instance, academics get promoted based on the number of publications, without regard to creating or encouraging the teaching/research nexus with transformative reflection at its essence. Institutions can promote SoTL by adopting policies that sponsor teaching development grants and recognize teaching-based research as equally important promotion criteria to content research. Research projects which investigate and aim to develop teaching practices make use of action research to develop the curricula, enhance independent learning among students, reform assessment methods, constructive alignment between ILOs and pedagogic practices, etc.

In an attempt to bridge the gap in promoting teaching and learning activities, universities created teaching and learning development centers with the task of improving the teaching practices and skills of teachers by running training or professional development workshops that are used to measure the performance of teachers based on the number of workshops they attend. Recently, the role and activities of teaching and learning development centers have changed positively by involving staff developers from the concerned departments. These staff developers are also knowledgeable about the subjects offered in their departments and the related assessment policies and this enables them to provide informed insights that can foster staff professional development. Participating in activities and programs organized by the teaching and learning development centers is an opportunity for the staff developers themselves to reflect on their practices, assess their experiences, and empower others by enhancing their reflection capabilities. Reflection should be the essence of all activities oriented toward promoting staff growth and improvement of the institutions' performance.

Some mechanisms which academic institutions can adopt to improve the quality of teaching and encourage reflection practices include teaching portfolios, teacher peer review, department-level teaching and learning committees to design courses and programs, regular departmental sessions to discuss problems and solutions using constructive alignment, consultations with teaching and development centers as well as student feedback on teaching. Students need to have representation in committees on teaching and learning and there have to be student-staff consultative committees to exchange views about the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Biggs and Tang (2007) believe that student feedback on teaching should be conducted "through the department, not the faculty or central administration. Questionnaires should be worded to be supportive of constructive alignment: for example, are students clear about the ILOs... the

TLAs in their experience really help them to achieve the ILOs” (P. 271). As for peer review, the researchers believe it should not be centralized by the administration or the department. Rather it is expected to take place collegially like when “A teacher invites a colleague, a critical friend, to observe his/her teaching and/or teaching materials to provide feedback for reflection and improvement: in effect a QE process through action research of your own teaching” (p. 269).

Online education provides both opportunities and challenges for reflective practice. Salih and Omar (2021) stated that “During the crisis, all those involved in the educational process need to think outside the box” (p. 65). With the intrusive shift to online teaching platforms and the growing competition among academic institutions to meet the criteria of effective education, reflective practice has re-emerged as an approach to reform different aspects of the general educational context and respond to the relevant challenges. Lamaster and Knop (2004) researched the challenges teachers encounter in distance learning environments and pointed out the teachers’ need to reflect on their teaching practices to update them following the requirements of the new educational context. On the other hand, online learning environments are resourceful in the digital tools they provide to practice reflective effective teaching (see Karchmer-Klein & Pytash, 2020). Pawan (2003) clarified how online education encourages reflective practice among teachers as it provides them with access to rich content which they can analyze individually or collectively to enhance their reflective endeavors, as explained in the following passage:

The nature of many of asynchronous and synchronous discussion environments used in online distance education courses, in which all forms of communication and interaction in textual form is recorded and archived, provides a conducive medium for engaging in reflection (p. 30)

Although research has explored reflective teaching in-depth in varieties of contexts in HEIs worldwide, little is known about the practice of reflective teaching by Omani HEIs teachers. The present study seeks to extend scholarship into this vital area and shed more light on how teachers in Omani HEIs understand reflective teaching and practice it as a part of their alignment of teaching especially in the COVID-19-prompted online learning. The study is set to answer the following questions:

1. How do language teachers perceive adjustment of teaching as a process of reflective practices?
2. What aspects of teaching do language teachers relate to reflective practices?
3. From the language teachers’ perspective, what is the impact of reflection practices on their performance?

III. METHOD

The present study is exploratory in nature and it draws on a qualitative method with minimal statistical analysis as it attempts to provide a preliminary investigation about aspects of perceived quality-enhanced online teaching through reflection and possible adjustments from language teachers’ perspectives. Teachers’ perspectives were collected by administering a survey that was distributed to the participants who were teachers in Omani higher learning institutions.

A. Participants

Participants in this study were forty-nine teachers in Omani HEIs. All participants were highly qualified in terms of academic backgrounds and teaching experience. The (49) participants have experienced teaching online since the outset of the pandemic. They were asked to respond to a survey after the end of the Academic Year in the Spring Semester.

B. Study’s Instrument and Analysis Procedures

As stated earlier, the purpose of this study was to understand how teachers in Omani HEIs perceive and practice reflective teaching and the impact of that in the adjustment of their teaching. To serve this objective, an open-ended survey was distributed to the participants (N=49). Under the qualitative method, participants are encouraged to share their views using open-ended survey questions (Creswell, & Creswell, 2018; Silverman, 2013; Kumar, 2011). The survey was designed to elicit the respondents’ understanding of reflective teaching and how they initiated it in their practice. The survey also focused on the types of reflection the participants were familiar with and they initiated. That is the types of reflection relevant to the participants’ teaching environment. In addition, the survey addressed the participants’ reported effects of reflection on their teaching. The respondents’ answers were collected and analyzed for an understanding of the level of awareness of reflection among teachers, the type of reflection they practiced as well as the relation between reflective teaching and the actual teaching practice. It is hoped that the insights gained from this study would initiate useful implications for reflection practices in Omani HEIs and other similar educational contexts in need of such transformative initiatives to improve their performance, meet their students’ needs, and contribute actively to the national strategic priorities and programs.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the study’s first question— “How do language teachers perceive adjustment of teaching as a process of reflective practices?” — the 49 participants were asked when they felt the need for change in their teaching. The rationale behind this question is to examine teachers’ awareness of factors that may cause reflection. The participants’ responses were grouped into cases and factors which triggered awareness for change and adjustment together with their corresponding period of possible reflection and its type. TABLE 1 summarizes the participants’ perceived sources of change and adjustment in teaching and their possible time of occurrence of reflection. The reported sources enabled

identifying corresponding types of reflection practiced by the participants. In addition, the frequencies of each reflection type were quantified to determine the most frequently or less frequently practiced types of reflection by the participants (see TABLE 2).

TABLE 1
FACTORS TRIGGERED ADJUSTMENT REPORTED BY THE PARTICIPANTS (N=49)

Cases	Incident	Frequencies	Type of Reflection
1. Change in course content	Cyclical review	7	On/for action
2. When lesson objectives are not met	Post teaching	7	On/for action
3. Student feedback	Post teaching	35	On/for action
4. Peer feedback	Ongoing	14	On/for action
5. Plans by management	Ongoing	35	On/for action
6. Self-initiated	Incidental	7	In/on/for action
7. When class turns less interactive	Incidental	28	In/on/for action
8. Assessment outcome	Post teaching	42	On/for action
9. Online teaching skills	During	3	In/on/for action
10. Students' low motivation	During	21	In/on/for action

The 49 participants reported different cases and factors of multiple sources that function as triggers for change and adjustment of teaching. These factors cover different aspects of teaching, learning, and management support and are classified to correspond to a specific period of the occurrence referred to as an incident. Thus, change in course content as a case that triggers the need for change matches with cyclical review as an incident (time of occurrence or happening) in teaching. In their responses, the participants reported that factors that initiate the need for change and adjustment differ and vary. One of the participants stated that,

I feel I need to change something in my teaching and adjust a) whenever the students are not interactive, b) when the students' results do not reflect variation in level and skills, and c) whenever there is a change in course content.

The three causes of change reported above correspond to specific instances of the incident which indicate certain reflective practices. In this regard, the case (a) above can be related to an incidental cause in the teaching process that triggers reflective action during the teaching process, i.e. reflection in action, while case (b) corresponds to post teaching which indicates a tendency for reflection on action/for action, and the case (c) can be related to a feedback-based cyclical review of a course which triggers reflection on/for action. An emerging finding of significance to report here is a feature common to all these factors implying that they are somehow feedback-based. That is, the cases for change and adjustment reported by the participants have a link to the feedback of some sort. Feedback as an element of multiple sources and types is an essential feature of quality-enhanced teaching that needs to be utilized to empower teachers' reflective practices. An awareness of the significance of feedback as a source of reflection for improvement of teaching is expected to empower teachers and encourage them to plan for implementing reflection as an essential agenda of their teaching. More research is needed to broaden our understanding of the most effective sources of feedback that drive teachers to embrace reflective teaching. For instance, future research may investigate the best mechanisms to utilize students' feedback and peer feedback on teaching as well as self-identified needs as sources for systematic reflection and an integral part of teacher professional development programs.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY COUNT BY TYPE OF REFLECTION

Type of reflection	Frequencies
Reflecting in action	59
Reflecting on action	199
Reflecting for action	199

The result of the analysis reveals that the participants were able to identify causes of change and adjustment of teaching about the need for reflection. Thus, in principle, the participants were aware of the need to adjust and reflect on one's teaching practices. Teachers need to be empowered to be able to take action and decide what fits their teaching context and can help students maximize their learning. The equation of quality-enhanced teaching rests on the principle that for students to practice deep learning and depart from surface practices, teachers have to base their teaching on non-surface teaching practices which are limited to the prescribed principles of teaching without relating to the reality of the classroom and teachers' reflective practices. Research that correlates dimensions of reflective practices to teaching is imperative. More research is needed to uncover teachers' awareness of and practice of reflection concerning dimensions of reflective practices.

To address the second question— "What aspects of teaching do language teachers relate to reflective practices?" — The participants were given five areas and were asked to identify what they feel more flexible for adopting changes and adjustments based on their experience. TABLE 3 summarizes the frequency counts of the participants' responses in rating the five areas given.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF IDENTIFIED AREAS FLEXIBLE TO CHANGE AND ADJUSTMENT

Areas	Frequency
1. Teaching methods and strategies	42
2. Assessment plan	14
3. Class activities	42
4. Research plan	7
5. Course syllabus	14
6. Other (please specify)	0

TABLE 3 demonstrates that the majority of the participants (42) selected both teaching methods and strategies and class activities (89% each) as the most flexible areas that adopt changes and adjustments (see Figure 1). This finding suggests that teachers can reflect on issues related to teaching methods and students' learning through class activities whenever a change is deemed significant. Viewing teaching strategies and class activities as the most flexible areas for change is significant and can be used to empower teachers to embrace more reflective practices which can lead to more effective class decisions that can improve teachers' performance. Sharing class experiences about changes in both teaching and class activities and other aspects is imperative. Teachers need to share their class experiences so that others may reflect on them as well. Hence the importance of keep a reflective diary by the teacher to make a record of interesting incidents and examples that could be reflected upon collaboratively during exchanges with other colleagues. Interestingly, the online environment facilitates the process of keeping records of examples and incidents since the interactive sessions are recorded and can be published/shared publicly with other colleagues as samples of learners/instructors' exchanges to reflect upon collaboratively. Besides, the class environment is dynamic and variable and so is any class session. Thus, sharing reflection-based class experience and adjustment will raise teachers' awareness and prepare them to deal with any unexpected circumstances about the learning process.

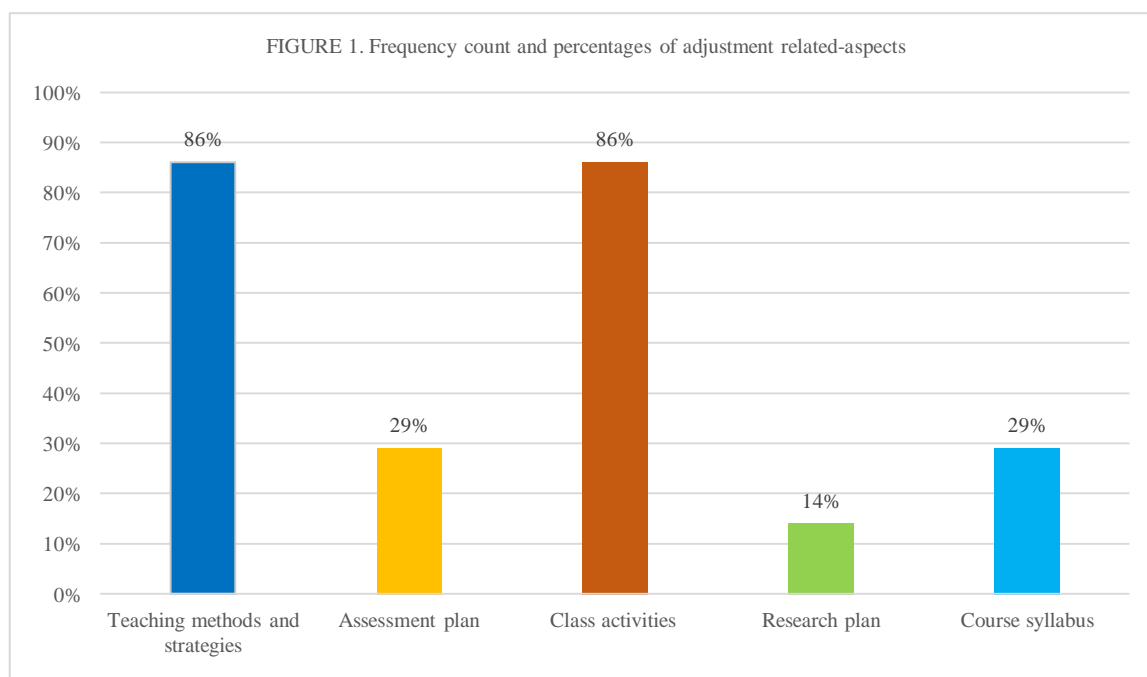


FIGURE 1 demonstrates that the participants also identified the assessment plan and course syllabus (29% each there is a problem in calculating this figure) as other areas perceived flexible for change and adjustment. This finding is significant as it suggests that the participants considered these two areas as less flexible in offering reflective practice. This could be interpreted in many ways. For example, it could be attributed to teachers' perception towards assessment plan guidelines and course syllabi design by quality assurance agents as fixed guidelines that are hard to change and a 'taboo' that should be avoided. Although teachers are heavily involved in the course design and syllabus development process and are autonomous in setting their tests and assessment plans, that happens within quality assurance and institutions' rules and guidelines. In addition, the outcome of these two aspects will only be felt at the end of the term or when teaching a specific unit or area is complete. The feedback on an assessment element will only be received after the assessment is run or administered. Another reason could be the teachers' satisfaction with these two aspects as their comfort zone. As for research, 14% of the participants reported it as a flexible area for change and adjustment making it the least-perceived flexible area among the other areas. When teachers do not establish a strong link between teaching and research, reflection-driven research will remain a less important alternative. Teachers need to reflect to initiate an inquiry into their teaching and students' learning by investigating classroom phenomena to establish the ground for realistic reflective practice. This interrelation between teaching and research is vital in establishing an effective teaching

research which can enable teaching to underpin research and vice versa. It is worth mentioning that the online learning environment provides rich sources of data for teaching-based research including quantified accounts of students' results which facilitate the research process and save the time of the teacher-researcher (Omar, 2021), and venues for students' input which can function as students' journals to reflect on action and for action. An example of this is the students' forum. It is believed that students' assessments used in online learning are still adopting conventional assessment methods. Using students' forums needs to be activated as a credible assessment component in online teaching because it can be utilized as an effective source of data for reflection-based action.

To address the study's third question — "From the language teachers' perspective, what is the impact of reflection practices on their performance?" — The data analysis focused on the participants' observation of the effects of online teaching on three significant areas namely, teaching, learning, and institutional support. The participants were asked to identify differences between online teaching and physical teaching, new learning habits and behaviors by students, and institutional support in enhancing needs analysis-based reflection.

The 49 participants identified certain features of differences between online teaching and physical teaching. According to them, online teaching has posed several challenges to teaching. The participants reported that they found online teaching less interactive, demanding in terms of preparation, as well as being associated with difficulty to ensure quality assessment and full implementation of academic integrity guidelines. In addition, the participants reported difficulty in assessing the actual level of students' motivation, an absence of physical presence, lack of spaces for peer activities as challenges of online teaching. On the other hand, the participants also reported some facilitating aspects of online teaching such as asynchronous teaching which enables students to access taught classes anytime and for an unlimited number of times.

The data also reveals that teachers realized in online teaching students started to reflect on their learning styles. The participants reported changes in the students' learning behaviors and strategies as shown in TABLE 4 below.

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' CHANGING LEARNING BEHAVIOURS REPORTED BY THE PARTICIPANTS

Learning activities	
1.	Technology-assisted vocabulary learning
2.	Autonomous use of online learning sources
3.	Online communication skills
4.	Shy and reserved students participation

The participants reported active use of machine translation by their students for learning vocabulary and finishing other related class tasks. The extended use of online learning sources by students can be utilized to help students learn outside the classroom. Such a tendency by students to dependence on online learning materials can be sustained to help students establish a virtual community of learners. In addition, the student's active engagement in online correspondence with their teachers is an indication of the students' understanding of the significance of developing communication skills and negotiation strategies. Students need such skills for their future careers. It is significant to see that enrollment in online teaching and learning made the shy students move out of their comfort zone and break the culture of silence to participate. Online teaching practices and beyond should always design teaching strategies and class tasks that accommodate the majority of students and encourage the less confident ones to contribute to the learning process. Most of the participants addressed the gap in the institutional support by reporting that their institutions could have helped them reflect by allowing for a wider scope of flexibility in introducing adjustments to their teaching activities. The fact that the shift to online teaching triggered a wave of panic and destabilization among faculty and students alike enforced the need by the administration to dictate an online teaching protocol to be implemented across the board. The objective behind the online teaching rules and procedures was to organize and stabilize the education process during the transitional period, which restricted teachers' flexibility and narrowed the horizon for reflection action. In other words, the sudden transformation from conventional learning to online learning was a blessing and a curse at the same time for the reflective practitioner in that it triggered the need for practicing reflection cyclically, yet confined the scope to do that effectively.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study has attempted to examine aspects of reflective practices by teachers of English who experienced online teaching in institutions of higher learning in Oman. The COVID-19-led sudden switch to online learning and the subsequent changes in the teaching practices have triggered language teachers' awareness for reflection to an extent. It is evident that online learning has opened horizons for changes in many traditional teaching practices and challenged educational institutions to review their practices, assess their performances, and give more focus to quality teaching and learning. The changes brought about by online learning drew teachers' awareness to the crucial changes taking place in both teaching practices and learning activities. While reflection has become imperative for effective teaching that encourages effective learning, the current situation reveals that the most common modes of reflection happen to be a reflection on action and for action but less frequently reflection in action with teachers being more reactive than

proactive. This implies that online teaching triggered teachers' awareness for reflection. They were forced to reflect but in a limited way thus projecting an incomplete cycle of reflection.

Institutions of higher learning need to embrace the reflective practice as an institutional requirement for quality assurance. There is also the need for measuring reflective practices by both teachers and learners alike. Research that explores and analyzes the needs of teachers and students for transformative reflection is imperative. Reflective practices can create a common ground for both teachers and students to set the appropriate agenda for learning, assess their performances, and improve areas that need more attention in curriculum, students' learning styles, and teaching strategies. To empower teachers to embrace reflective practices for effective teaching, research is needed to develop an inventory of reflection for teachers. In addition, institutions may conduct training workshops on practicing reflection to acquaint teachers and learners with the concept and how to apply it to implement it. Teachers also need to collaborate and facilitate collegial workshops on reflectivity. Teachers may also keep dairies of classroom experience as a source of action research. Academic departments in institutions of higher learning together with centers for continuous learning and enhancement of professional development may need to engage teachers in programs for transformative action learning and promote action research for effective teaching and learning. The study is subjected to certain limitations due to its type of population which means that the findings cannot be generalized to content area subjects other than English. Also, the data was collected via an open-ended survey only and many variables were eliminated. However, the study derives its value from its attempt to examine aspects of quality-enhanced online teaching as perceived by language teachers in OHEIs and to shed light on how teachers relate reflection to teaching and learning improvement.

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E-Learning During the COVID-19 Outbreak: The Effect of the Grammar Translation Method and the Direct Method on Students' English Competence

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Abstract—E-learning has been encouraged for usage during COVID-19, and this leaves problems with students' learning activities, particularly in social and economic aspects. Applying appropriate teaching methods is expected, which motivates students to learn virtually. This paper studies the effect of the grammar translation method and the direct method on students' English competence; the e-learning uses electronic tools with communication applications, such as Zoom and Google Classroom. The data were collected by questionnaires distributed to 100 students, of which 95 questionnaires were analyzable. The data were analyzed by path analysis via Microsoft SPSS version 21. The findings are as follows: 1) The grammar translation method has a significant direct effect on competence, contributing 27.7% to students' English competence. The mediating role of Google Classroom has no contribution to the effect of the grammar translation method on students' English competence. 2) The direct method has an indirect effect on students' English competence, when utilized with the mediation of electronic tools that provide the Zoom application.

Index Terms—e-learning, grammar translation method, direct method, English competence

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been two years since learning-teaching processes have been conducted online by using technology as a tool for the learning process. It is called *e-learning* or *virtual learning*, and the lecturer and students are physically separated. During the e-learning of English, the learning process is considered to have decreased in the learning quality of students (Kaharuddin, Ahmad, D., Mardiana, Rusni. 2020). This reduction in learning quality is caused by many factors, especially those related to the smooth learning process. From an economic aspect, problems arise with the inability of students, especially those in low economic situations, to access the Internet, which means that some do not pass the course because they cannot join the virtual class. From a social aspect, students still need a face-to-face learning process where lecturers can take a social approach to students who are experiencing both economic and social problems. Student workload from lecturers in other subjects is another factor that can affect the improvement of students' English competence, because English as a soft skill with students' different language backgrounds requires discipline and learning time (Arafah, B., & Kaharuddin, 2019). Additionally, the e-learning that has been implemented to date provides limited time and interaction between students and lecturers or other students. Network disturbances also often occur, which delay the learning process.

Huang, R., Tlili, A., Chang, T. W., Zhang, X., Nascimbeni, F., and Burgos, D. (2020) assert that there have been three main challenges in e-learning during the pandemic, namely, adjusting offline material to online formats, which takes time; lack of time for direct interaction between teachers and students; and motivating students to learn online. Furthermore, family influences and financial problems can interfere with the learning process of students (Byun, S., & Slavin, R. E. 2020). In addition, Chitra, A. P., and Raj, M. A. (2018) state the disadvantages of e-learning, namely, lack of self-discipline in students; health problems that may produce straining problems, such as poor vision; and inability to access technology caused by poor Internet connections or environments in which it is difficult to access the Internet.

These problems cannot be avoided while the COVID-19 pandemic is still a global problem that can attack student health at any time. Government policies to prevent the spread of COVID-19 require the learning process to be conducted online. However, students' readiness to join and comply with the e-learning process is still in question, because the facts reveal the lack of students' participation and even presence in e-learning. Therefore, motivating students to learn English virtually and improve their English competence needs to be pondered wisely (Hasjim, M., Arafah, B., Kaharuddin, Verlin, S., & Genisa, R. A. A. 2020).

Various efforts have been made to minimize the negative impacts caused by the challenges of e-learning. Carrillo, C., and Flores, M. A. (2020) reveal three elements that support the use of technology in the e-learning learning process: the pedagogical approach, learning design and facilities. The pedagogical approach is centered on efforts to further stimulate student learning activities where the teacher is a facilitator who designs the learning process as well as

possible in which technology tools may be used so that students are motivated to learn. In this case, the learning model applied is assumed to contribute to the activation of student learning activities in the hope that their English competence can be improved (Andi, K., & Arafah, B. 2017; Kaharuddin, K., & Rahmadana, A. 2020). Hence, e-learning is providing a rare opportunity, producing changes in pedagogical strategies and improving the efficiency of teaching and learning (Cai, H. 2012).

Two models of learning and teaching English are highlighted in this research, namely, the grammar translation method (GTM), which is oriented to improve students' reading comprehension and writing competence, and the direct method (DM), which is oriented to improve students' listening and speaking competence. Combining the two methods in an e-learning process is an appropriate learning design with correlative material. Thus, students not only develop reading and writing competencies but also listening and speaking competencies on a particular theme being studied. Applying these two methods simultaneously in the virtual learning process requires technological aids, such as computers, laptops or mobile phones that provide communication applications such as Zoom, by which the lecturer and students interact directly and virtually, and Google Classroom, by which the lecturer assigns homework, writing exercises or reading comprehension exercises. Therefore, the two models used in one meeting are expected to improve students' English competence in listening, speaking, writing and reading comprehension.

The use of the two learning methods above in the online English learning process with technological aids is assumed to contribute to improving students' English competence. Therefore, the focus of this research is the use of the GTM and DM as independent variables and students' English competence as the dependent variable mediated by electronic tools, such as computers, laptops or mobile phones that provide Zoom and Google Classroom applications. This study highlights students' English competence as affected by the use of the GTM and DM in learning and teaching English virtually. The mediating role of e-learning with a computer, laptop or mobile device that provides Zoom and Google Classroom explains the effect of the two learning models on student competence, thus highlighting that direct and indirect effects of the two learning models on students' English competence.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *E-Learning of English*

E-Learning is widely used, particularly in modern English learning and teaching, which has been caused by COVID-19; the pandemic has forced governments to issue policies of distance learning in which electronic media are used. Hence, *e-learning* is defined as a learning and teaching process that occurs online using the Internet. It is viewed as computer-assisted learning in which the learning content is delivered digitally. The information and communication systems, regardless of whether they are networked, are the specific media used to implement the learning process (Chitra, A. P., & Raj, M. A. 2018). As it uses Internet technology to deliver education, e-learning is based on three criteria: 1) the ability to renew, store, distribute and share teaching material or information, 2) the delivery of information to every user via computer by using standard Internet technology, and 3) the focus on the broadest view of learning. However, the problem in e-learning is the absence of personal interactions between students and lecturers as well as between the students themselves (Young, J. R. 1997; Bahar, A. K., & Latif, I. 2019).

E-learning of English means the learning and teaching of English through electronic media in which applications to facilitate the learning process are provided. In this case, the lecturer interacts with students virtually by using the technology, such as computers, laptops or notebooks through which assignments are sent to students via Google Classroom or WhatsApp. To interact verbally with students across distances, the communication application Zoom is used, and the grammatical exercises or reading comprehension exercises are sent through Google Classroom, which offers a feature through Google Docs to simplify students' tasks in the writing competence. Therefore, e-learning is web-based education that allows students to study without being physically present in class. Cai, H. (2012) concludes that e-learning could liberate the heavy labour of teachers and enable students to easily master English.

To stimulate student learning activities to improve English competence during e-learning, it is necessary to apply an appropriate learning method (Ismail, Sunubi, A. H., Halidin, A., Nanning, Kaharuddin. 2020). Considering that English language competence covers four skills—listening, speaking, writing and reading—the GTM and DM learning models are assumed to be able to motivate students' learning activities through virtual learning. Assignments for grammar and reading comprehension exercises are sent via Google Classroom, and listening and speaking practice are conducted through Zoom.

B. *The Grammar Translation Method in E-Learning of English*

The GTM is a traditional style of learning and teaching English in which lecturers usually require students to translate a text and understand the grammatical rules used in the text (Kaharuddin, A. 2018). This method relies on the activity of reading and translating text. It is widely used and applicable for large classes. Although it is a traditional method, it remains applicable; Elmayantie, C. (2015) highlights the reasons teachers use GTM in language learning. She finds that this method enables students to improve their English vocabulary and comprehend reading passages. Khan, A. B., Mansoor, H. S., and Manzoor, S. (2016) further mention that the GTM allows students who are learning English to become accustomed to and understand new vocabularies.

The GTM uses the same techniques as other methods, including translating, reading to obtain information from a text, enriching vocabulary mastery by practicing antonyms and synonyms, using words in sentences and performing grammatical exercises (Larsen-Freeman, D. 2000; Bahar, K. 2013). As one strategy in the GTM, translation has a role in language learning (Stern, H. H., & Allen, J. P. B. 1992) and contributes to the students' acquisition of the target language (Fazal, S., Majoka, M. I., & Ahmad, M. 2016). Therefore, this method is helpful for teaching students the skills of writing and reading comprehension. In this research, this method is applied to teach writing and reading comprehension by using technology tools that provide Google Classroom, through which assignments on writing and reading comprehension are sent to students. Therefore, the following hypotheses are assumed:

Hypothesis 1: GTM has an effect on e-learning with communication applications in learning and teaching of English.

Hypothesis 2: GTM has a direct effect on students' English competence.

Hypothesis 3: GTM has an indirect effect through e-learning with communication applications.

C. The Direct Method in E-Learning of English

The DM is oriented to teach listening and speaking skills when the lecturer uses the language in the classroom directly and the students are listening. Translating the spoken sentences into the mother language if students do not understand is avoided; however, in such cases, the lecturer must have strategies to enable students to understand, such as visual aids or demonstrations (Titone in Chakrabarty, A. K., 2017). This method, which disseminates the language verbally and actively in classroom teaching, is ideal. Rather than focussing on the grammar rules, direct use of the language in the classroom must be encouraged, and grammar is included (Chakrabarty, A. K. 2017).

Norland, D. L., and Pruett-Said, T. (2006) propose several stages in implementing the DM in teaching English in higher schools. The stages are as follows: 1) the lecturer shows pictures to students to discuss; 2) the lecturer describes each picture in English; 3) the lecturer, speaking English, asks students about each picture; 4) students answer the questions in English. In short, for all activities during the learning process, students must use English verbally to improve listening and speaking skills. Virtual learning and teaching of English with the DM, as has occurred during COVID-19, provides room for these processes through Zoom. All learning participants may interact with each other directly and virtually. Therefore, the following hypotheses are assumed:

Hypothesis 4: DM has an effect on e-learning with communication applications in learning and teaching of English.

Hypothesis 5: DM has a direct effect on students' English competence.

Hypothesis 6: DM has an indirect effect through e-learning with communication applications.

Hypothesis 7: E-learning with communication applications has an effect on students' English competence

III. METHODOLOGY

This research is a quantitative descriptive study that aims to gather quantifiable information to present statistical analyses of a population sample (Abidin & Kaharuddin. 2021). It involved 100 students from Economics Higher School of Bongaya in Makassar City, Indonesia. The variables were GTM (X_1) and DM (X_2) as the independent variables and English competence (Y_2) as the dependent variable. E-learning using Zoom and Google Classroom as mediating variables (Y_1) were employed to explain the causal relationship between the independent variables (X_1 and X_2) and the dependent variable (Y_2). The data were collected virtually through a questionnaire sent to the respondents via Google Classroom and email when the e-learning was conducted.

The data collected were analysed by using SPSS version 21. The research hypotheses were analysed by the following methods:

1. **Instrument test.** This test covers the validity test and reliability test. The validity test ensures that the research instrument is valid by correlating the value of each item and the total value of a variable using Pearson's correlation product moment (r) with significance degree of 5%. The reliability test analyses the consistency of the students in answering the questionnaire, which is calculated with Cronbach's alpha. The students were considered consistent in answering the questionnaire, and students' answers were considered reliable if the value of the Cronbach's coefficient alpha was above 0.6.
2. **Classical assumption test.** This test assesses normality and multicollinearity. The normality test examines the distribution of the residual variable in the regression model by using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. It is considered to be normally distributed if the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) Kolmogorov-Smirnov $Z > 0.05$. Asymp. Sig. stands for Asymptotic Significance which refers to the test of probability value (p-value) to ensure that the tested distribution is not significantly deviating from the expected distribution of two-tailed. The multicollinearity test analyses whether the regression model contains a correlation between the two independent variables by using the variance inflation factor (VIF). If the value of the VIF is smaller than 10.00, then it means that there is no multicollinearity, and a tolerance value of greater than 0.10 means that multicollinearity exists.
3. **Inferential statistical analysis.** This test analyses the data by using partial analysis in SPSS version 21.
4. **Hypothesis testing.** The direct and indirect effects of the GTM and DM as independent variables on the students' English competence and on the dependent variable are tested. The hypotheses are
 H_0 : Variables X_1 and X_2 have no direct effect on Variable Y_2 .
 H_1 : Variables X_1 and X_2 have a direct effect on Variable Y_2

IV. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

As stated in the methodology, questionnaires were used to collect the research data. There were 100 questionnaires distributed via Google Classroom. However, only 97 respondents returned the questionnaires, and among them, two were considered flawed and thus were not used in the data analysis. The validity of the questionnaires was tested by comparing the value of r_{table} (the table containing correlation values or values of r with which the value of $r_{\text{calculation}}$ is compared to determine the significance level of the correlation test of Pearson Product Moment) and the value of $r_{\text{calculation}}$ (the value of r produced by SPSS test, a measure of linear correlation between two variables). In this research, only 95 questionnaires were analysed. The value of r_{table} was 0.202 taken from the table of r values with a significance level of 5%. This value was then compared with the value of $r_{\text{calculation}}$ (the correlation value produced by SPSS test) to determine the validity of the questionnaire items.

Therefore, SPSS version 21 was used, which revealed that each item had correlation value above the value of r_{table} , and the value of $r_{\text{calculation}}$ was greater than the value of r_{table} . This proved that the validity criteria had been fulfilled in all statements and in each research variable; therefore, the data could be scrutinised further. In the reliability test, the value of the reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was 0.396, which was greater than the value of r_{table} (0.202), which means that the questionnaire items were reliable or consistent in providing the information required in this research. Hence, if this instrument is resubmitted in another study, the result will be the same as in this research.

Two classical assumption tests were exercised in this research. They are the normality test and multicollinearity test. For the normality test (using SPSS version 21), the value of Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) for Kolmogorov-Smirnov was greater than 0.05 (0.071 > 0.05). This indicated that the residual variable was normally distributed. Additionally, for the multicollinearity test, the tolerance value of each variable was greater than 0.10 and the value of the VIF was smaller than 10.00. In this case, the tolerance value of X_1 was 0.995, which was greater than 0.10, and the value of the VIF was 1.005, which was less than 10.00. The tolerance value of X_2 was 0.949, which was greater than 0.10, and the value of the VIF was 1.054, which was less than 10.00. The researcher concluded that there was no multicollinearity problem in the regression equation model used in this research.

In part analysis, the analysis was performed twice and thus produced two models: Model 1 and Model 2. In Model 1, the dependent variable is communication applications (Y_1), and in Model 2, the dependent variable is students' English competence (Y_2). This part analysis examined the direct and indirect effects of using X_1 and X_2 on students' English competence (Y_2) with communication applications as the mediating variable (Y_1). The two models produced are included below

1. Model 1

In Model 1, the communication application was the dependent variable, and the GTM and DM were the independent variables. The result of this part analysis of Model 1 is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
PART ANALYSIS MODEL 1
Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	2.992	.436		6.868	.000		
GTM	.061	.087	.071	.697	.488	1.000	1.000
DM	.171	.077	.225	2.225	.029	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Computer Application

The table above shows the value of the standardised coefficient of the independent variables as part coefficient of X_1 and X_2 . The part coefficient matrix is arranged as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho_{y1x1} \\ \rho_{y1x2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.071 \\ 0.225 \end{pmatrix}$$

The part analysis of Model 1 also shows the value of the determinant coefficient as denoted in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DETERMINANT COEFFICIENT (R^2) OF MODEL 1
Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.236 ^a	.056	.035	.25669	2.349

a. Predictors: (Constant), DM, GTM

b. Dependent Variable: Computer Application

The determinant coefficient as shown in the table above is 0.056. Calculating manually the value of R squared changes the path coefficient matrix for X_1 and X_2 into row matrices, which are multiplied with the Y_1 column matrix. From the determination coefficient, the part coefficient of other variables outside the model can then be calculated: $\rho Y_{1\varepsilon}$.

$$\rho Y_{1\varepsilon} = \sqrt{1 - 0.056} = 0.763$$

1) Path Coefficient of $\rho Y_1 X_1$

The hypothesis of this part coefficient of $\rho Y_1 X_1$ is:

2) $H_0: \rho Y_1 X_1 = 0$

3) $H_1: \rho Y_1 X_1 \neq 0$

For the part coefficient of $\rho Y_1 X_1$, namely, from the path X_1 to Y_1 , Table 1 shows the column *Sig.* as 0.488, which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, H_0 is accepted and H_1 is rejected which means that the part coefficient for X_1 to Y_1 is statistically not significant.

2) Path Coefficient of $\rho Y_1 X_2$

$H_0: \rho Y_1 X_2 = 0$

$H_1: \rho Y_1 X_2 \neq 0$

For this part coefficient of $\rho Y_1 X_2$, namely, from the path X_2 to Y_1 , Table 1 shows the column *Sig.* as 0.029, which is smaller than 0.05. Therefore, H_0 is refused and H_1 is accepted, which means that the part coefficient for X_2 to Y_1 is statistically significant

2. Model 2

For the part analysis of Model 2, the students' English competence is the dependent variable, and the variables of GTM, DM and communication application are independent variables. The analysis result of Model 2 is presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
THE RESULT OF PATH ANALYSIS OF MODEL 2
Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	<i>t</i>	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	3.345	.418		8.005	.000		
DM	-.005	.056	-.009	-.088	.930	.967	1.034
GTM	.144	.054	.277	2.670	.009	.995	1.005
ComApp	-.014	.091	-.016	-.151	.880	.971	1.030

a. Dependent Variable: English Competence

The table above shows the value of *standardised coefficients* for X_1 as 0.277, for X_2 as 0.009 and for Y_1 as 0.016. The matrix path coefficient is as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho y_2 x_1 \\ \rho y_2 x_2 \\ \rho y_2 y_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.277 \\ 0.009 \\ 0.016 \end{pmatrix}$$

TABLE 4
DETERMINANT COEFFICIENT (R^2) OF MODEL 2
Model Summary^b

Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> Squared	Adjusted <i>R</i> Squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.206 ^a	.042	.011	.30997	1.936

a. Predictors: (Constant), CompApp, GTM, DM

b. Dependent Variable: Eng Comp

The determinant coefficient is 0.042, which can be manually calculated by altering the path coefficient matrices for X_1 , X_2 and Y_1 to path matrices and then multiplying by the column matrix for Y_2 . The path coefficient of other variables outside the model $\rho Y_{2\varepsilon}$ is calculated:

$$\rho Y_{2\varepsilon} = \sqrt{1 - 0.042} = 0.79$$

1) Path Coefficient $\rho Y_2 X_1$

$H_0: \rho Y_2 X_1 = 0$

$H_1: \rho Y_2 X_1 \neq 0$

For the path X_1 to Y_2 , the column *Sig.* in Table 3 is 0.009, which is smaller than 0.05, meaning that H_1 is accepted and H_0 is rejected.

2) Path Coefficient $\rho Y_2 X_2$

$H_0: \rho Y_2 X_2 = 0$

$H_1: \rho Y_2 X_2 \neq 0$

The path coefficient $\rho Y_2 X_2$ shows the column *Sig.* value is 0.930, which is greater than 0.05. It means that H_1 is rejected and H_0 is accepted.

3) Path Coefficient $\rho Y_2 Y_1$

$H_0: \rho Y_2 Y_1 = 0$

$H_1: \rho Y_2 Y_1 \neq 0$

For the path coefficient $\rho Y_2 Y_1$, the column *Sig.* has a value of 0.880, which is greater than 0.05. It means that H_1 is rejected and H_0 is accepted.

3. Hypotheses Test

Based on the data analysis about the effect of X_1 on Y_1 , the significant value of X_1 is 0.488, which is greater than 0.05, and the value of $t_{\text{calculation}}$ (0.697) is smaller than the value of t_{table} (1.661) or $t_{\text{calculation}} < t_{\text{table}}$. It proves that the GTM has no effect on the e-learning with communication applications in learning and teaching of English. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 (GTM has an effect on e-learning with communication applications in learning and teaching of English) is rejected.

Furthermore, the result of the analysis of the effect of X_1 on students' English competence (Y_2) denotes that the significant value of X_1 is 0.009, which is smaller than 0.05, and the value of $t_{\text{calculation}}$ (2.670) is greater than the value of t_{table} (1.661) or $t_{\text{calculation}} > t_{\text{table}}$. It means that the GTM has a direct effect on students' English competence. Hence, Hypothesis 2 (GTM has a direct effect on students' English competence) is accepted.

Stated in Table 3, the direct effect of X_1 on Y_2 is 0.277, and the indirect effect of X_1 through Y_1 on Y_2 is the multiplication of the β value of X_1 on Y_1 with the β value of Y_1 on Y_2 : $0.071 \times 0.016 = 0.001$. Therefore, the total effect of X_1 on Y_2 is the direct effect plus the indirect effect: $0.277 + 0.001 = 0.278$. It means that the direct effect is greater than the indirect effect of GTM on the students' English competence. It means the e-learning of English with communication applications offers no significant contribution to the effect of GTM on students' English competence. Hence, Hypothesis 3 (GTM has an indirect effect through e-learning with communication applications) is refused.

From the analysis of the effect of DM (X_2) on e-learning with communication application in learning and teaching English (Y_1), the significant value of X_2 is 0.029, which is smaller than 0.05, while the value of $t_{\text{calculation}}$ (2.225) is greater than the value of t_{table} (1.661) or $t_{\text{calculation}} > t_{\text{table}}$. It indicates that DM has an effect on e-learning with communication applications. Hence, Hypothesis 4 (DM has an effect on e-learning with communication applications in learning and teaching of English) is accepted.

With regard to the direct effect of DM (X_2) on the students' English competence (Y_2), the result shows that the significant value of X_2 is 0.930, which is greater than 0.05, and the value of $t_{\text{calculation}}$ (0.088) is smaller than the value of t_{table} (1.661) or $t_{\text{calculation}} < t_{\text{table}}$. It means that DM has no direct effect on students' English competence. Hence, Hypothesis 5 (DM has a direct effect on students' English competence) is refused.

The direct effect of DM (X_2) on students' English competence (Y_2) is 0.009, and the indirect effect of X_2 through Y_1 on Y_2 is the multiplication between the β value of X_2 on Y_1 with the β value of Y_1 on Y_2 : $0.225 \times 0.016 = 0.0036$. The total effect of X_2 on Y_2 is the direct effect plus the indirect effect: $0.009 + 0.0036 = 0.0126$. Therefore, the value of indirect effect is greater than the value of the direct effect, which means X_2 has an indirect effect on Y_2 that is mediated by Y_1 . It means that DM has an indirect effect on students' English competence that is mediated by e-learning with communication applications. Hence, Hypothesis 6 (DM has an indirect effect through e-learning with communication applications) is accepted.

From the analysis of the effect of e-learning with communication applications on students' English competence, the research result shows that the significant value of Y_1 is 0.880, which is greater than 0.05, and the value of $t_{\text{calculation}}$ (1.151) is smaller than the value of t_{table} (1.661) or $t_{\text{calculation}} < t_{\text{table}}$. It means e-learning with communication applications has no effect on students' English competence. Hence, Hypothesis 7 (E-learning with communication applications has an effect on students' English competence) is rejected.

B. Discussion

The GTM and the DM have been widely used in learning and teaching English in higher schools. However, during the COVID-19 pandemic, teachers have been forced to carry out a virtual learning process using technology as a learning aid. Therefore, in this e-learning of English, Zoom and Google Classroom have been used to mediate the learning and teaching process. Its mediating role is expected to contribute to explaining the effect of the GTM and the DM on students' English competence.

To help students develop their online learning English competence, one of the determining factors is the use of learning methods that are expected to improve student learning outcomes, especially those relating to the development of English mastery competencies. Considering that English is a skill that includes listening, speaking, writing and reading, the GTM is used to teach writing and reading with electronics that have Google Classroom. This application is used to send assignments on grammar or reading comprehension, and the students must upload their answer in the same room. Concurrently, listening and speaking skills are taught by the DM via electronics that have the communication

application by which the lecturer and students or students and other students are communicating in English. Thus, the four skills are related in the learning process at each meeting.

Research on the use of these two methods for virtual teaching of English with communication applications as a mediating variable reveals that the GTM in teaching writing and reading comprehension has a direct effect on students' English competence, with the standardised coefficient value of 0.277, which is greater than 0.05. It means that the use of GTM in learning English can contribute 27.7% to the improvement of students' English competence. The greater the value of the standardised coefficient, the greater the effect of GTM on students' English competence. The results of this study are in line with the research results of Khan, A. B., Mansoor, H. S., and Manzoor, S. (2016), which state that GTM has an effect on increasing writing and reading skills. Thus, the mediation of Google Classroom in explaining the effect of GTM on students' English competence did not make a significant contribution. Therefore, GTM is applicable in learning English offline, especially writing and reading comprehension, which is facilitated in the face-to-face learning process.

Furthermore, the DM as another independent variable whose effect on students' English competence was analysed demonstrates the standardised coefficient value of 0.009, which was smaller than 0.05. This means that DM only contributes 0.9% to the improvement of students' English competence. However, this method has an indirect effect of 1.26% through Zoom on students' English learning competence. This means that mediating e-learning with communication applications explains the effect of DM on students' English competence with a significant contribution, such that the DM in teaching English, especially listening and speaking, should use electronic aids with communication applications, such as the Zoom application

V. CONCLUSION

The conclusion of this research is that the GTM is more suitable in teaching English offline, because electronic mediation with applications such as Google Classroom does not have a significant effect in explaining the effect of GTM on students' English competence. The direct effect of this method on the students' English competence proves that this method is applicable for face-to-face learning processes in which students get direct information and explanation from the lecturer and may ask questions directly for things they do not understand and get immediate answers. However, the DM based on the research result has a significant positive effect on students' English competence when using electronic mediation with Zoom as a medium of communication between lecturers and students and between students and other students. For this reason, the DM is suitable for use in learning English during this COVID-19 pandemic, particularly in teaching listening and speaking skills.

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Affordances and Common Grounds in Buyer-Seller Interactions

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Abstract—This study examines the interactions between buyers and sellers in the market setting using the common ground theoretical framework. From the existing literature, it is observed that no research work has examined the above subject matter in the Igbo language using the above mentioned theoretical framework. This is the lacuna in the literature that this study intends to address. The specific objective is to explore the interactions between presuppositions, stages of understanding an utterance and reception strategies in buyer-seller interactions during haggling. Ten interactions were recorded and three of them were sampled in this study. The data were analyzed using the common ground theory. The findings of the study reveal that both the seller and buyer often have the generic structure of buyer-seller interactions in their subconscious, which they put into practice when they engage in market discourse. Also, the buyers and sellers update their personal or emergent common ground as they negotiate meaning during interactions. Furthermore, as the result of the common ground shared by the buyer and the seller, they interpret every utterance based on the affordances of a speech event in a market setting where a buyer is under no obligation to buy after haggling nor is the seller obligated to sell. It also discovers that presupposition is at the heart of grounding because at every interactive turn, a speaker believes that the addressee understands his/ her intentions. The researcher recommends further research on the pragmatic implications for the use of multiple codes during buyer-seller interactions in Igbo land.

Index Terms—affordances, interaction, common ground, presupposition, buyer-seller

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of buyer-seller interactions has been critically studied from different perspectives: Pragmatic Acts (Alo & Soneye, 2014), Speech Acts (Chakrani, 2007); Power Asymmetry (Lampi, 1993); Generic Structure Potential (Mitchel, 1957; Long 2012), Systemic Functional Grammar (Jatmiko, Setiawan & Sulisty, 2018), Transaction Cost (Morsy, 2017) and Discourse Strategies (Ayoola, 2009; Moseri, 2010). On the other hand, the common ground theory has been explored in other discourse and activity types excerpt market discourse (Monk, 2003; Kecskes & Zhang, 2009, 2013; Vandergriff, 2006).

Interactions between interlocutors can take place anywhere, be it at the roadsides, markets, buses, classrooms, school environments, hospitals and offices (Suwandi, 2008). The conversational setting which is emphasized in this paper is the interactions that take place in the market, which are referred to as market interactions, market discourses or buyer-seller interactions. As participants engage in market discourses, they often negotiate meaning through a process known as haggling. According to Alo and Soneye (2014), haggling is an important aspect of the social activity of buying and selling in which Vendors and their prospective customers engage in different socio-pragmatic acts in the processes of negotiating and making compromises, using a language or different languages. As buyers and traders meet, they come with their goals and during the interactions, negotiate meaning based on the common ground they have about market interactions. Market discourses are not done haphazardly. In other words, it follows a sequence or structure. Alo and Soneye (2014) posit that there are five stages in market interactions:

Salutation: This is the beginning of the proceedings with appropriate salutation by the participants. When it occurs, it involves at least two speakers – a buyer and a seller. **Enquiry:** as to the object of sale which consists of question and answer pairs. **Investigation:** This relates to the object of sale which may involve at least two people. **Bargaining:** This takes place between the buyer and the seller until an agreement is reached. **Conclusion:** This may involve the final tone of one of the participants or both (emphasis in the original) (p. 45).

Comparatively, Long (2012) identified eight stages of market interactions in Sibu, China which include following: Sale Demand, Sale Investigation, Sale Commencement, Greeting or Salutation, Sale Agreement, Goods Supply or Handover, Purchase and Purchase Conclusion or Closure. Out of the eight stages, Long, further contends that four of the stages such as: Sale Demand, Sale Agreement, Purchase and Goods Supply or Handover were compulsory stages of

the retail encounter with Sale Demand, Purchase and Goods Handover stages being obtained without verbal utterances or words. As will be shown in this study, ethno-pragmatic factors such as model of goods sampling and time-saving motive can make a buyer to skip the stages of salutation, enquiry and investigation. This may happen when the seller may have seen what he/she intends to buy and moves straight to bargaining.

Since there are differences across languages and cultures, there is a propensity for the existence of differences in the mutual knowledge shared by interactants in market discourse. As such, Chakrani (2007) contends that market discourse does not require one to know the ethnolinguistic rules that regulate interpersonal relationships but also knowledge of which locutions are appropriate to a specific discourse or activity type. This implies the mutual contextual beliefs which exist in different speech communities differ. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the interactions between presuppositions, stages of understanding an utterance and reception strategies in buyer-seller interactions through the theoretical insights of common ground and generic structure of market discourse.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Studies

Here, different theories which can be used to analyze the data for this study are reviewed for proper understanding.

1. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis, which henceforth will be called CDA, is an aspect of discourse analysis that deals with the relationship between discourse and power. It is credited to Norman Fairclough. It was developed and advanced from what was previously stated by Teun Van Dijk (1995). According to the proponents, CDA studies power and power relations, and how power is reproduced in the society. In analyzing power, the critical discourse analyst looked at the reproduction of power in the society (this is in line with Dijk's argument). CDA examines context, ideology and power. In his 1989 and 1995 models for CDA, Fairclough lays down three inter-related dimensions and three inter-related processes of analysis for the dimensions. The dimensions comprise: the item of analysis (comprising verbal/spoken, visual/visible, or verbal/spoken and visual/visible texts); the procedures alongside the mode to which the item is made and acquired (writing/speaking or uttering/designing and reading/listening/viewing) by human subjects; and the socio-historical situations that guide these procedures. A distinct type of analysis needed according to Fairclough (1995) for each of this dimensions are: (i) Text Analysis (description) (ii) Processing Analysis (interpretation), and (iii) Social Analysis (explanation). This approach is useful as it permits one to centre on the signifiers that constitute the text, their particular linguistic selection, the way they are juxtaposed, the way they are sequenced, and their layouts.

Van Dijk's (1995) approach to CDA is ideology based. For him, what people talk about and what they say represents what is conceivable in their minds. As such, he adopts a socio-cognitive approach in his model. Wodak (1996), on her part, approaches CDA from the historical aspect saying that the past and present should account for discourses. Its multidisciplinary nature is where the strength lies. But this on the other hand gives the researcher tedious work in trying to proffer a specific solution or an adequate interpretation to the context or text in question. Another shortfall as seen in Breeze (2011) is that it is highly conditioned by political choice other than scientific investigation. Based on the power relations of CDA, it can be used to analyze how power asymmetry manifests in buyer-seller interactions. This will enable an understanding of who holds more power between the buyer and the seller. However, CDA is not used for analysis in this study because unraveling power asymmetry is not the focus of this study.

2. Common Ground Theory

The Common Ground Theory (henceforth, CGT) is a theory of communication which emphasizes context and presupposition for interpretation of meaning. CGT was propounded by Stalnaker (1974, 1978) and has been applied by several formal pragmatists such as (Heim, 1983; Beaver, 1997; Von Stechow, 2006). Stalnaker (1978) maintains that for interlocutors to be able to co-construct meaning effectively, they must have a communicative background between them. Communicative background means that the interlocutors must have a mutual understanding of the information being exchanged in communicative events. The necessity of having a mutual understanding of the communicative events makes presupposition an important concept in CGT.

Stalnaker (1974) postulates that:

A statement P is a pragmatic presumption or assumption of a speaker in a particular situation/setting just in case the speaker presumes or believes that P presumes or believes that his addressee presumes or believes that P, and presumes or believes that his addressee acknowledges that he is making or building these presuppositions, or has these beliefs (p. 573).

Stalnaker (1978) adds that, "presuppositions are what is taken by the speaker to be the common or usual base of the partakers in the conversation, what is treated as their common usual knowledge or reciprocated knowledge" (p. 30). As such, the hearer should be able to interpret the referential information being communicated at the time of discourse. Heim (1990) supports Stalnaker's (1978) claim that common ground and presupposition are related because the common ground of a context of utterance is the concurrence of all those propositions that speakers presumed in that context either as they are constantly apportioned beliefs in their community, or as they have been constituted at the period of the previous conversation. Similarly, Kecskes and Zhang (2013) concur that there is a relationship between

propositions and common or usual ground that in propositions what a sentence requires are just those that must be required by the common or usual ground of any situation that is to allow that particular sentence. Stalnaker (2002) opines that “it is common or usual ground that of a class, if all members *accept* (for the aim of the conversation) that *Y*, and all *believe* that all accept or welcome that *Y* etc” (p.716). This implies that once interlocutors have no difficulty in understanding each other, they have a common ground between or among them. Scholars have variegated views about CGT. Allan (1986) conceived it as a theory of context. Duranti (1997) referred to it as theory that emphasizes sensitivity to cultural and procedural knowledge while Temitope (2015) describes it as a theory of shared public data structure.

Kecskes and Zhang (2009) assert that there are three distinct means intention and attention influence the structure of common ground in the mode of communication. According to them, the first one is that the speakers activate mental exhibitions of shared information that they already have. The second way is that speakers look for knowledge that possibly helps communication as reciprocated information. They note that before the speaker builds the seeking attempts, the bit of information is not important in the hearer/listener as background underlying the anticipated conversation/discussion. The third is when the speaker puts forward her personal or individual information and makes it a part of common/usual ground. The speaker has some personal or individual information that she perceives is not accessible or unattainable to the hearer/listener, and she embraces it as common or usual ground in the belief that it enables the conversation/discussion and that the hearer/listener will accept it readily.

In CGT, distinction is made between communal and personal common ground (Clark, 2006) or what Kecskes and Zhang (2009) refer to as core and emergent common ground. The two terminologies discuss the same thing. Communal or core common ground refers to the knowledge that the whole community has. This knowledge does not change and they are binding on all the members of a given speech community. On the other hand, personal or emergent common ground is the knowledge that changes and is particularized, which is shared and privatized by individuals. (cf. Clark, 2006; Kecskes & Zhang, 2009). In the Igbo context for instance, the saying *ezigbo mmadu ka chinchi* (used in expressing fake care) is a communal common ground in the sense that any Igbo person who is competent in the language will be able to understand the message contained in the statement. At the personal level, two persons may have different expressions to communicate the same message, which may not be understood by a third party. It is worthy of note that in most cases, personal common ground may become communal especially in this 21st century when expressions are publicized through music, movies and jokes and social media platforms (cf. Aboh, 2018).

Furthermore, common ground is updated at every turn in interactions through a process known as grounding (Clark & Schaefer, 1989). Clark (1996) contends that “people try to ground what they do together” (p. 221) during interactions as well as other forms of joint actions such as playing chess, shaking hands or playing a duet. Clark and Brennan (1991) add that as interlocutors further their discussion, they maintain their common ground and update it at every turn. They further remark that as interlocutors continue in their joint action, they come to share more and more information. In this way, common ground piles or increases (Clark & Brennan, 1991). As Clark and Brennan (1991) posit, each contribution in interactions contains two phases: the presentation phase and acceptance phase. In the demonstration stage, “A” presents utterance [u] for “B” to think about. He does so with the presupposition that, if “B” offers evidence [e], he can believe that she comprehends what he means by [u]”, whereas at the welcoming or receiving stage, “B welcomes utterance [u] by showing [e] that she believes she comprehends what A means by [u]. She does so on the presupposition that, when “A” registers that evidence, he will also believe that she comprehends” (Clark & Brennan 1991 p. 130). They further add that anytime A makes an utterance, the speaker sees himself in one of the four conditions for all or part of the utterance [u]. The four conditions are:

State 0: “B” didn’t observe that “A” spoke any *u*.

State 1: “B” observed that “A” spoke some *u* (but was not in Condition 2).

State 2: “B” rightly heard *u* (but was not in Condition 3).

State 3: “B” comprehended what “A” meant by *u*.

From these four conditions, it could be deduced that they spanned from not hearing the utterance to understanding the message communicated by the speaker. Kecskes and Zhang (2013) submit that sometimes the hearers may disregard common or usual ground that is operated by a presumption, or they may also miss the knowledge upgrade by a statement and so on. This may take place as a result of lack of care, or there remain other cognitive barriers like amnesia or other mental disorders disarrays. In such cases, vigorous attempts are called for to accomplish common or usual ground for the partakers. In line with these states, Vandergrift (2007) develops grounding techniques or strategies for face to face interactions. The four strategies which Vandergrift developed are: global reprise, specific reprise, hypothesis testing, and forward inference that will enable a listener to play an active role in order to fulfill the goal(s) of the interaction. The strategies are summarized in the table below:

TABLE 1
RECEPTION STRATEGIES

Reception Strategy	Definition	Examples
Global reprise	Listener/recipient queries straight away for repeating, rephrasing or simplifying of a previous utterance.	I beg your pardon.
Specific reprise	Listener/recipient queries an interrogation remarking a particular word, term or piece that wasn't comprehended in a preceding utterance.	Ekene went where?
Hypothesis testing	Listener/recipient queries a question concerning facts/realities in a previous utterance to prove that s/he has comprehended	Ekene went to the market?
Forward inference	Listener/recipient openly shows her present condition of comprehending by asking a question employing particular (presented) knowledge	[If Ekene went to the market] why did he not pick up some cake on the way back?

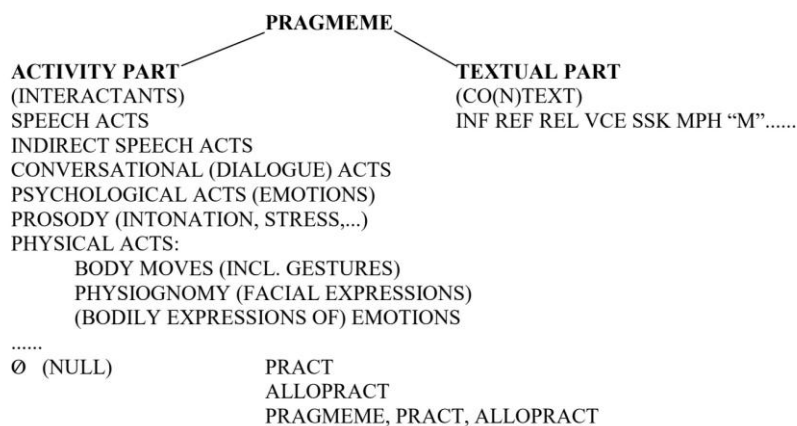
Adapted from Vandergrift (2007: 470)

The essence of the reception strategy is to ensure that all interlocutors understood all that have been said. From the table above, it can be deduced that reprises, on the one hand, show lack of clear understanding, hypothesis testing and forward inferences show partial understanding as well as the desire to fully understand the discourse. Suffice it to say that these reception strategies are a subset of grounding tools (Clark & Brennan, 1991).

Another aspect in CGT is coordinating devices. Coordinating devices are rationale for mutual anticipations that make partners believe they will converge on the same joint action (Clark & Wilkes-Gibbs, 1986). Two major aspects of coordinating devices are conventional procedure and explicit agreement. According to Bamgbose (2019), conventional processes extend from rules and regulations to less formal codes of suitable conduct. They are not habits or practices but rules such as ending at the red traffic light or putting knives on the right hand. Explicit agreement is occurrences of dialogue in which parties explicitly communicate their own intentions. In other words, explicit agreement is whatever that is clearly stated in the discourse which is expected to guide the joint activity.

3. Pragmatic Acts Theory

It is pertinent to note that in order to make up for the inadequacies of Speech Acts theory, the pragmatic acts theory was proposed. Mey (2001) in particular, asserts that the speech act theory is non-located: therefore, there is need for the pragmatic act theory that centres on the analysis or investigation of a text in its context. He develops the concept of pragemme which is presented in the schema below:



Adapted from Mey (2001)

Figure 1: Illustration of Tenets of Pragmatic Acts

Mey (2001) in his view asserts that Pragmatic Act Theory centres on “the context in which both speaker and hearer/listener detect their affordances, such that the whole condition is brought to bear on what can be said in the condition, as well as what is really being said” (p. 221). This idea is expressed as a pragemme, a generalized pragmatic act considered as the only force correlated with making utterances (Odebunmi, 2008). A pragmatic act is manifested through an ipra or a pract, which recognizes a pragemme. Furthermore, Mey (2001) adds that a pract is “the same as an allopract, that is to say a physical manifestation of a specific pragemme” (p. 221). What determines a pract is the partakers’ knowledge of the context of interrelationship and the possible or expected consequence of a pract in a specific context. Practing resolves the problem of differentiating illocutionary force from perlocutionary force (Odebunmi, 2008).

From the foregoing schema, it is observed that the column to the left lists the different choices that the [S]peaker and [H]earer have at their disposition when they are speaking. Thus S may select one of the options; if all the cells are

empty, the matrix goes to zero, showing the borderline case of silence (Mey, 2001). The column to the left shows the textual part, that is, the environment within which the pragmeme functions. Ajayi (2017) maintains that:

For relevant communication, the interactants hang on such speech act kinds as indirect speech acts, conversational ('dialogue') acts, psychological acts, prosodic acts and concrete acts. These are used in settings, which comprise: INF depicting "inference"; REF, "relevance"; VCE, "voice"; SSK, "shared situation knowledge"; MPH, "metaphor"; and M "metapragmatic joker". The interrelationships among the activity and textual parts result in a pract or an allopract (p. 313).

B. Empirical Studies

Vandergriff (2007) examined how common ground is negotiated in computer-mediated versus face-to-face discussions. The objective of the study was to compare learners' use of reception strategies in traditional face-to-face (FTF) and in synchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC). In this study, a total number of eighteen students of advanced German took part. In the subsequent semesters, ten men and eight women were register in one of two advanced German courses for students with at least two full years of university-level German. The study identified specific types of reception strategies used in negotiating common ground. The finding reveals that the medium alone appears to have slight influence on grounding as showed by use of reception strategies. It was revealed that part takers accommodated the strategies to the goals of the communicative relation as they employed them mainly to bargain and upgrade common ground on their collective activity rather than to recompense for L2 inadequacies. The relationship between Vandergriff's research and the present one lies in the fact that they explore common ground in interactions. But they differ in the nature of data. The former made use of CMC data, the latter made use of face-to-face market interactions.

Long (2012) studies the discourse characteristics of vendor-customer interactions in a transactional context in Malaysia. The research centers on the schematic structures of negotiations in the retail engagement and the languages employed for several villages of the encounter. For the analysis of the study, a total of number of 100 naturally-occurring interactions or negotiations among vendors and customers in a traditional Chinese cake shop in Sibul were recorded in audio form. Appropriate contextual information and non-vocal utterances of the vendors and customers were remarked and recognized. The study adopts semi-structured interviews with the sellers to get their views of the transactions. In this study, a total number of fourteen transactions were recorded and analyzed to verify the discourse characteristics of the retail encounter in the cake shops of the same type. The findings reveal that the cake shop businesses were obtained in eight functional stages namely: Sale Demand, Sale Investigation, Sale Commencement, Salutation, Sale Agreement, Goods Supply or Handover, Purchase and Purchase Conclusion or Closure. Out of the eight stages, the study reveals that four of the stages (Sale Demand, Sale Agreement, Purchase and Goods Supply or Handover) were compulsory stages of the retail encounter with Sale Request, Purchase and Goods Handover stages being realized non-verbally. Stages which functioned as salutations and closings were rarely existed in the retail engagement of the present study. All the stages of this study weren't confined by any particular sequence. The outcomes also show that the choice of language for interaction relied on the ethnicity of the customers, in which Mandarin and Chinese vernacular languages (Foochow, Hokkien) were used for intra-ethnic communication whereas Bahasa Melayu and Bazaar Malay were used for inter-ethnic communication. The choice of language for the transactions in this study was defined by the customers and the sellers adjusted to the choice by code switching. Long (2012) found out that switching in the content words correlated to price, type, quantity, turn, availability and appreciation showed the directed significance of such words in transactional interactions, and to the stages of the Investigation, Sale Demand and Purchase Conclusion or Closure being represented in a language that was distinct from the language of the transactions. Inasmuch as both Long's (2012) research and the present one focus on market interactions, they differ in geographical area of study and theoretical framework.

Alo and Soneye (2014) explored haggling or bargaining exchanges among vendors and their three big open air market places in Southwest Nigeria; one in Ibadan (Bodija market) and two in Lagos (Katangwa and Agege) metropolis respectively from a socio-pragmatic perspective. The objectives of the study were to: determine socio-pragmatic patterns in language use in contact situation in the Nigerian multilingual/multicultural market context; determine language choice pattern in these situations, and establish peculiar socio-pragmatic characteristics with reference to specific speech acts and their functions. The data for the study were obtained through audio recording of eight interactions between vendors and customers. The data were analyzed using Dell Hymes' ethnography of communication, aspects of Mey's pragmatic acts theory and Gricean cooperative maxims. The study reveals that various languages such as English, Yoruba, Pidgin, Igbo and Hausa come into contact with one another in the market transactions in Lagos and Ibadan metropolis in Nigeria. It also discovers that vendors and their customers make use of numerous bargaining and pragmatic tactics which consist of greetings, humour, cajoling, flattery, pleading, swearing, abuse together with code-switching and code mixing. The study further shows the pragmatic use of interrogatives, declaratives, exclamatives and imperatives in bargaining interactions. Inasmuch as both Alo and Soneye's (2014) research and the present one focus on market interactions, they differ in geographical area of study and theoretical framework.

Jatmiko, Setiawan and Sulistyono (2018) explain the function of language in Sell-buy transactions in Klewer Market Surakarta (Indonesia). The study covers instrumental function, regulatory function, representation function, interaction

function, individual function, heuristic function, and imaginative function. It adopts Halliday's systemic functional grammar as the theoretical framework. In this study purposive sampling method was used to obtain the data from the transcript of the sale and purchase dialogue in Klewer Market Surakarta. The study discovers that heuristic function dominates or overtops the conversation and the form of bargaining between seller and buyer in Klewer market Surakarta can be employed as the Indonesian language learning material in senior high school. Inasmuch as Jatmiko, Setiawan and Sulistyo's (2012) research and the present one focus on market interactions, they differ in geographical area of study and theoretical framework.

C. Summary of the Literature Review

Under literature review, some competing theories that can be used to analyze buyer-seller interactions were reviewed. Related empirical works which researchers and scholars have done were also reviewed. From the empirical review, it was observed that attention has not been given to buyer-seller interactions from the common ground perspective. This lacuna is what this research wants to fill.

D. Theoretical Framework

The theory that is used for the analysis of data is the common ground theory. There are many theoretical insights in CGT but this research will focus only on the interaction among presupposition, stages of understanding of utterance and reception strategies in the data for the study. This kind of analysis aids in capturing the role of common ground in understanding utterances.

III. METHODOLOGY

Data for this study were obtained from Eke Awka, a market in Awka metropolis, Anambra State in the Southeast Nigeria. Ten market interactions which were carried out in the mother-tongue were audio recorded and translated. The recording was done surreptitiously in order not to taint the naturalness of the encounter. Because of space and to avoid repetition, three buyer-seller interactions were sampled and used for analysis in this study. The data were analyzed using the theoretical framework of common ground.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Common Ground in Buyer-Seller Interactions

Text A

1. Buyer: Madam, kee ka i si ere azu ndi a?
(Madam, how do you sell these fish?)
2. Seller: Nke a N250. Nke a N300. Nke a N600, i kwee onu obere.
(This one is N250. This one is N300. This one is N600, then you price a bit).
3. Buyer: Madam, azu gi ndi a galakwara onu o.
(Madam, these fish of yours is costly o).
4. Seller: Mama anyi gotekwara ha ngala onu. Ma ka osiladi gwa m oge ole i ga-acho izu ha.
(Our mother bought them very costly. Also, but all the same, tell me the price you would like to buy them).
5. Buyer: Nke a, o buro N300? (Pointing at the one of N600)
(Is this one not N300?)
6. Seller: Mba, o diro mma. Ngwa wete N450.
(No, it is not good. Okay, bring N450).
7. Buyer: I ga-enye m ya N350?
(Will you give me for N350?)
8. Seller: Tinye ya N50 ka m mete gi kostona.
(Add N50 let me make you my customer).
9. Buyer: Ngwa kechie ya.
(Package it then).

In the above interactions, there is a common ground between the buyer and the seller that since the point of interaction is not a supermarket where there are price tags to the goods; it then presupposes that bargaining is allowed. Both the buyer and the seller also have a common ground that they have their turns to speak. Inasmuch as greeting has been identified as one of the elements of buyer-seller interactions, from the above excerpt, it can be deduced that greeting was optional. The buyer who is older than the seller feels it is unimportant to greet her younger one. Also consider the cultural aspect because in Igbo land, adults do not greet the younger ones. But on the other hand, she prefers to call the seller *Madam* as a pragmatic strategy of persuading her to lower the price for her.

All the interactive turns in text A operated at the stage 3 of understanding of utterance because at each turn, the hearer understood what the speaker said. As such, they have the characteristics of the forward inference reception strategy. In the first turn (1-2), the buyer asked a question and this presupposes that the question was directed to someone and that it needs an answer. Based on the communal common ground that when a buyer requests for a sale and

there are different sizes to the same commodity, the seller is expected to list the prices of these different sizes (2). The seller achieved this through combining verbal (saying the price) and nonverbal (pointing to the different sizes) means of communication.

Furthermore, the buyer and seller share a common ground on pricing in market setting. In communicating this common ground, the seller did not say exactly the price of the fish because she knows that saying the exact amount and sticking to it may deter the buyer from buying since there is no fixed price for the commodity. The buyer presupposes that the initial price is not always the final price and so she starts bargaining and negotiating meaning with the seller from turn 1 to 8 until when the bargaining was closed in turn 9 when the buyer asked the seller to package the fish.

Text B

(The seller beckons on the buyer)

1. Seller: Costumer, bja ka m resi gi, aga m eresị gi ofuma.
(Customer come, I will sell to you at a better price)
2. Buyer: Nke a bụ oge ole?
(How much is this?)
3. Seller: Weta N350.
(Bring N350)
4. Buyer: Hĩa! obere ihe a.
(Hĩa! This little thing)
5. Seller: Lịtụlụ kwa? Kweenụ ọnụ.
(Little? You are free to price)
6. Buyer: Ọ bụrọ N200?
(Is it not N200?)
7. Seller: Mba ọ dịrọ mma. Tinye ya N50 ka mụ justụ resi gi ya.
(No, it is not good. Add N50 let me just sell it to you).
8. Buyer: Mba! Ọ peka na N250. Ị ma enye m ya N200? Nyenụ m ya.
(No! It is too small for N250. Will you not give it to me for N200? Sell it to me).
9. Seller: Mba ọ dịrọ mma. Mụnwa egoterọ ya N200 fọkwa ire N200. Geenu m wụ sọsọ N30
(No, it is not good like that. I did not even buy at N200 talk more of selling it for N200. My profit is just N30).
10. Buyer: Okay o!. Ị chọrọ nị iresi m. Ka m pụbanụ. Ọ kwa ime ahĩa ka m nọ?
(Okay o!. You don't want to sell to me. Let me leave. Am I not in the market?)
11. Seller: Gawanụ. Amosu.
(Leave then. Witch).

Normally, it appears rude for someone to beckon on someone he/she does not know. But in the market setting, the seller and the buyer share a common ground that everybody that comes to the market has a transaction in mind. It then presupposes that even though someone did not come to the market for a transaction, he will not be angry if a seller beckons on him/her. This is evident in text B where the seller beckons on the intending buyer. In text B also, it can be seen that there was no greeting. The pragmatic function of the use of 'customer' is to create a feeling of familiarity between the seller and the buyer even though the buyer may not have bought something from the seller before. From turns 1-10, the interlocutors engaged in the process of grounding as they bargain.

The turns in text B have the features of forward inference because the messages are in the bid to move the communication forward. In turn 4, the effect of the buyer's expression of surprise, shock and anger using the discourse marker *Hĩa!*, is a strategy to make the seller reconsider lowering the price. When the buyer and the seller could not update their common ground to the point where they will reach a consensus, the buyer left without buying. In reaction, the seller called her *Amosu*. Due to the fact the buyer understands the common ground in market interactions; she did not react to the derogatory remark because she knows that it is wont of many sellers. If someone had called her *Amosu* in another setting maybe in an office, she would have confronted the person. Inasmuch as Chapman and Routledge (2009) state that talk in social interactions is a collaborative process where a conversation is not ended in an abrupt manner that would deprive any of the participants of the right to contribute, yet in haggling, perhaps due to lack of money and the very little resources of some buyers, the interactions ended non-cooperatively, thereby, violating the cooperative principles.

Text C

1. Buyer: Mkpurụ beans gi ndị a amaka. Kee ka i si ere ofu painter?
(These beans of yours are very good. How much is one painter?)
2. Seller: Sọsọ one thousand naira.
(Only one thousand naira)
3. Buyer: Sọsọ kwa? Ihe a na-ere N750. Kee zi mgbe o ruru one thousand?
(Only? What is sold for N750? When did it reach one thousand?)
4. Seller: Kee mgbe i goro ya last?
(When was the last time you bought it?)

5. Buyer: Does it matter?
6. Seller: Yes na. Maka na ihe e gotere taa abughị ihe a ga-egote echi. O nwere ike price adaa or rigoo.
(Yes of course. Because the price it was bought for yesterday is not the same for today. It may rise or fall).
7. Buyer: Madam rapu akuko. Ego ole ka i ga-enye m last?
(Madam stop telling a story. How much is the last price?)
8. Seller: Ngwa wete N950
(Bring N950 then).
9. Buyer: Hmmm Madam, i ka nokwa far. O di ka i choro ka m gote gi ahia ka i mete m customer.
(Hmmm Madam, you are still far. It is like you don't want me to be your customer by selling the goods to me).
10. Seller: Kee kwanu ihe ozọ m ji puta ebe a? Ka i choziri ka m ree nke m ga-ere hapu iputazi ozọ. Kwuzienụ ọnu ka m resị gi.
(What else brought me here? Or do you want me to sell the one I will sell and I will not come out again. Bargain well let me sell to you).
11. Buyer: Ngwa ka m tinye N50.
(Okay, let me add N50).
12. Seller: Mba. Oya wete N900. O di mma na N900. Gakwa ebe ozọ kwee ọnu.
(No. Bring N900 then. It is good at N900. Go another place and price).
13. Buyer: I ma nye m N850?
(You won't sell for me at N850?)
14. Seller: Mba. O dirọ mma.
(No. It is not good).
15. Buyer: Ngwanu ka m kwee ọnu ebe ozọ.
(Okay then, let me go and haggle at another place).
16. Seller: Nsogbu adiọ. O buru ofu ihe, i bia tanyere m.
(No problem. If it is the same thing, come and patronise me).

Just like in the other interactions, there was no greeting in the interactions in text C. Due to the common ground shared between the buyer and the seller that greeting in this kind of interaction is optional, the seller even though she was older than the buyer did not consider it as an obligation for the buyer to greet her nor her (the seller) to be greeted. As such, the global reprise was not employed. In addition, irrespective of the fact that the buyer did not greet the seller, she (the buyer) exhibited traits of politeness by the use of honorific like *Madam*. The pragmatic motive for using this honorific is to appeal and persuade the seller. By addressing the seller using the honorific, sellers are lured into selling at a cheaper price. Also, both the seller and employ code-switching during course of haggling to keep the transaction going smoothly

In turn 2, the seller demonstrates that she fully understood the utterance made by the buyer in turn 1, based on the common ground she has that when a buyer asks a question, the seller is expected to answer. If the seller fails to answer, the buyer may be moved to go to another seller. Furthermore, the seller also presupposes that since the buyer has indicated interest to buy from the commodity, she is expected to convince the buyer to buy from her. Hence, the statement she made in turn 2. By using the word *sọsọ* 'only', she communicates to the seller that one thousand naira is not expensive. In reaction, the buyer applies the reception strategy of hypothesis testing by asking *Sọsọ kwa?* to fully capture the facts in the preceding utterance in order to verify that she understood the seller. The adoption of this strategy demonstrates a misconstruction of meaning by the two interlocutors. Whereas one thousand appeared cheap to the seller, it was too expensive for the buyer. In order to update their common ground, the buyer priced N750 based on the previous communal or core common ground she has before as her pricing was based on what the cost was initially. During this interaction with the seller, the buyer and the seller understood that common ground can be emergent that was why the seller requested to know when the buyer bought the last paint of beans (4-8). In the bid to attune herself to the emergent common ground, the buyer offered to add N50 naira (11).

The negotiation continued until the point when the two parties could not reach at a consensus. The seller based on previous knowledge presupposed that it is not a must for a buyer to buy a commodity at the end of the haggling. Hence, she offered the buyer an alternative, which is to price elsewhere. This strategy was in the bid to make the buyer know that she is not hiking the price. This is the opposite of what happened in text two where the seller was impolite to the buyer. The pragmatic effect of this polite closure of bargaining is to persuade the buyer to come back and buy from her if she eventually discovers that the price is the same. It is worthy to note here that the seller made such polite requests because of background knowledge she has about sellers who often come back to the place they first haggled when they discover that the prices did not differ.

The buyer did not verbally complete her turn of the interaction. Rather she adopts the pragmatic strategy of silence as she leaves the place. The seller did not interpret the silence as impolite because based on the affordances and the common ground in market discourses, the silence has passed across a message which may be approval or disapproval of her request. If it had happened in another discursive event between mother and daughter and the mother is talking to the

daughter while the daughter walks away from her, based on the common ground shared in such speech event, the action of the daughter would be considered impolite. This is because she violated the Igbo pragmatic principle of *ezigbo nwa* (a well-mannered child).

V. CONCLUSION

This study has examined common ground in buyer-seller interactions. The study revealed that both the seller and buyer often have the generic structure of buyer-seller interactions in their subconscious. As they interact, they unconsciously put into practice the common ground i.e. what they have taken for granted during the interactions. The study further discovered that buyers and sellers update their personal or emergent common ground as they negotiate meaning during interaction. The study also revealed that presupposition is at the heart of grounding because at every interactive turn, a speaker assumes or believes that the hearer understands his/her intention. The findings of the study revealed that due to the common ground shared by the buyer and the seller, they interpreted every utterance based on the affordances of a speech event in a market setting where a buyer is under no obligation to buy after haggling neither does the seller have the right to force the buyer to buy. All the seller can do is to either adopt the pragmatic strategy of humour or honorifics to persuade the buyer to patronize her.

One of the findings of this study concurs, on the one hand, with that of Long (2012) who identified greeting in buyer-seller interactions as optional. On the other hand, it departs from the finding of Alo and Soneye (2014) that identified greeting as an obligatory element in buyer-seller interactions. The reason for this departure may be because of the differences between how Yoruba people (who were used in Alo and Soneye's study) and Igbo people (used in this study) value greetings. According to Odebunmi (2015), greeting in the Yoruba culture is a core component of *Omoḥiàbí* (a gentleman). Therefore, based on the affordances within the reach of the buyers and sellers used in this study, they did not feel offended when there was exchange of greetings or pleasantries. But in order to show an atom of respect, the buyers in some cases use the honorific *Madam* as a politeness marker.

This research work cannot claim that it has captured everything in buyer-seller interactions in Igbo land. It did not address how buyers and sellers use multiple codes while interacting neither did it dwell on politeness in market discourse. These areas should be looked into by researchers who want to examine buyer-seller interactions in Igbo land in the future.

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The Psychological and Cognitive Processes Underlying College Students' Demotivation to Learn English

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Abstract—This study aims to construct a model to explain Chinese college students' psychological and cognitive processes underlying their demotivation to learn English. Grounded theory method and cognitive maps were creatively combined to analyze the interview data from 21 college students in China's universities. This study found three paths underlying students' demotivation to learn English: 1) the large discrepancy between students' actual selves and their possible selves might firstly produce motivation for a short period but then could cause low self-efficacy and negative affects. The large discrepancies might also directly generate negative affects among college students; those different negative affects could lead to demotivation of English learning. 2) college students' low ought-to selves could cause their low ideal selves and then demotivation of English learning; 3) demotivation to learn English might also associate with low value of English learning in college students' minds. At the end of this research, some pedagogical implications are given based on those findings.

Index Terms—demotivation, psychological and cognitive processes, English learning, grounded theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation for language learning among students is a lasting topic among researchers, and numerous influential theories of motivation have been proposed in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) (e.g., Dörnyei, 2009; Gardner & Lambert, 1959). As the dark side of motivation, demotivation means gradually decreasing investment in the process of English learning among college students in this study (definition drawn from Clare, Renandya, & Rong, 2019; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; W. Zhang, 2016, etc.). This phenomenon also deserves research and has gradually drawn SLA researchers' attention in recent years. Falout, Elwood, and Hood (2009) thought EFL language learners' demotivation could cause a series of problems, including students' negative attitudes and undesirable behaviors, reduced class activity dynamics, decreased English teachers' motivation, and students' long-term unfavorable learning results. Therefore, Sakai and Kikuchi (2009, pp. 57-58), (Ghadirzadeh, Hashtroudi, & Shokri, 2012, p. 189), Boonchuayrod (2019), and Wang and Guan (2020, pp. 859-860) thought more demotivational studies of English learning should be conducted to help English teachers to solve students' demotivational problems and therefore improve their teaching quality. Moreover, demotivation to learn English among college students in many EFL countries is not a rare phenomenon (e.g., see, Boonchuayrod, 2019; S. Kim, 2015; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Trang & Baldauf, 2007). For example, numerous college students in China suffer from demotivation of English learning after they enter universities (Li, 2021; Li & Zhou, 2017). This problem poses a challenge for a great number of English teachers and learners there. From this perspective, demotivational studies should also be conducted to better understand this problem and to help EFL teachers and students in their English teaching and learning.

Currently, some studies have been conducted to investigate students' demotivation. However, some problems can be found in them. For example, although some studies explored the internal reasons for students' demotivation, those psychological and cognitive factors found in several existing studies seem scattered and independent from each other. Besides, demotivation of English learning is more frequently treated as a fixed result rather than a dynamic process in current studies. This study aims to narrow those research gaps and to construct a grounded theory model to explain the psychological and cognitive processes underlying Chinese college students' demotivation to learn English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Numerous studies have been conducted to investigate external factors resulting in students' demotivation of learning English (e.g., Muhonen, 2004; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009) and remarkable results have been achieved. For example,

teacher-related factors (e.g., their teaching competence, skills) (e.g., Akay, 2017; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Wang & Guan, 2020), teaching contents and materials (e.g., Li & Zhou, 2017), class characteristics and environment (e.g., Çankaya, 2018; T.-Y. Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2018) have been frequently mentioned. Apart from those external factors, students' internal factors for their demotivation to learn English have also attracted some researchers' attention. For example, besides English teacher related factors, Trang and Baldauf (2007) also found students' past learning experience, attitudes to English learning, and their self-esteem could be the potential demotivators. Ghadirzadeh et al. (2012) agreed that students' internal factors should not be ignored in the investigation of demotivation of English learning. They found that apart from the external factors, those internal factors, including lack of perceived individual competence and intrinsic motivation could be the demotivators among Iranian students. In addition, Sakai and Kikuchi (2009, p. 61) also found students' failure experience of English learning could also be one of the potential reasons for demotivation. However, although some studies found people's some internal factors are the potential reasons for students' demotivation to learn English, those internal factors are scattered and not systematic. Little research has been conducted to explore the relations among those factors and systematically link those different internal factors causing demotivation of English learning. This may be problematic considering that people's psychological and cognitive processes are often interrelated with each other (del Bosque & Mart ín, 2008; Su & Shum, 2019). In addition, students' demotivation to learn English is a dynamic process (Oxford, 1998; Trang & Baldauf, 2007), in which students' demotivational levels may fluctuate. This means those English learners' psychology or cognition related with English learning may have some changes in the process of being demotivated. However, demotivation of English learning was rarely treated as a dynamic process, but rather students' demotivation was more frequently regarded as a changeless final result in current studies (Zhou & Zhang, 2018). Therefore, the interrelations among the underlying psychology and cognition in the process of demotivation of English learning should be explored, and studies treating demotivation of English learning as a dynamic process should be conducted.

Considering the problems in current studies, this study treats demotivation of English learning as a dynamic process and has constructed a model to demonstrate the relations among students' psychological and cognitive processes underlying their demotivation to learn English.

III. METHOD

A. Instrumentation

In this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted among college students in mainland China's universities. To make the interview more efficient and effective, an interview guideline was designed firstly. After the initial version of the guideline was designed, peer examinations (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 249) were conducted. Two English teaching researchers (both with a doctoral degree in English teaching) were invited to evaluate the validity of the potential questions. The interview guideline questions were revised based on the suggestions from the two experts accordingly. After that, a mock interview was conducted to check whether the potential questions in the guideline could efficiently elicit desired answers from college students. The mock interview showed that the guideline questions were appropriate for the present study. In the end, an interview guideline with 8 questions was formulated. Those guideline questions could be found from Appendix 1.

B. Students Sampling and Data Collection

Theoretical sampling method (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) was used to choose participants for this study. Theoretical sampling is a process in which the researchers or analysts collect, code, and analyze data firstly and then decide what data to collect next and where to find them. The theoretical sampling process should not end until the data is saturated (Corbin & Strauss, 2014, p. 150; Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 45). According to the rules of theoretical sampling, the researchers one-on-one interviewed 21 students (see Table 1) from universities in mainland China based on the guideline questions (see Appendix 1) before the data was saturated. Before interviewing each participant, a confidentiality agreement was given to them. All the interviews were permitted to be recorded. The interview audios were transcribed into Chinese texts through <https://www.iflyrec.com/>, and those texts were proofread by the researchers after each interview.

TABLE 1
THE INFORMATION OF THE INTERVIEWEES

Student code	Gender	Grade (year)	Major	University	Interview way	Interview time
CXD	Male	Fourth	Geomatics Engineering	LIT	Online	12/04/2021
CJW	Male	First	Civil Engineering	XYNU	Face-to-face	16/04/2021
LYY	Female	Second	Business English	TJFSU	Online	19/04/2021
HQY	Female	Second	Translation	LIT	Online	20/04/2021
TYX	Male	Third	Power Supply & Distribution Engineering	LIT	Online	21/04/2021
LY	Female	Third	Translation	XYU	Face-to-face	21/04/2021
HYQ	Male	First	Computer Science	CSU	Online	22/04/2021
HMZ	Male	First	Electronic Information	HUST	Online	22/04/2021
YYX	Female	Fourth	Management	HUST	Online	24/04/2021
DHY	Male	Second	Film production	HBBC	Face-to-face	27/04/2021
DX	Female	Third	Digital media	HBBC	Face-to-face	28/04/2021
ZLB	Female	First	Logistics engineering	HBJC	Face-to-face	28/04/2021
ZKF	Male	Second	Music	HBYS	Face-to-face	30/04/2021
GKT	Male	Third	Arts	HIFA	Online	03/05/2021
GFR	Male	First	Preschool Education	HBBC	Face-to-face	04/05/2021
RDN	Female	Second	Landscape architecture	WIT	Face-to-face	06/05/2021
PKW	Female	First	Automobile engineering	WIT	Face-to-face	07/05/2021
TDG	Female	Fourth	Preschool education	WIT	Face-to-face	09/05/2021
YJL	Female	Second	Logistics engineering	WIT	Face-to-face	10/05/2021
JWH	Female	Third	Business English	WHU	Face-to-face	13/05/2021
HXS	Male	Fourth	Civil engineering	LIT	Online	18/05/2021

C. Data Analysis

This study analyzed the data based on grounded theory method (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). This data analysis method could be divided into three stages: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. It should be mentioned that data analyses were not finished with one-time process of the three coding stages. In fact, the three stages of grounded theory data analysis were recurrent. In this study, data analyzers coded, compared, integrated, and categorized the data recurrently before the final grounded theory model was generated. To make the data coding process convenient and efficient, the software of NVivo was applied.

1. Open Coding

Open coding is to code the texts based on lines or sentences with an open mind. Through open coding, related sentences and lines were coded into different concepts, which were used to identify the properties and dimensions of categories.

After transcribing the records of the 21 interviewees, 21 files were generated, which were imported into Nvivo and then analyzed with the open coding method. Overall, 1329 nodes were identified in Nvivo. After three stages of abstraction, 14 categories were generated. Table 2 demonstrates the conceptualization and categorization processes of open coding of the 21 files. However, in the following Table 2, only some original sentences are given considering the limited space of the table and paper.

TABLE 2
THE PROCESS OF OPEN CODING

Transcription sentence examples	Initial conceptualization (concepts)	Final Conceptualization (categories)
I don't think English research articles are difficult to read. I can understand the rough ideas of most of the articles.	good English reading ability	Solid language foundation
We can learn the vocabulary by ourselves rather than being instructed by our teachers in classes. That is time wasting.	good vocabulary learning skill	
From primary school to now, my grammar has not been good.	bad grammar	
My previous vocabulary was limited.	poor vocabulary	Weak language foundation
My pronunciation is poor. My classmates and English teachers often cannot understand what I am talking about.	poor pronunciation	
I did not pay attention to my listening skills in senior high. After I entered university, I could hardly understand any English spoken sentences.	poor listening skills	
My English learning method is not good for me.	unsuitable learning method	
I must learn English well to further my study abroad.	learn English for overseas study	High goal
I should be able to communicate with my future colleagues in foreign investment companies efficiently.	future work plan	
I don't need to challenge myself to practice difficult tasks.	difficult tasks avoidance	Low goal
About 8,000 English words should be remembered if I want to pass College English Test-6. That's too much.	large vocabulary requirement	High requirements
But students in English Corner in our universities should debate or discuss in "pure English". That is too difficult for me.	difficult debate or discussion	
Most of my classmates can pass the English exam easily at the end of semester if they review the hints given by our English teachers.	easy final exams	Low requirements
We have learnt almost all the grammar and a lot of vocabulary in the college English textbooks in senior high. I think I can learn them by myself.	repetitive teaching contents	
There are no speaking classes and tests in our school.	no speaking requirement	
I felt a sense of frustration when I learnt English for a long time but did not see much progress.	frustration	Negative affects
I hate English and English classes.	hate English	
When I read for more than three weeks, I still could not feel I made progress.	little progress	Undesired results
I think I cannot have a large vocabulary because I have a "funnel" memory.	no hope of large vocabulary	Low result expectancy
Passing CET-6 is almost impossible for me even if I try my best.	no possibility of passing CET-6	Low ability expectancy
We seldom use English in power supply. We use Chinese almost all the time.	power supply does not need English	Limited use opportunities
We don't have enough opportunities to communicate with others in English.	less use in life	
Engineering related classes are more important than English classes.	engineering more important than English	Limited significance
Translation APPs are very convenient, and they can translate for us immediately.	APPs' convenience	
I did try very hard to learn English during a period (2 months) when I began to prepare for PGEE.	long time spent on English grammar learning	Motivation
I want to spend more time on learning English.	English learning intentions	
I have given up learning English completely.	English giving-up	Demotivation
I found my time spent on learning English dropped gradually after I entered university.	less time spent	
My passion for learning English is always not very high.	low passion	

2. Axial Coding

Axial coding aims to develop main categories by exploring the relations among different categories and integrating related categories. In the axial coding process, 9 main categories (see table 3) were developed by comparing the 14 different categories in the open coding results and then integrating some related ones. For example, both solid language foundation and weak language foundation are about how students consider their actual English abilities. Therefore, those two categories were integrated as their English learning "actual self". Table 3 demonstrates the process of axial coding.

TABLE 3
THE PROCESS OF AXIAL CODING

Main categories	Categories	Connotation of main categories
Actual self	Solid Language foundation	How the English learner considers his or her English competence.
	Weak language foundation	
Possible self	High requirements	The attributes that the English learner believes one ought to possess to meet outside expectations or to avoid possible negative outcomes.
	Low requirements	
	High goal	The attributes one English learner wants to have even without external influences.
	Low goal	
Low value	Limited use opportunities	Value is the worth of learning English in students' minds.
	Limited significance	
Negative affects	Negative affects	Negative affect refers to those bad emotions, feelings, moods, and attitudes.
Low self-efficacy	Low result expectancy	Self-efficacy means the possibility one thinks the desired results or desired abilities can be achieved.
	Low ability expectancy	
	Undesired results	
Motivation	Motivation	Motivation means English learners have passion and persistence in learning English.
Demotivation	Demotivation	Misbehavior, or low investment in the process of English learning.

3. Selective Coding

Selective coding aims to further integrate and refine the main categories and to choose a core category from those main categories. In this data coding stage, large actual-possible self discrepancy emerged from the existing main categories and interviewing data. In addition, the core category was found from the main categories by utilizing cognitive maps (L. Zhang, 2011). Those cognitive maps were used to demonstrate the interview details based on causes and effects among a series of remarks on a certain phenomenon and display interviewees' mental representations

(Chaney, 2010). In this study, 21 college students were interviewed, and accordingly 21 cognitive maps were initially drawn, and then upgraded and integrated based on the results of open coding, axial coding, and the refinements of the main categories in selective coding. In the end, a comprehensive cognitive map demonstrating the relations among the core category and the other main categories was drawn.

Specifically, to get the final cognitive map demonstrating the relations among the 9 main categories, the original transcriptions of the 21 interviewees were reviewed again. Firstly, 21 cognitive maps of concepts were drawn based on the original data by applying the concepts from the open coding, and then their corresponding cognitive maps of categories and main categories were drawn based on the results of open coding and axial coding. This paper chose excerpts from 2 participants as examples to demonstrate the drawing and upgrading processes of the cognitive maps of concepts, categories, and main categories.

Table 4 displays the excerpt of CXD's interview transcription and its corresponding open coding results (concepts). Based on the excerpt, a cognitive map of concepts (figure 1) was drawn by analyzing causes and effects in the transcription data. With the open coding results in table 2, the cognitive map of categories (figure 2) was made by integrating the concepts into their corresponding categories.

TABLE 4
CXD'S INTERVIEW DATA AND OPEN CODING (TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH)

Transcription (excerpts)	Concepts
My demotivation to learn English is mainly from English test. After I prepared for the post-graduate entrance examination (PGEE) for long time, I found the English test in PGEE was still quite difficult for me. ... From primary school to now, my grammar is not good.... When I meet long sentences in the reading comprehension part, I always felt a little afraid. If I made too many grammatical mistakes or cannot understand the long sentences, I would feel frustrated. Then, I didn't want to learn English anymore for quite a long time. Yes, I did try very hard to learn English during a period (2 months) when I began to prepare for PGEE because, you know, English is a very important subject in PGEE. If you cannot get more than 40 points, you might fail the whole examination though your overall scores are very high, because each individual subject has a minimum score requirement. Because my grammar is not good, I have watched many related teaching videos. But I think grammar is too hard for me. when I did grammar test, I still made many mistakes. I was afraid I cannot pass the examination.... I avoided English learning when I have other tasks to do. When English teacher spoke English too much in class, I cannot understand. Besides, our English textbooks were too difficult for me. New Horizon College English textbook has too much difficult words. When I read the text in the textbook, I always had a sense of failure. ... I seldom review the textbook after English class unless the final English test was coming. ... In English class, I don't want to read the English texts. You know, sometimes our English teachers picked me to read a paragraph in our class, I don't want to open my mouth to read because I think my pronunciation is not standard, and some students may laugh at my accent. ... I felt very embarrassed when reading the paragraphs. I hate English classes. If it is possible, I won't attend English classes.	difficult PGEE; weak grammar foundation; afraid and frustrated; motivation declining; long time spent on English grammar learning; weak grammar foundation; little gains; afraid; no possibility of passing exam; motivation declining; cannot understand teaching contents; too difficult textbooks; sense of failure; low motivation; low motivation; afraid of opening mouth in class; weak speaking ability; embarrassed; negative attitude; low motivation

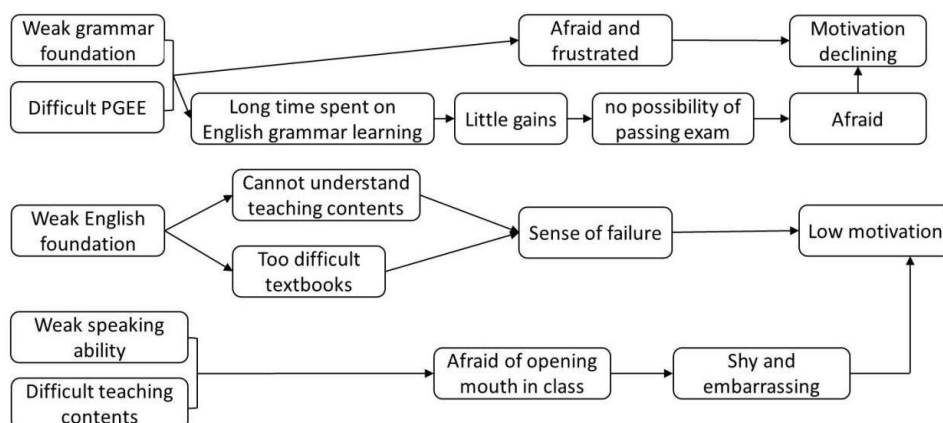


Figure 1 CXD's Cognitive Map of Concepts



Figure 2 CXD's Cognitive Map of Categories

CJW's cognitive maps were drawn based on the same process as that of CXD. His cognitive map of concepts is

demonstrated in figure 3 according to the transcription excerpt in table 5, and his cognitive map of categories was drawn based on the open coding results in table 2 and can be found in figure 4.

TABLE 5
CJW'S INTERVIEW DATA AND OPEN CODING (TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH)

Transcription (excerpts)	Concepts
Vocabulary is very important for English learning. I have tried to remember English words through different ways. But after I entered university, I recited words from dictionary rather than from glossary in guideline books for College English Test-4 or College English Test (CET-4 or CET-6), because I thought if I can remember the words in the dictionary, I will have enough vocabulary to pass CET-4 and CET-6. However, because my previous vocabulary was poor, it took me quite a long time to remember and review those vocabulary. I have spent a lot of time on learning and remembering those words in the dictionary, but when I want to use them, I still cannot remember them and don't know how to use them in writing and speaking. It made me very disappointed and frustrated, and I didn't have a sense of achievement.	high vocabulary objectives; low vocabulary foundation; long time spent on vocabulary learning; low learning effectiveness; don't know usage; disappointed and frustrated;
One of the most important methods is reading. But when I read every morning for more than three weeks, I still could not feel I made progress, then I would become unconfident whether I can improve my reading and speaking through this way. After about three weeks of reading, I gave up reading.	low learning effectiveness; unconfident; uncertain about result; motivation declining; little use in life;
We don't have enough opportunities to communicate with others in English. Sometimes, I think learning English is only for passing examinations and getting credits. We didn't pay much attention to English learning.	little meaning of English learning; low motivation; low exam requirements in universities; low motivation;
But at present, the requirements in university are very low. ... I don't need to pass CET-4 or CET-6.... Passing English exams in the final term is enough for me to graduate. ... Many students do not need to study hard, and they can pass English exams easily by only reviewing the hints given by teachers only before final English exams. I think that is far from enough for English using in the future.	low goal; low motivation; low goal;

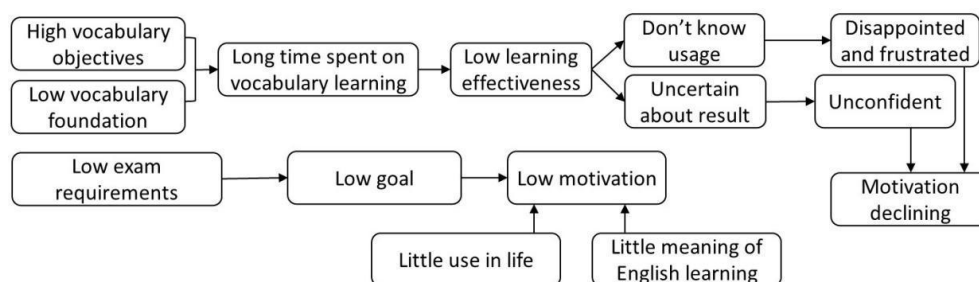


Figure 3 CJW's Cognitive Map of Concepts

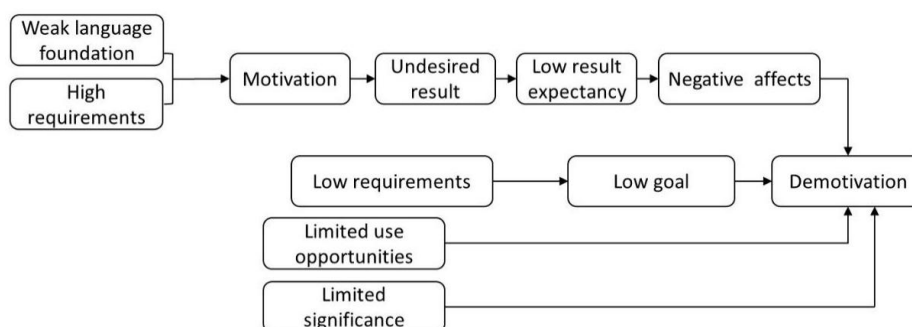


Figure 4 CJW's Cognitive Map of Categories

Based on the above-mentioned cognitive map drawing process, 21 cognitive maps of categories were drawn. The final integrated cognitive map (figure 5) was drawn by integrating the 21 cognitive maps based on open coding results. This integrated cognitive map of categories was continually abstracted based on the results of axial coding and further refinements of the main categories in selective coding, and the grounded theory model (figure 6) demonstrating students' psychological and cognitive processes underlying their demotivation to learn English was constructed in the end.

review the guideline-related contents before the final exams come. At other time, however, they seldom studied English but chose to learn some challenging and “difficult-to-pass” subjects.

C. From Low Value to Demotivation

Low value of English learning in this study means the low status or limited significance of learning English for college students. This study found that low value of English learning in students’ minds may also lead to their demotivation to learn English. In many of China’s universities, international students and teachers are rather rare. For some non-English majors, almost all their teachers and classmates speak Mandarin, and they almost never communicate with each other in English out of English classes. Therefore, some students may hold the opinion that English learning is only for getting credits and meeting the requirements for their graduation. Moreover, for many non-English majors, they would probably not use English anymore in their workplaces after graduation. Even if they meet some English instructions or operation manuals, they can use some cellphone APPs to scan the English texts, and the corresponding Chinese translations will appear almost immediately. Hence, the significance of learning English is quite limited for them, thus leading to their demotivation to learn English.

V. DISCUSSION

From the model constructed, it can be found that both very high requirements and very low requirements for English learning may be the potential origins for students’ demotivation of English learning. These findings are in line with the “i+1” hypothesis (Krashen, 1991). Krashen claimed that comprehensible input is an essential environmental ingredient for language acquisition. It not only means that input should be comprehensible for the acquirers, but also needs to contain “i+1”. The concept of “i+1” is a metaphor, among which “i” means the aspects of language already acquired, while “1” represents the level of language beyond learners’ ability but which they are ready to acquire. Comprehensive input indicates that the requirements of English teaching for language learners should be above learners’ current ability, but still within a certain degree of difficulty. In other words, if the input contains “i+2” (i.e., the complexity of the input or the requirement is far beyond learners’ current English competence), or “i+0” (i.e., the complexity of the input is the same as learners’ current English competence), the acquisition effectiveness will be limited (Cheng, 2011, p. 62). However, “i+1” hypothesis only indicates that very high requirements and far too low requirements of English learning in universities may negatively influence students’ English learning results. Krashen did not mention students’ underlying psychology and cognition related to such different requirements. How students’ psychology and cognition change when teachers violate the “i+1” rule are not elaborated. But the grounded theory model constructed in this research linked those external requirements with students’ psychology and cognition.

In the grounded theory model, large actual-possible self discrepancies could directly lead to negative affects. These findings have similarities with the self-discrepancy theory proposed by Higgins (1987). According to Higgins, Bond, Klein, and Strauman (1986), predominant discrepancies between actual self and ought-to self or ideal self could lead to different emotional vulnerability. This study found some students, when confronted with high English teaching requirements, tended to be very stressful and anxious. In addition, some students’ high goals (e.g., passing Test for English Majors (TEM), getting high scores in IELTS test) could also be the potential sources for their anxiety and stress.

This study found the low value of English learning in students’ minds could directly contribute to their demotivation behaviors, which partly lends support to expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964). According to expectancy theory, people’s motivation level equals the product of value multiplied by expectancy (Vroom, 1964, p. 14). Value – also called valence (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 18), means the significance, attractiveness, or needs of achieving one person’s goals. In this study, some students’ English motivation decreased when they found English has little use (i.e., low value) in their daily life and workplaces at present and in the future.

VI. IMPLICATIONS

This study investigated Chinese college students’ psychological and cognitive processes underlying their demotivation to learn English and found three paths causing their demotivation. The three paths in the theoretical model afford us some implications.

College English teachers should deliberate on making specific teaching requirements for students to help them construct appropriate L2 ought-to selves. The popularity of the grammar-translation teaching method in China (Du, 2021) causes low speaking and listening competences among numerous college students. Therefore, when English teachers are designing activities for English classes, they should be very prudent to make the English requirements of those activities suitable for students. For example, “all-English” discussions, debates, and explanations should be avoided for students with limited speaking and listening competences. This could help to decrease students’ ought-to self of English speaking and listening and therefore narrow the gap between actual and possible self. In addition, several interviewed college students in top universities universally admitted that the point of grammar and vocabulary teaching in their English classes was limited because they had learnt most of those grammatical points in their senior highs. For the vocabulary, many of them thought they could “accumulate vocabulary” outside English classes by themselves. Hence, English teachers in those high-ranking universities could heighten the complexity of the teaching contents in

terms of grammar and vocabulary or even shift the focus to the teaching of speaking and listening. Another important factor contributing to students' demotivation of English is the relatively low requirement of the final English tests. Five students in the interviewees mentioned advanced mathematics, or physics were difficult, and they were very likely to fail the final tests of the two subjects if they did not study hard. Therefore, they have high motivation to learn those subjects. While English teachers often gave some "hints" or review guidelines for the final tests, which reduced the test difficulty. Hence, students chose to learn English only before the final English test by reviewing the detailed guideline-related contents. Given this, review guidelines should be avoided, and the difficulty of final English tests may need improving in some universities. These measures will urge students to construct higher ought-to selves, thus contributing to the avoidance of demotivation.

English learners should construct appropriate L2 ideal selves by setting reasonable language learning goals. Goals which are too high may motivate English learners for a short period but may gradually be an obstacle and hence end with demotivation. Furthermore, excessive goals sometimes may not lead to motivation at all, but produce nervousness, and other negative affects, and eventually demotivation to learn English. This means that English learners should construct appropriate L2 ideal selves. For example, English learners could divide their big goals into small ones and achieve those small goals step by step. For students who want to pass a challenging test (e.g., IELTS or TEM), they had better make a long plan rather than preparing shortly before the test.

The other implication is that more opportunities should be provided for students to communicate in English to increase the value of English learning in their cognition. According to Vroom (1964), the value of a task is one of the important foundations for people's motivation. If students think English can be used in their daily life or in their future career, the task of English learning could gain more value in students' minds, thus helping to overcome their demotivation. Therefore, China's universities are suggested to accept more students and teachers from international communities and hold more activities to create chances of using English among students. As for non-English majors, interns or other opportunities could be provided to students to practice English in international companies or workplaces. This will contribute to improving the value of English in future careers in students' minds.

APPENDIX 1

(translated into English)

Guideline questions for the semi-structured interview

1. After you entered university, have you ever experienced demotivation to learn English?
2. When you began your study in the university, how was your motivation for learning English and how is it now?
3. Could you tell me, in detail, about your recent experience of English learning?
4. Could you describe the whole process of your declining motivation for studying English after you entered university?
5. What do you think were the factors leading to your demotivation to learn English?
6. Could you explain how those factors could lead to your demotivation of English learning?
7. Do you have other feelings, emotions, or ideas during your demotivated period of English learning that you want to make up?
8. Do you have some advice for college students to overcome their demotivation for learning English?

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Contrastive Analysis of Arabic-English Translation of Legal Texts

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Abstract—The present study aims to provide a contrastive analysis of Arabic-English translation of ten legal texts with an eye to evaluating the accuracy of the translation. The researcher collected the data from El-Farahaty's (2015) *Arabic-English-Arabic Legal Translation*. A contrastive analysis was developed to assess the accuracy of the translation of the legal texts selected. The examination of the source legal texts and the translations provided either by the authoress of the book herself or the sources from which she collected them revealed serious errors such as overtranslation, omission of translating important words in the source texts, wrong choice of equivalents in the target language, gloss translation, punctuation mistakes in the target texts and grammatical mistakes in the target texts. Further research on the assessment of Arabic-English translation of legal texts is required to encourage professional legal translators and scholars to approach legal translation more professionally and responsibly.

Index Terms—Arabic-English translation, faithful translation, legal texts, legal translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Employment contracts, official circulars and documents, national and international business contracts, marriage and birth certificates, graduation certificates and even job applications, among other official documents, are examples of legal texts (Cao, 2007; Gotti, 2009; Altarabin, 2018). Legal translation is considered part of technical translation on the grounds that the language used in legal texts tends to be specialized or technical (Malakhova et al, 2015; Cao, 2007; Trosborg, 1997). Legal systems differ from country to country, and so do their legal terminologies (Cao, 2007; Altarabin, 2018). A good legal translator should, therefore, be familiar with the legal systems of the language he/she carries out translation from and the language he/she carries out translation into (Ahmad & Rogers, 2007; Sarcevic, 1997; Trosborg, 1997; Smith, 1995; Emery, 1989) in order to produce as accurate a translation as possible. Accuracy is the most important element of legal translation (Simms, 1997), and to achieve accuracy, translators have to translate every single word in the source legal text. In translating legal texts, "it is desirable, if not imperative, to have the greatest possible degree of formal correspondence" (Weisflog, 1987, p. 191).

The general field of legal translation is relatively under researched (Juliette, 2020; El-Farahaty, 2015) compared to other fields of translation probably because translation scholars think that the field is subsumed in technical or specialized translation. Moreover, legal texts enjoy a special status in the minds of people and are treated as documents with a legally binding force which is tantamount to the power enjoyed by holy or sacred books (Tiersma, 1999) simply because if the law is broken, legal action will be taken and punishments will ensue. In this respect, the translation of legal texts requires translators to translate every single word in the source text to avoid making any errors if they choose to adopt other approaches to the translation of legal texts. Sarcevic (1997, p. 23) stresses this point by saying "Like the word of God in the Scriptures, the letter of law also demanded strict literal translation to protect it from heterodoxy. Thus, it was believed that the 'word power' of such texts could be retained only by word-for-word translation". The researcher of the current study believes that faithful translation as proposed by Newmark (1998) is the best method for translating legal texts as every word in the source text has an important meaning and merits translating into an equivalent word in the target text. Besides, faithful translation adheres to rendering the meaning of the source text into the target language.

There are a limited number of books on Arabic-English translation and/or English-Arabic translation of legal texts or part of it to the best of the researcher's knowledge and search (e.g., Hassan, 2019; Husni & Newman, 2015; El-Farahaty, 2015; Lahlali & Abu Hatab, 2014). However, the choice of El Farahaty's book *Arabic-English-Arabic Legal Translation* was made for some considerations. First, the researcher of the present study was assigned to teach a legal translation course at the Department of Foreign Languages, College of Arts and Sciences at the University of Nizwa in the Fall Semester 2020. He found an electronic copy of the book, downloaded it, read it and then selected some parts for his course as they provided a contrastive approach to Arabic-English translation and English-Arabic translation of legal texts and elaborated on the features of both legal English and legal Arabic. Second, the book maps out the different stages of translation in general and legal translation in particular as well as drawing on previous research on legal translation extensively. This makes the book a very good academic reference on legal translation with regard to Arabic-English-Arabic translation of legal texts. Third, while teaching the selected parts of the book to the students, the researcher of the present study noticed some mistakes in either the source texts provided by the authoress of the book,

the translations produced by the translators/researchers of the source texts or the translations suggested by the authoress herself. Since legal translation requires a high level of accuracy, the researcher decided to conduct a contrastive analysis of a sample of English legal texts along with their English translations with an eye to highlighting serious mistakes in the translation which affect the meaning expressed in the source texts and the accuracy of translation. The researcher of the current study is both an academic and a professional translator with experience in Arabic-English translation and English-Arabic translation of general and specialized texts, including legal texts.

A. The Objectives of the Study

As there is relatively little research done on the contrastive analysis of Arabic-English translation of legal texts, based on an extensive review of the literature available on this topic, the present study aims to bridge this gap and shed light on a sample of legal texts in Arabic along with their English translations. With this general aim in mind, the present study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- 1- To provide a contrastive analysis of the legal texts chosen for this study;
- 2- To identify errors in the translation of the legal texts under study;
- 3- To suggest accurate translation for the legal texts chosen for this study.

B. The Statement of the Problem

The present research study seeks to answer the following two questions:

- 1- Are the translations of the legal texts under study accurate?
- 2- What are the errors made in the translation of the legal texts under study?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The following section will provide a review of the literature available on legal translation in general and Arabic-English translation or English-Arabic translation of legal texts along with the various aspects and challenges of translating legal texts in both directions in particular. The researcher selected relatively recent studies on legal translation in an attempt to observe space limitations and provide a review of the most recent literature, although the literature abounds in studies that date back to the 1990s and earlier (e.g., Emery, 1989; Farghal & Shunnaq, 1992; Al-Bitar, 1995). The study will also shed light on Newmark's (1998) faithful translation as the most appropriate method for translating legal texts suggested by the researcher of the present study. This also represents the theoretical framework adopted in the present study.

A. Studies on Legal Translation

To begin with, Loiacono (2013) conducted a study on the strategies for translating legal documents from Australian English into Italian. The researcher of the above study proposed treating cultural legal terms as proper names and adopting the strategies used for translating proper names in the translation of culture-specific legal terms. The researcher mapped out the various approaches to, and strategies for, translating legal documents and strongly advocated the treatment of cultural legal terms as proper names implying the difficulty or impossibility of providing equivalents for such terms in the target language and culture. The scope of the above study and the pair of languages examined are quite different from the scope and pair of languages examined in the present study. The above study focused on one specific aspect of legal texts which is the use of culture-specific legal terms, whereas the present study focuses on testing the accuracy of the English translation of a select number of Arabic legal texts. The above study proposed viewing cultural legal texts as proper names which obviously cannot be translated, whereas the present study proposes adopting faithful translation when translating legal texts.

Hijazi (2013) conducted a study on the evaluation of Arabic translation of English legal texts produced by Google Translate. The researcher selected fourteen English articles from six legal contracts and fed them into Google Translate to assess the quality of the Arabic translation done by Google. The researcher assessed Google's translation of English legal texts in two terms, syntactic and lexical. The study arrived at the general finding that Google Translate produced gist translations of the legal texts which people with legal knowledge could understand. The assessment also showed that the tool could not be used as a useful translation service in the field of legal translation as there were syntactic and lexical errors in the Arabic translations of the English legal texts produced by Google Translate which affected not only the quality but also the accuracy of the translation. The scope and direction of translation of this study are quite different from those of the present study. However, the present study examines human translation of Arabic legal texts into English, while the present study examined the English translation of Arabic legal texts not only in syntactic and lexical terms but also in cultural terms. Finally, the above study used an error analysis to help categorize the errors detected in the translation outputs, whereas the present study employed a contrastive analysis to detect the errors made in the translation outputs.

Al Aqad (2014) conducted a study on Arabic-English translation of five marriage contracts to identify linguistic and cultural equivalence with regard to Arabic and English legal systems. The researcher adopted a pragmatic approach to comparing the meaning expressed in the source texts to the meaning conveyed in the target texts. The results obtained from that comparison led him to the conclusion that literal translation of some culture-specific terms and phrases in the

Arabic marriage contracts resulted in vague, incorrect meaning. Based on that finding, the researcher suggested using functional and communicative approaches to Arabic-English translation of marriage contracts. This study and the present study both examine legal translation from Arabic into English. Although the above study used Newmark's (1998) classification of translation methods and Baker's (1992-2006) levels of equivalence, the researcher did not explicitly adopt any specific method for his study, whereas the current study clearly showed that Newmark's faithful translation was the most appropriate method for translating legal texts. In addition, the general finding of the above study that literal translation cannot be followed in legal translation is in line with one of the findings of the present study that literal translation cannot be always followed when translating legal texts from Arabic into English.

Gotti (2016) carried out an exploratory study on the translation of legal texts from intralinguistic and interlinguistic perspectives. The researcher analyzed some legal texts and their translations and came to the conclusion that "the translation of legal texts is a very complex procedure, greatly conditioned by specific factors strictly depending on the different cultural, linguistic and legal environments in which it takes place." (p. 19). The present study agrees with the researcher of the above study that translation of legal texts is not a simple or easy task. The researcher of the above study also argued that translation of legal texts "may be influenced by different target users with their own legal culture and drafting traditions." (ibid). As this finding suggests, the scope of this study is quite different from the scope of the present study, and so are the languages compared and contrasted with regard to legal translation. Yet, the above study shed some light on very important issues of legal translation in terms of source languages, target languages, drafting traditions, target users and strategies adopted in legal translation in general.

Alrikabi (2017) carried out a study on the translation of twelve contracts from Arabic into English with any eye to identifying the errors made by professional translators in the English translation of the Arabic contracts. The study arrived at important findings on the English translation of the Arabic contracts at the linguistic, stylistic and cultural levels. The errors made in these fields made the translation both ambiguous and incorrect. One striking resemblance between the above study and the present study lies in the direction of legal translation which is Arabic into English. The scope of the present study is different from that of the above-mentioned study in terms of the types of legal texts used as the sample of the study. The above study used one type of legal texts represented in twelve English contracts, whereas the present study used different types of Arabic legal texts such as contracts, official documents, official speeches and the sorts. However, the types of errors identified in both the present study and this study are, for the most part, similar, despite the difference in the direction of translation.

Altarabin (2018) conducted a study on the challenges of translating English legal documents into Arabic. His study is a general investigation into the difficulties which legal translation poses to translators. He argued that the difficulties "include, but are not limited to, lexical features, connotative meaning, contextual meaning, intra-system difference, translators' [lack of] familiarity with legal terminology and lack of uniformity between legal documents in different legal systems." (p. 208). The findings of the present study with regard to errors in legal translation could be attributed to some of the difficulties proposed in the above study. The scope and pair of languages examined are, to some extent, similar in both the above study and the present study. However, the above study did not use any theoretical framework nor did it suggest any method for legal translation, unlike the present study which adopts faithful translation proposed by Newmark (1998) as both its theoretical framework and the most appropriate method for translating Arabic legal documents into English.

B. Newmark's Translation Methods

Newmark (1998, pp. 45-47) proposed eight translation methods which are word -for-word translation, literal translation, faithful translation, semantic translation, adaptation, free translation, idiomatic translation and communicative translation. The researcher thinks that 'faithful translation' is the most appropriate method for translating legal texts as "A faithful translation attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures" (Newmark, 1998, p. 46). This means that a faithful translation of any given legal text seeks to preserve the meaning of the source text which also entails preserving the meaning of every single word of the source text. In Newmark's own words, a faithful translation "attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realisation of the SL write." (ibid). The researcher of the present study also thinks that the adoption of faithful translation for translating Arabic legal texts into English will achieve what has been referred to as "legal equivalence" (Beaupre', 1986, p. 179).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Collection and Procedure

The researcher collected the data for the present study from El-Farahaty's (2015) *Arabic-English-Arabic Legal Translation*. In fact, ten Arabic legal texts, which varied in length and topics, along with their English translations were selected as the data to be examined and analyzed. Although the book examined Arabic-English translation and English-Arabic translation of legal texts, the researcher confined his study to the Arabic-English translation of legal texts in order to narrow the scope of his investigation. It should be mentioned that the authoress of the above-mentioned book took the legal texts from a variety of sources primarily concerned with legal translation (e.g Hatim et al, 1995; Mansoor, 1996b) and provided the English translations for those texts either from the same sources, and when there were no

translations, she proposed her own translations. To help analyze the source texts and the target texts in a visual manner, the researcher developed a contrastive analysis table.

B. Data Analysis

After selecting the Arabic texts with their English translations, the researcher devised ten contrastive analysis tables each of which included three columns; one for the source text, one for the target text and one for his own translation based on Newmark's (1998) faithful translation so that the reader will easily and readily spot the inaccuracies of the target texts. It is worth mentioning that the researcher drew on his long experience in translation to provide his own translations for the source texts and use them as model translations against which the target texts could be measured. The contrastive analysis conducted revealed serious lexical errors in the target texts which cannot simply be ignored as they, not affected the quality of translation, but they also provided different meanings for the target texts which made the translations unfaithful.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After collecting the data from El-Farahaty's (2015) *Arabic-English-Arabic Legal Translation*, the researcher examined the source texts and the target texts. It is worth mentioning here that the target texts were either translated by the authoress herself, El-Farahaty, or the authoress took them from other sources. The researcher examined both types of texts in terms of faithful translation as proposed by Newmark (1998). To help identify the translation errors spotted in the target texts, the researcher developed contrastive analysis tables in which he listed the source texts, the target texts and his own faithful translation. By looking at the tables, it is hoped that readers will have a general idea about the findings of the study which will be explained in detail in the subsequent paragraphs.

As Table 1 below shows, the first source text includes an Arabic word "سيادة" whose English equivalent is "sovereignty". However, the translator did not translate the Arabic word into English, although the word is very important and has a common equivalent in English. The authoress of the book should have identified this as a translation error and drawn attention to it as the text is legal and the word, which was not translated, is very important in legal and political contexts. Table 1 below provides the first source text, the target text and the faithful translation of the source text proposed by the researcher.

TABLE 1
SOURCE TEXT 1, TARGET TEXT 1 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 1	Target text 1	Researcher's faithful translation
يجب على كل مواطن أن يحمي ويصون استقلال البلاد وسيادتها وسلامة ترابها الوطني ... (El-Farahaty, 2015, p. 32)	The duty of every citizen is to protect and safeguard the independence of the country and the integrity of its national territory. (ibid)	Every citizen must protect and safeguard the independence and sovereignty of the country and its national territory.

In the second target text, there are two translation errors; one a wrong choice of word and the other an overtranslation which both result in an unfaithful translation. As for the first error, the translator translated the Arabic word "الرُّسُل" into English as "apostles" which does not cover the lexical and intended meaning of the Arabic religious word. The word should have been translated into English as "messengers". The other translation error spotted in this text is the addition of a word in the target text which has no Arabic equivalent in the source text at all. In other words, the translator overtranslated and added a translation of a word that does not exist in the source text. This is really dangerous and unacceptable at all. However, the authoress of the book did not comment on this grave error! She should have criticized the decision made by the translator to add a translation of a word that does not exist in the source text. But, she did not say anything about that. The Arabic phrase "وتجفيف منابعها الفكرية" was translated into English as "and drying out of its cultural and intellectual wells". The addition of "cultural" which has no equivalent in the Arabic source phrase is not justifiable at all. Table 2 below provides the second source text, the target text and the researcher's faithful translation.

TABLE 2
SOURCE TEXT 2, TARGET TEXT 2 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 2	Target text 2	Researcher's faithful translation
نحن أبناء وادي الرافدين، موطن الرسل والأنبياء... ومكتوب بلظى شجن المقابر الجماعية... وتجفيف منابعها الفكرية ... (ibid)	We, the people of Mesopotamia, the homeland of apostles and prophets ... and burnt by the flames of grief of the mass graves ... and drying out of its cultural and intellectual wells. (ibid)	We, the people of Mesopotamia, the homeland of messengers and prophets ... and burnt by the flames of the mass graves ... and drying out of its intellectual wells.

Those who know Arabic and English can easily see that the translator added the English adjective "cultural" which means in Arabic "ثقافية" that does not exist in the Arabic phrase! A miss is good as a mile, and overtranslation is an error especially in the translation of sensitive texts such as legal or political texts.

In the third target text, there are two errors of overtranslation. The source text is simple and short. Yet, the translator added two translation items one of which changed the meaning of the source text, and the other one was apparently redundant and tautologous. In the source text, there is the verb "تُفضي" whose English equivalent is just "result in", and not "may result in". The addition of "may" to the target text verb "result in" changes the meaning expressed and intended in the source text verb "تُفضي" from a fact into a possibility. In legal translation, translators have to be faithful

to the source text and its meaning; any addition, deletion or modification not only changes meaning but can also cause disputes, some of which might be both serious and hard to settle. The other error of overtranslation is the addition of the adjective “genocidal” which does not have any counterpart in the source text. The word “إفناء” in the source text is equivalent to “annihilation” in English. However, the translator added the adjective “genocidal” before “annihilation” unnecessarily and redundantly. The authoress should have identified these errors and commented on them in her book as her book deals with legal translation which should be accurate and faithful. Table 3 below provides the third source text, the target text and the researcher’s faithful translation.

TABLE 3
SOURCE TEXT 3, TARGET TEXT 3 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 3	Target text 3	Researcher’s faithful translation
يحرم اللجوء إلى وسائل تفضي إلى إفناء البنوع البشري. (El-Farahaty, 2015, p. 33)	It is forbidden to resort to such means as may result in the genocidal annihilation of mankind. (ibid)	It is forbidden to resort to means that result in the annihilation of mankind.

In the fourth target text produced by the authoress herself, there are several serious errors which render the target text as a significant departure from both the source text and the target language. The Arabic phrase “زملاؤكم الوزراء” was wrongly translated into “colleague ministers” which sounds strange in English since “colleague” and “ministers” are both nouns. The faithful translation for the Arabic phrase is “fellow ministers” as “fellow” is an adjective here modifying the noun “ministers”. The phrase “وما تقديركم المسؤولية إلا عربون تقدير” was also translated wrongly into English as “It is nothing but an appreciation”. The authoress used gloss translation to render that phrase, but she changed both the meaning and structure of the target phrase. The faithful translation for the above Arabic phrase is “Giving you this responsibility is but a token of appreciation”. The Arabic phrase “كرجل دولة محنك” was also translated wrongly by the authoress as she could not choose an appropriate equivalent for the Arabic adjective “محنك” which she mistakenly translated as “wise”, and “wise” is the equivalent of “حكيم” in Arabic, not “محنك”. Following faithful translation, the researcher suggested the English adjective “resourceful” as an equivalent for the Arabic adjective “محنك”. The Arabic phrase “كفاءاتكم” was translated wrongly into “your skills” instead of “your competence” as the English equivalent for the Arabic word “كفاءة” is “competence”, whereas “skill” is equivalent for “مهارة”. Finally, the Arabic phrase “في حقول التربية والتعليم” was translated into English by the authoress of the book wrongly as “in the field of teaching and learning”. The faithful translation for this phrase is “in the fields of education and teaching” as education and teaching are two interrelated fields whose Arabic equivalents are “التربية والتعليم”, while the proposed terms “teaching and learning” are equivalents for two completely different words in Arabic which are “التعليم والتعلم”. The best method of legal translation which accounts for accuracy is faithful translation, but it seems that the authoress ignored this method when she proposed her translation, although the book is about legal translation! Table 4 below provides the fourth source text, the target text and the researcher’s faithful translation.

TABLE 4
SOURCE TEXT 4, TARGET TEXT 4 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 4	Target text 4	Researcher’s faithful translation
أعظم هذه المناسبة لأعير لكم عن تمنياتي المخلصة بالنجاح والتوفيق في المهمة الجسيمة والصعبة التي أناطكم بها زملاؤكم الوزراء ورؤساء الوفود. وما تقديركم المسؤولية إلا عربون تقدير لخصالكم كرجل دولة محنك ودليل ثقة في كفاءاتكم كخص ذي باع طويل في حقول التربية والتعليم. (El-Farahaty, 2015, p. 36)	I seize this opportunity to wish you every success in accomplishing the challenging and difficult task which has been entrusted to you by your colleague ministers and the heads of delegations. It is nothing but an appreciation of your qualities as a wise statesman and confidence in your skills and long experience in the field of teaching and learning . (Author’s translation) (ibid)	I seize this opportunity to express my sincere wishes for your success and luck in the great and hard task which your fellow ministers and heads of delegations have entrusted you with. Giving you this responsibility is but a token of appreciation of your qualities as a resourceful statesman and proof of confidence in your competence as a person with long experience in the fields of education and teaching .

In the fifth target text as Table 5 below shows, there are three errors made by the authoress of the book. The first one is the mistranslation of the Arabic phrase “الأخ العقيد مُمَرَّ القذافي”. The authoress did not translate it faithfully by adhering to the word order of the source text which is important here. The faithful translation of this phrase is “Brother and Colonel Mu’ammār al-Qadhafy” and not “Brother and leader, Colonel Mu’ammār al-Qadhafy”. The other error is the misunderstanding of the noun which the Arabic adjective “العظيم” refers to. The authoress mistakenly thought that the adjective describes “ثورة”, while in reality it describes “قائد”. If the word described “ثورة”, it should be “العظيمة” instead of “العظيم”. The last error which is also very serious is the mistranslation of the famous revolution in the modern history of Libya known as “ثورة الفاتح” whose English equivalent is the September Revolution or Al-Fatih Revolution. Unfortunately, the authoress translated that culture-specific phrase literally which distorted the cultural dimension of the phrase. Table 5 below provides the fifth source text, the target text and the researcher’s faithful translation.

TABLE 5
SOURCE TEXT 5, TARGET TEXT 5 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 5	Target text 5	Researcher's faithful translation
الآخ العقيد معمر القذافي قائد ثورة الفاتح العظيم وملك ملوك أفريقيا. (ibid, p. 37)	Brother and leader, Colonel Mu' ammar al-Qadhafy, guide of the great victorious revolution and king of kings of Africa. (Author's translation) (ibid)	Brother and Colonel Mu' ammar al-Qadhafy, great leader of the September Revolution/ Al-Fatih Revolution and king of African kings.

The target text of the sixth legal text, as Table 6 below shows, contains two obvious errors which should not have escaped the attention of the authoress of the book. The first error is the mistranslation of the Arabic word “سكرتير” which is an example of loan translation as it is originally taken from Latin through either English or French. Unfortunately, the translator provided a wrong equivalent for it which is “Assistant”, and this word is an equivalent for another Arabic word which is “مُساعد”. The equivalent for “سكرتير” in English is “secretary”. The other error is the splitting of the noun phrase “مقر الوزارة” and the placement of the noun “الوزارة” in the end of the sentence. In this case, the correct translation of the phrase “في مقر الوزارة أو أحد فروعها” is “in the headquarters of the Ministry or its branches”, and not “in the headquarters or the branches of the Ministry”. Table 6 below presents the sixth source text, the target text and the researcher's faithful translation.

TABLE 6
SOURCE TEXT 6, TARGET TEXT 6 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 6	Target text 6	Researcher's faithful translation
يباشر المتعاقد واجبات وظيفة سكرتير لغات أجنبية في مقر الوزارة أو فروعها. 38) El-Farahaty, 2015, p. (The contracted party shall carry out the duties of Foreign Languages Assistant in the headquarters or the branches of the Ministry. (ibid)	The contracted party shall carry out the duties of the Foreign Languages Secretary in the headquarters of the Ministry or its branches.

The target text of the seventh source text which was produced by the authoress of the book contains three mistakes in translation. The first one has to do with the use of “shall” in legal contracts instead of simple present. In fact, the authoress mentioned this rule in her book, but she forgot to follow it when offering her own translation of a legal text. So, the Arabic expression “يُفسخ هذا العقد” should have been translated into English as “This contract shall be revoked” instead of “This contract is revoked”. The other mistake is in the mistranslation of the Arabic word “تلقائياً” which simply means “automatically” in English. However, the authoress translated it into English as “absolutely” which is equivalent for “مطلقاً” in Arabic! The third error is the mistranslation of the Arabic phrase “بدون تنبيه أو إنذار” into English as “without any prior notice”, although the English faithful translation of this short and simple phrase is “without any notice or warning”. It should be noted here that the authoress' translation “without any prior notice” is equivalent to the Arabic phrase “بدون أي سابق تنبيه”. Table 7 below provides the seventh source text, the target text translated by the authoress of the book and the researcher's faithful translation.

TABLE 7
SOURCE TEXT 7, TARGET TEXT 7 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 7	Target text 7	Researcher's faithful translation
يُفسخ هذا العقد فوراً وتلقائياً وبدون تنبيه أو إنذار في حال .. (El-Farahaty, 2015, p. 41)	This contract is revoked immediately and absolutely without any prior notice if. (Author's translation) (ibid)	This contract shall be revoked immediately and automatically without any notice or warning if ...

As for the target text of the eighth legal text, it was also produced by the authoress of the book. The examination of the target text with reference to faithful translation revealed serious errors made by the authoress. The first one is the mistranslation of the Arabic word “فقه” which has a common legal equivalent in English that is “jurisprudence”. The authoress translated it into English as “law” which is equivalent for “القانون” in Arabic. The other issue is the rendition of the Arabic phrase “نوع الجريمة المرتكبة والمعاقب عليها” into English as “the type of crime committed and which is therefore punishable”. As can be seen from the source phrase and the English translation provided by the authoress, the English equivalent of “المعاقب عليها” is simply “punishable” without the use of the relative clause. In fact, the words “المرتكبة” and “المعاقب عليها” both act as adjectives for the noun “الجريمة” in Arabic, and surprisingly enough their English equivalents “committed and punishable” also act adjectives for the noun “crime”. One wonders why the authoress did not provide those equivalents which could have retained a kind of lexical balance in the target text. The next error is that of omission followed by an error in punctuation in a short sentence. The Arabic sentence is “إذا كانت الجريمة يعاقب عليها القانون” which was translated into English as “If the crime is to be punished by death or hard labour or imprisonment, it is a felony”. The Arabic legal expression “يعاقب عليها القانون” has an English legal equivalent which is “is punishable by law”, and not as the authoress suggested “is punished by law”. The other issue in the above translation of the Arabic sentence above-mentioned is the repetition of the conjunction “or” twice just as in the Arabic phrase “بالإعدام أو الأشغال الشاقة أو السجن” which is wrong in English. Instead, a comma is used join the first and the second noun, and the conjunction “or” is used to join the second noun with the third noun. Such mistakes give the impression that the translator is inexperienced, to say the least. Table 8 below provides the eighth source text, the target text translated by the authoress of the book and the researcher's faithful translation.

TABLE 8
SOURCE TEXT 8, TARGET TEXT 8 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 8	Target text 8	Researcher's faithful translation
والقاعدة المقررة في الفقه الجنائي أن العقوبة التي ينص عليها المشرع هي التي تحدد نوع الجريمة المرتكبة والمعاقب عليها فإذا كانت الجريمة يعاقب عليها القانون بالإعدام أو الأشغال الشاقة أو السجن فهي جنائية وإن كان معاقباً عليها بالحبس الذي لا يزيد أقصى مدته عن أسبوع أو بالغرامة التي لا يزيد أقصى مقدارها عن جنيه مصري فهي جنحة. (El-Farahaty, 2015, p. 42)	The rule established in criminal law is that the punishment which is prescribed by the legislator determines the type of crime committed and which is therefore punishable. If the crime is to be punished by death or hard labour or imprisonment, it is a felony. If the crime is to be punished by imprisonment the maximum duration of which does not exceed a week or a fine the maximum amount of which does not exceed one Egyptian pound, it is a misdemeanour. (Author's translation) (ibid)	The rule established in criminal jurisprudence is that the punishment prescribed by the legislator determines the kind of crime committed and punishable. If the crime is punishable by law by death, hard labor or prison, it is a felony, but if it is punishable by imprisonment whose maximum period does not exceed one week or by a fine whose maximum amount does not exceed one Egyptian pound, it is a misdemeanour.

As for the target text of the ninth legal text, it was also produced by the authoress of the book. A close examination of the target text with reference to faithful translation revealed serious errors made by the authoress. The first error, as Table 9 shows, lies in the translation of the Arabic expression “راغبو الهجرة الدائمة” which was rendered by the authoress as “wishing permanent emigration”. When following faithful translation, the target language rules should also be taken into account. With reference to the above Arabic expression, the suggested translation based on faithful translation is “wishing to emigrate permanently” which obeys the rules of English with regard to what comes after the verb “wish”. The other error is in the use of a wrong tense in the translation of the verb “يُقَيَّد”. The authoress used simple present “are to be recorded”, while the tense should be simple future with the use of “shall” in legal texts “shall be enrolled”. Besides, the Arabic verb “يُقَيَّد” whose English equivalent is “enroll” in this context was mistranslated into English as “record” by the authoress. The Arabic phrase “الوزارة المختصة بشئون الهجرة” was mistranslated into “the Ministry of Emigration” which is equivalent to “وزارة الهجرة” in Arabic. The authoress chose to delete the translation of “شئون” which is an important word in this legal context. Based on faithful translation, the English translation for the above Arabic phrase is “the Ministry of Emigration Affairs”. Another error in the target text which is related to punctuation is the unnecessary use of parenetical commas with the phrase “at their request”. One more mistake made in the target text is the use of simple present in the translation of the verb “توزع” instead of simple future with the use of “shall” in legal texts. The authoress translated that verb into English as “are to be distributed” whereas the correct one based on faithful translation should be “shall be distributed”. In addition, the preposition following the verb “distribute” is not “on” as the authoress used which is a literal translation of the Arabic preposition “على”. The preposition following “distribute” in English is either “to” or “among”. Another error is the mistranslation of “إمكانياتهم” into English as “abilities”, while its correct equivalent is “capabilities”. The last error in this table is the mistranslation of the Arabic phrase “الاحتياجات المطلوبة” into English as “the requirements”, while the correct equivalent is “the needs required” based on faithful translation which should be adopted when translating legal texts. Table 9 below provides the ninth source text, the target text translated by the authoress of the book and the researcher's faithful translation.

TABLE 9
SOURCE TEXT 9, TARGET TEXT 9 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 9	Target text 9	Researcher's faithful translation
مع عدم الإخلال بحق المصريين في الهجرة يقيد راغبو الهجرة الدائمة بناء على طلبهم في سجل بالوزارة المختصة بشئون الهجرة، وتوزع فرص الهجرة التي قد تتوافر لدى الوزارة المذكورة على المقيدين بهذا السجل على أساس تخصصاتهم وإمكانياتهم والاحتياجات المطلوبة في دول المهجر مع الالتزام بأسبقية القيد في السجل. (El-Farahaty, 2015, p. 46)	Without prejudice to the right of the Egyptians to emigration, names of those wishing permanent emigration are to be recorded, at their request, with the Ministry of Emigration. With a commitment to the primacy enrolment in a register, emigration opportunities that may be available to the said Ministry are to be distributed on those enrolled in the register on the basis of their specialization and their abilities and the requirements of the countries they will emigrate to. (Author's translation) (ibid)	Without prejudice to the right of the Egyptians to emigration, names of those wishing to emigrate permanently shall be enrolled at their request at the registry of the Ministry of Emigration Affairs. Emigration opportunities which may be available to the said ministry shall be distributed to those enrolled at the registry based on their specializations, capabilities and the needs required in the countries to which they shall emigrate with a commitment to the primacy enrolment in the registry.

The English translation of the tenth and last legal text which was also produced by the authoress of the book contained serious issues. A close examination of the target text with reference to faithful translation revealed serious errors made by the authoress. The first error is the mistranslation of the Arabic phrase “المبادلات التجارية” into English as “trade exchange” although the equivalent phrase, based on faithful translation, is “commercial exchanges”. The authoress used a singular noun for the Arabic plural noun “المبادلات”. The second issue is related to the translation of the Arabic phrase “لكل من رعايا الدولتين”. The authoress chose “the nationals of each state” which can be translated back into Arabic as “لكل من رعايا كل بلد”. It can be inferred from “each country” that there are more than two countries which is not true. The authoress could have simply used “both countries” as an equivalent for the Arabic phrase “الدولتين”. The other issue with the authoress' English translation “the nationals of each state” is the use of “state” to mean a country, although “state” is a political term which can also mean a large part of a country. It would be better and clearer if the authoress used the common word “country” to avoid any kind of lexical ambiguity in this legal context. The other error

in the choice of words is the mistranslation of the Arabic phrase “كُلّ تسهيل” into English as “all facilities”, while the correct equivalent for “تسهيل” in English is “facilitation”, and not “facilities” which means buildings where some activities take place. The other error is the wrong choice of an English word for the Arabic word “موافق”. The authoress chose “subject to” which does not express the meaning of the Arabic word “موافق”. Based on faithful translation which should be followed and observed in legal translation, the English equivalent for this Arabic word is simply “in line with”, and not “subject to”. The last error is the unnecessary use of the comma before “subject to”. Table 10 below provides the tenth source text, the target text translated by the authoress of the book and the researcher’s faithful translation.

TABLE 10
SOURCE TEXT 10, TARGET TEXT 10 AND FAITHFUL TRANSLATION

Source text 10	Target text 10	Researcher’s faithful translation
يتعهد الطرفان المتعاقدان بتسهيل المبادلات التجارية بين الدولتين، ووفقاً لهذا التعهد يكون لكل من رعايا الدولتين في بلاد الدولة الأخرى بعد الحصول على الإذن منها الدخول والإقامة طبقاً لنظمها... ويتعهد الطرفان المتعاقدان أن يساعدا بتطبيق كل تسهيل موافق للنظم المحلية في معاملات رعايا الدولتين في التجارة فما يختص بالضرائب والرسوم الجمركية. (El-Farahaty, 2015, p. 46)	The two Contracting Parties undertake to facilitate trade exchange between the two countries. According to this pledge, the nationals of each state reside in the territory of the other state after obtaining the permission of entry and residence according to its regulations ... The two Contracting Parties pledge to help implement all facilities , subject to their local systems, in the treatment of the nationals of the two countries in trade, with regards to taxes and customs duties. (Author’s translation) (ibid)	The two Contracting Parties pledge to facilitate commercial exchanges between both countries. According to this pledge, the nationals of both countries in the other country, after having got permission, shall enter and reside in it as per its rules and regulations ... The two Contracting Parties pledge to help implement all kinds of facilitation in line with the local rules and regulations in the dealing of the nationals of both countries in trade with regard to taxation and customs duties.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study has provided a contrastive analysis of ten legal texts in Arabic along with their English translations which have been collected from El-Farahaty’s (2015) *Arabic–English–Arabic Legal Translation*. The researcher has meticulously examined the English translations in terms of accuracy and errors by applying Newmark’s (1998) method of faithful translation and found that the English translations exhibited serious errors which affected both the meaning expressed in the target language and the quality of translation. The errors spotted in the English translations produced either by the authors of the sources quoted in the above-mentioned book or by El-Farahaty, the authoress of the book, included overtranslation, omission of translating important words in the source texts, wrong choice of words or equivalents in the target language, gloss translation, misunderstanding of part of the source text, literal translation, punctuation mistakes in the target texts and finally grammatical mistakes in the target texts. Such errors mean that the authoress did not examine the translations carefully while writing the manuscript of the book, or most likely she did not give the manuscript to experts in Arabic-English legal translation who might have discovered the errors and corrected them. Another possible reason is that the authoress lacks practical experience in translation.

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher recommends that further research on the assessment of Arabic-English translation of legal texts is required in order to encourage professional legal translators and scholars in the field of legal translation to approach legal translation more professionally and responsibly. Towards that end, either quantitative or qualitative studies can be conducted so that more attention is paid to this important kind of translation.

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An Empirical Study of Translanguaging Practice in Interpreters' Note-Taking

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Abstract—This paper discusses potential application of translanguaging in an interpreting course, specifically for the note-taking part. A Likert scale questionnaire is used to collect information from the participants about their relevant experiences and knowledge as well as their attitude toward application of translanguaging in future note-taking activities. Furthermore, a small-scale experiment was carried out to discover how the participants' choice of language in notes would change after gaining the awareness of potential translanguaging benefits. The findings are that most of the participants are quite agreeable to the concept of translanguaging and its application, and with a built awareness, their notes demonstrate a much more balanced usage of both their L1 and L2, although other languages in their linguistic repertoire still hardly showed any presence. This could shed light on how teachers of an interpreting course could integrate translanguaging into their pedagogy to help students fully utilize their linguistic repertoire for the optimum interpreting performance.

Index Terms— translanguaging, interpreting, note-taking

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Statement of the Problem

Translanguaging, a newly emerged term in recent years, remains an interesting topic for an increasing number of scholars across multiple disciplines. Originally coined by a Welsh educator Cen Williams in the 1980s (Lewis et al., 2012), the term hardly caught the academia's attention until the first decade of this century, and since then a fairly large volume of literature has been generated (Jenks & Lee, 2020). The concept refers to "the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named language" (Otheguy et al., 2015). In essence, translanguaging presents a revolutionary view of how bilingual/multilingual people exploit their linguistic repertoire in daily language practice, as well as what the underlying cognitive process truly looks like (Garcia, 2009).

By nature, translanguaging has a considerable potential in shedding light on understanding and teaching bilingual/multilingual students, especially in language-related courses. In this research, the authors aim to explore how this concept of translanguaging can help explain bilingual/multilingual students' note-taking behavior during interpreting, and how the teacher can guide them to take full advantage of their linguistic repertoire in note-taking for optimum interpreting performance.

B. Research Questions

Through conducting an empirical questionnaire and experiment, this study aims to answer the following three questions:

1. What experience and attitudes do students have towards language choice in their note-taking without the awareness of translanguaging?
2. How would students' choice of language in note-taking change after gaining the awareness of translanguaging?
3. How could teachers better train students in note-taking in light of the findings for the first two questions?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Various scholars' work marked the onset of the movement toward the adoption of translanguaging in educational contexts (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Canagarajah, 2013; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Li, 2014; Li, 2011). In an effort to promote this educational policy, instructors' ideology and orientation as a key factor has been put in the spotlight for analysis. As presented in Burton and Rajendram's (2019) research report, most language instructors still seemed to lean toward one-language-only pedagogy despite their understanding of the benefits of translanguaging. On the other hand, there is a growing consensus among scholars that taking a translanguaging stance in pedagogy means viewing students' dynamic bilingualism as an advantage, rather than as a problem to be solved, which

greatly motivates students in their study (Garcia, 2009; Garcia et al., 2016). Lewis et al. (2012) posit that translanguaging can bring four benefits to bilingual students in general, including a thorough understanding of the content, development of the weaker language, stronger home-to-school links, and expedition of the language learning process. Over the years, various scholars have explored the ways to apply the principle of translanguaging to the teaching of all four basic language skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing (Baker et al., 2019; Garcia, 2009; Kiramba, 2017; Kwon et al., 2016; Pontier et al., 2016; Turnbull, 2019).

However, translating/interpreting as an integrated skill, which entails reading/listening skill of language A (i.e., the source language) and the writing/speaking skill of language B (i.e., the target language), remains virtually untouched in the literature, as far as translanguaging application is concerned. To the best of the authors' knowledge, the only relevant work is Baynham and Lee's book "Translation and Translanguaging", in which a chapter was devoted to investigating the role of translanguaging in cyberpoetics by means of an experiment on poetry translation (Baynham & Lee, 2019). Baynham et al. claim that the computational algorithm adopted largely mirrors how a bilingual person would utilize his/her repertoire. However, their work clearly differs from a normal classroom setting, and by considering translating only, the field of interpreting was still left out of the picture.

The origin of interpreting as a social activity dates back thousands of years, but it was not until 1919 when it finally became recognized as a real profession, and decades later, a real discipline (Xiao, 2002). Of all the aspects in interpreting, note-taking is arguably the most mysterious and debate-provoking one. Some scholars recommend taking notes in the target language (TL), on the grounds that it forces the interpreters to get rid of the original form while extracting the meaning of the speech (Mikkelsen, 1983; Seleskovitch, 1975; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989; Rozan, 2002). Others hold the opposite view and contend that notes should be taken in the source language (SL) so as to eliminate the burden of language conversion in the listening phase, during which period the interpreters' attention should be devoted to hearing and processing the information as much as possible (Ilg, 1988; Alexieva, 1993; Gile, 1995). Furthermore, others break away from this SL-or-TL logic and examine the matter from the angle of L1-or-L2. Yet they have not reached any consensus either, as their conclusions are apparently contradictory. Some argue that interpreters take notes mostly in their L1 (Dam, 2004) while others contend that they use their L2 more often (Szabo, 2006). Another group of researchers, though rather few in number, have proposed the possibility of using a third language in note-taking (Jones, 1998; Błaszczak & Hanusiak, 2010). However, most of the existing studies on language choice in note-taking are based on personal experiences and instincts, rather than empirical data. Therefore, these studies have fairly limited value in revealing the cognitive and behavioral reality of language choice in note-taking.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study implements both qualitative and quantitative methods, adopting questionnaires as well as experiment. The questionnaires are mainly for gathering information from the participants with regards to their experiences, knowledge and attitudes towards note-taking and translanguaging application. The experiment is carried out in three stages: (a) pre-test of note-taking, (b) lecture on translanguaging, and (c) post-test of note-taking. Participants' notes taken during the pre-test and post-test are collected and analyzed to identify the pattern of changes in their language choice.

A. Participants

A total of 96 college students participated in this study. They are all third-year students majoring in English. Of all the participants, there are 13 males and 83 females with an average age of 21. Over 90% of them are multilinguals, capable of speaking a language other than Chinese (Mandarin) and English. All participants have taken an introductory interpreting course the previous semester and acquired limited experience in note-taking. However, no formal instruction on how to take notes had been given to them yet. Furthermore, none of them has acquired any interpreting professional qualification certificate, such as CATI (China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters), and thus they are all beginner-level interpreters.

All the 96 participants completed the questionnaire, and 7 of them, who speak Chinese (Mandarin), English and Chinese (Cantonese), were chosen to participate in the note-taking experiment.

B. Instrumentation

Questionnaire: A typical five-point Likert scale questionnaire is adopted to collect information from the participants. The questionnaire is composed of three parts. The first part includes 9 statements about the past note-taking experiences of the participants; the second part includes 7 statements about their knowledge of the nature of note-taking; the third part includes 4 statements about their attitude toward future possible application of translanguaging in note-taking. Every statement is followed by five item categories, namely, "strongly agree", "agree", "neither agree nor disagree", "disagree", "strongly disagree". This survey was conducted shortly after teaching them the concept and potential benefits of translanguaging in class.

Test Materials: The selection of the pre-test and post-test materials is based on the following two considerations: (1) Clarity. The material should have a moderate delivery rate with clear articulation. (2) Practicality. Because the students are limited in their interpreting experience and ability, the materials should be appropriate both in terms of topic and of register, so as to be practical for them to follow and take notes.

As a result, two test materials were selected, both in Chinese (Mandarin) which is their L1 (i.e., mother tongue). Test material 1 is about education in China, with 175 characters delivered in 42 seconds, and test material 2 is about shopping in China, with 177 characters delivered in 42 seconds. The difference in delivery rate is as little as 1% between test material 1 (4.17 characters/second) and test material 2 (4.21 characters/second).

C. Data Analysis

The questionnaire was distributed to all the 96 participants right after the lecture on translanguaging. Everyone was informed that the questionnaire is anonymous in nature, and they should complete it and turn it in within two days, which they did. The distribution and collection were carried out through wenjuanxing® which is a leading APP in the field of surveying in China.

The analysis of the feedback was performed partly through wenjuanxing®, and partly in Excel. Each item category is assigned a particular value for the sake of calculation and comparison as literature suggests:

- Strongly disagree = 1;
- Disagree = 2;
- Neither agree nor disagree = 3;
- Agree = 4;
- Strongly agree = 5

The experiment was carried out in the interpreting laboratory via three stages. Before the experiment, all 7 participants were briefed on the details of the procedure and their tasks in each stage. The pre-test lasted 5 minutes, during which time they heard the test material 1 twice, took notes and finished interpreting. After their pre-test notes and audio recordings were collected, the authors gave them a 20-minute lecture on the concept and potential benefits of translanguaging in note-taking, encouraging them to fully utilize their linguistic repertoire for the best possible result. Then the 5-minute post-test was conducted with test material 2, which was also played twice. After their notes and recordings were collected, the authors announced the end of the experiment.

Each participant's recording was examined to confirm that he or she did the interpreting task in a truthful, wholehearted way. Then the authors thoroughly studied and analyzed each participant's pre-test notes and post-test notes to identify any pattern of change in language choice.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Questionnaires

The design, feedback and statistical analysis of the questionnaire are presented side by side in Table 1. As we have introduced in 3.4.1, each category is assigned a value of 1 to 5, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 5 being "strongly agree". Therefore, higher average value means stronger tendency toward agreeing with the particular statement, and vice versa. Moreover, since "neither agree nor disagree" has a value of 3, we consider 3.000 to reflect the neutral attitude, with any value above this threshold corresponding to positive attitudes, and any value below corresponding to negative ones.

In Part I (Item No. 1 to 9), which is about their past note-taking experiences, there are several things to take notice of as follows:

- The average value is the highest (4.302) for Item No. 1, which means there is a strong consensus among the participants regarding the necessity to take notes while interpreting;
- In terms of language choice (Item No. 2 to 6), the only sure positive feedback is No. 6 (3.521) which shows that most participants would use both English and Chinese in note-taking, while the other items got either a negative average value (No. 3, 4 and 5) or a very weak positive one (No. 2), meaning they don't really stick to any one language, whether SL/TL or L1/L2;
- Item No. 8 received a very positive response (3.760), and Item No. 9 got a clearly negative one (2.542); from these two responses, we can infer that the reason behind their language choice is not that they are struggling to make the decision, but rather that they never seriously thought about this choice-making matter;
- Item No. 7 shows an unsurprisingly low average value of 2.448, meaning that most participants never used their L3 in note-taking. This is in line with the authors' expectation, providing that they never knew the concept of translanguaging and its benefits before.

In Part II (Item No. 10 to 16), which is about the participants' knowledge of the note-taking nature, we see a consistent positive pattern in responses (from 3.510 to 4.104). Two points are worth noticing:

- From their responses to Item No. 10 and 15, the participants appear to have a right understanding of the interpersonal variation of interpreters' notes;
- From their responses to the other items of this part, especially Item No. 13, the participants seem to have established a proper awareness of their linguistic repertoire as well as a positive attitude to its application, after being informed of the concept and possible benefits; their willingness to combine all languages available in note-taking is quite clear.

TABLE 1
QUESTIONNAIRE'S CONTENT, FEEDBACK, AND STATISTICS

Part No.	Item No.	Item Statement	S.D. (=1)	D. (=2)	Feedback N. (=3)	A. (=4)	S.A. (=5)	Statistics AVG.	VAR.
Part I	1	Whenever possible, I would take notes while interpreting.	1.04%	1.04%	4.17%	54.17%	39.58%	4.302	0.482
	2	I always take notes in the source language.	0%	27.08%	35.42%	36.46%	1.04%	3.115	0.664
	3	I always take notes in the target language.	3.13%	42.71%	43.75%	9.38%	1.04%	2.625	0.547
	4	I always take notes in Mandarin, regardless of the source language.	9.38%	55.21%	20.83%	12.5%	2.08%	2.427	0.807
	5	I always take notes in English, regardless of the source language.	8.33%	66.67%	22.92%	1.04%	1.04%	2.198	0.409
	6	I always take notes in a mix of Mandarin and English, regardless of the source language.	3.13%	7.29%	28.13%	56.25%	5.21%	3.531	0.687
	7	Occasionally I would use language other than Mandarin and English to take notes.	14.58%	50%	12.5%	21.88%	1.04%	2.448	1.039
	8	I never thought about which language to use in note-taking but just followed my instinct.	1.04%	9.38%	9.38%	72.92%	7.29%	3.760	0.578
	9	I often feel unsettled about which language to choose in terms of note-taking.	9.38%	50%	19.79%	18.75%	2.08%	2.542	0.936
Part II	10	Notes in interpreting are something personal, and it is fine if others can't read them.	4.17%	2.08%	4.17%	58.33%	31.25%	4.104	0.802
	11	I could achieve best performance when freely combining Mandarin/English in note-taking.	1.04%	2.08%	13.54%	70.83%	12.5%	3.917	0.431
	12	It is acceptable to use language other than Mandarin and English in note-taking.	4.17%	10.42%	16.67%	67.71%	1.04%	3.510	0.729
	13	My linguistic repertoire is a composite entity with various languages mixed together.	2.08%	13.54%	18.75%	59.38%	6.25%	3.542	0.769
	14	As long as it facilitates interpreting, any language is fine to adopt in note-taking.	2.08%	0%	5.21%	77.08%	15.63%	4.042	0.394
	15	Every interpreter's notes should be unique in composition and style.	2.08%	3.13%	11.46%	60.42%	22.92%	3.990	0.656
	16	Mastering two or more languages makes me more capable in note-taking.	1.04%	3.13%	11.46%	73.96%	10.42%	3.896	0.427
Part III	17	In future I will choose language in note-taking based on writing convenience.	0%	1.04%	6.25%	70.83%	21.88%	4.135	0.305
	18	In future I will choose language in note-taking based on reading convenience.	1.04%	1.04%	8.33%	73.96%	15.63%	4.021	0.375
	19	In future I will consider to add more languages in my existing note system.	0%	10.42%	30.21%	51.04%	8.33%	3.573	0.620
	20	In future I will not be bothered about which language to choose in note-taking.	1.04%	4.17%	22.92%	58.33%	13.54%	3.792	0.582

Note: "S.D." - "Strongly disagree", "D." - "Disagree", "N." - "Neither agree nor disagree", "A." - "Agree", "S.A." - "Strongly Agree".

In Part III (Item No. 17 to 20), which is about the participants' attitude toward future application of translanguaging in their note-taking, we see another consistent positive pattern in responses (from 3.573 to 4.135). By taking a closer look, we can see

- Item No. 17 and 18 got a very positive response, with average value being above 4.000; this shows that, overall, the participants are taking a pragmatic stance rather than a dogmatic one on future language choice in note-taking, probably under the influence of newly-learned translanguaging concept.
- Item No. 19 received an encouraging response, with 59.37% of the participants choosing either "agree" or "strongly agree"; this demonstrates that after learning about translanguaging, most participants decide to add more languages into their existing note system to fully exploit their entire linguistic repertoire.

In brief, what we learned from the questionnaires, as seen in Table 1, is: (a) the participants generally recognize the necessity of note-taking in interpreting, but never thought about which language to choose, and thus they don't stick to any particular language but just follow their instinct; (b) they rightly understand that an interpreter's notes is personal and unique in nature, and after the lecture, they seem to have grasped the concept of translanguaging and formed a positive attitude toward it; (c) under the influence of translanguaging concept, the participants are being pragmatic rather than dogmatic about language choice in notes, and the majority of them decide to incorporate more aspects of their linguistic repertoire into their existing note system.

B. Language Choice in Notes

All the seven participants' notes are studied and counted. The contents of their notes are classified into four categories: (1) Chinese notes (any Chinese characters, both complete and incomplete); (2) English notes (any English words, both complete and incomplete); (3) L3 notes (notes in any other language besides Chinese and English); (4) Non-language notes (lines, symbols, arrows, shapes, etc.). The number and distribution of each category of notes during pre-test and post-test are shown in Table 2 and Table 3, respectively.

TABLE 2
NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS' NOTES IN THE PRE-TEST

	English	Chinese	L3	Non-language	Total	E/C Ratio
S1	0	48	0	5	53	0
S2	3	48	0	24	75	0.062
S3	1	30	0	11	42	0.033
S4	8	50	0	9	67	0.160
S5	1	44	0	11	56	0.023
S6	2	29	0	12	43	0.069
S7	3	29	0	14	46	0.103

TABLE 3
NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS' NOTES IN THE POST-TEST

	English	Chinese	L3	Non-language	Total	E/C Ratio
S1	1	48	0	8	57	0.021
S2	8	34	0	13	55	0.235
S3	2	29	0	12	43	0.069
S4	9	42	2	6	59	0.214
S5	12	13	0	14	39	0.923
S6	6	16	0	14	36	0.375
S7	12	12	0	7	31	1.000

After examining the details of the data and doing the statistical calculations, we notice the following points.

- The participants generally prefer to take notes in the source language (i.e., Chinese) with only one exception (S7 in post-test). This tendency is stronger in the pre-test, and in some extreme cases, there were no notes in English at all (S1 in the pre-test). The possible reason is that, as beginner-level interpreters, they are not accustomed to translate while absorbing and processing the information from the speaker. Also, in the pre-test stage, they were not aware of the benefits of exploiting their full linguistic ability yet.
- Although they all master a third language (e.g. Cantonese, French, Japanese, etc.), virtually none of them took any note in L3 (with S4 in post-test being the only exception), even after going through a lecture about translanguaging and its possible benefits. This is probably due to the fact that note-taking is a matter of personal habit which is hard to change in a short period of time. During the post-test, although they may have become aware of the possible benefits of applying translanguaging in note-taking, they simply lack enough drills to have their note-taking habit modified.
- After the translanguaging lecture, however, there is a considerable increase in the ratio of English notes to Chinese notes for all of the participants, especially S5 and S7. We could see this change more clearly in Fig. 1, in which blue bars show the ratios in the pre-test and orange bars show those in the post-test. In essence, every participant is making effort to take notes in a more balanced way, utilizing their both language abilities. Considering that the post-test was conducted right after the lecture, this change is clearly due to their accepting the concept and benefits of translanguaging.

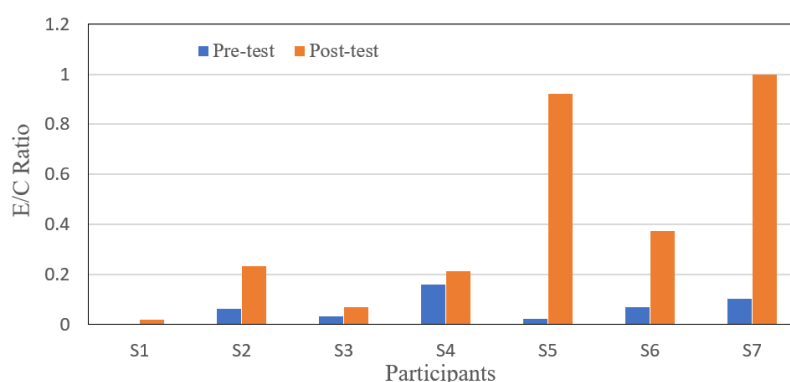


Figure 1. Participants' Notes E/C Ratio Comparison between Pre- and Post-Test

V. CONCLUSION AND APPLICATION

From the discussion above we can conclude that, before the lecture of translanguaging, the participants of this study in general were not clear in their mind regarding language choice in note-taking but just followed their instinct. In fact, based on the pre-test notes of the seven participants in the experiment, there is a strong and uniform tendency of using Chinese in note-taking, probably due to convenience and familiarity.

However, after being informed of the concept and benefits of translanguaging, most participants demonstrate in their questionnaire feedback a clear willingness to adopt more languages in note-taking. This is confirmed to some extent in

the post-test of the experiment, during which period the participants' notes reflected a more balanced usage of their L1 and L2. On the other hand, hardly any notes in L3 were visibly observable during the post-test yet. This is probably because, despite the existence of willingness, one's note-taking habit needs more time and practice to change in a noticeable way.

In light of all the findings from this study, it is reasonable to conclude that teachers of interpreting courses should incorporate the concept of translanguaging and guidance on its application in the syllabus, for the students are generally open-minded about this kind of innovative theory. It is also suggested to arrange enough drills of interpreting practice, as well as timely feedback from the teacher, to help the students form the habit of applying translanguaging in their note-taking, thereby enhancing their overall interpreting performance.

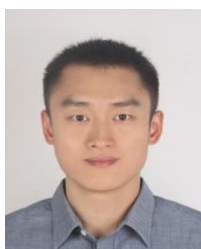
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The Research Competence, Critical Thinking Skills and Digital Literacy of Indonesian EFL Students

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Abstract—This project aims to investigate the relationship between English as Foreign Language (EFL) students' research skills, critical thinking skills, and engagement with technology or their digital literacy. EFL students' research competence is expected to support their academic performance on writing papers and assignments. It also demands the development of their critical thinking skills. Their engagement in technology involves the use of social media, online networks, and the use of several applications. This study takes the sample of EFL students from two institutions, namely UIN Malang and IAIN Kediri, Indonesia, to see whether there is a similar performance in both Islamic higher education institutions in terms of students' online research competence, critical thinking skills, and similar trend on the engagement with technology. The data collection method covers questionnaire and quiz. This result demonstrates a significant correlation between research competence and digital literacy. Concerning the insignificant relation between digital literacy and critical thinking, it proves that the digital literacy does not always automatically support the enhancement of critical thinking skills. Understanding the relationship between online research competence, critical thinking, and digital literacy is a crucial step in developing Indonesian EFL teaching syllabi and material supporting students' academic success in higher education context.

Index Terms—research competence, critical thinking, digital literacy, English as Foreign Language

I. INTRODUCTION

Today teaching EFL to students as digital netizens means letting them be exposed to the global online network and explore their e-skills. Students' engagement with information and communication technology involves the use of social media, online networking, and several applications. EFL students not only learn through face-to-face interaction, but also have a discussion online (Akarasriworn & Ku, 2013). Some teachers also prefer to encourage engagement in classroom interaction virtually or through synchronous online education (Francescucci & Foster, 2013). It results in flexibility and engagement of teaching and learning to support effective learning experience (Olt, 2018). Here, it appears that the development of the information age requires the students' ability to master technology. The question is, does the technology ability of Indonesian students support their academic skills? This research attempts to explore this inquiry.

Students need to acquire various research competence in the context of studying in the university, one of which is evaluative judgment skill required not only for the current learning but also for learning throughout life (Boud & Soler, 2016). It encapsulates the interaction between individuals and further ends with performing reflective practice (Tai et al., 2018). In this case, performing the research competence on making an evaluative judgment is affected by peer interaction, such as peer review (Nicol, 2014) and their engagement with resources from the internet (Indah & Kusuma, 2016).

In the era of rapid information, EFL students are required to access large amounts of information available on the internet. In doing so, they need to effectively employ their digital literacy, including evaluating information, synthesizing, and collaborating with others through online facilities (Frisch et al., 2018). By developing these skills through digital tools, at the same time, students can develop their inquiry learning as one of the ways to improve critical thinking and self-efficacy (Frisch et al., 2013). Students' engagement to resources mediates the enhancement of their critical thinking (Indah, 2017). In the context of Islamic higher education in Indonesia, questions still arise, whether the

ease of access to technology provided has supported the academic development of the students, or has not been fully utilized optimally.

In higher education, the fashion now is research-oriented teaching. This term generally refers to all of those teaching approaches by providing students with the opportunity to develop their research competence (Böttcher & Thiel, 2018). Islamic higher education aims to support the enhancement of students' research competence which includes their critical thinking, giving them opportunities to develop the skills that belong to the demand to cope with the dynamic of current information and communication technology. However, the preliminary study showed that not all Islamic higher education in Indonesia optimally facilitate the students through the courses or means to enhance their research competence, critical thinking and digital literacy.

This study explores students' research competence and their digital literacy at two institutions of Islamic higher education in Indonesia. It begins with the assumption that students' engagement with technology by using their critical thinking skills to some extent becomes the basis for developing their research competence. In other words, the stronger engagement to gadget or other information technology devices will directly contribute to the better skill to optimize the research tools provided online for EFL students and their critical thinking skills. Understanding the relationship between online research competence, critical thinking skills, and technology engagement is an important step in developing EFL teaching syllabi and material supporting students' academic success.

The purpose of this study is to obtain a description of the relationship patterns between EFL students' research competence, critical thinking skills, and their engagement with technology. The other goal is to get an ideal model of the relationship between students' research competence, critical thinking skills, and their engagement with technology. As for the findings regarding the ideal model of relations between students' research competence, critical thinking skills, and their engagement with technology, theoretically it can make a scientific contribution in understanding the application of critical thinking theory (Paul & Elder, 2019).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Some studies that have relevant findings regarding the topic proposed in this study are categorized into four trends based on the focus, namely research competence, critical thinking, digital literacy, and other factors. Regarding the focus on research competence, new instrument is developed to assess university students' research competence (Böttcher & Thiel, 2018) in several contexts such as health professionals (O'Keeffe et al., 2019) and education (Leach et al., 2016). The student's research skill is also, to some extent, affected by the contribution of librarian (Kelly, 2019), and technology-based instructional model (Valyukevych et al., 2021).

In developing critical thinking skills through online learning materials, there are a number of relevant strategies. These strategies involve the importance of navigation, metacognitive summary strategies, attitudes toward ICT, and social online reading strategies (Lim & Jung, 2019). Metacognitive skill development, as one of the critical thinking skills, can be developed through online tools (Visser & Flynn, 2018).

In light of the digital literacy of students, studies show that students have obstacles in using computers (Chan et al., 2016), lack of deep knowledge of the technologies (Bullen et al., 2008), and have less in-depth application knowledge or problem-solving skills (Kvavik, 2005). In this case, it does not mean that the earlier the students use ICT, the better digital competence they have as there is no significant relationship between the age of using ICT in childhood and the perceived digital competence (Juhanak et al., 2019). Besides, the use of educational technologies in personalized learning does not affect a student's self-accessed digital skills (Schmid & Petko, 2019), although it may influence the student's process of language acquisition (Alivi & Mardiana, 2020). It supports the fact that students shared similar digital cyber-culture in the context of pedagogy (Ayale-Perez & Joo-Nagata, 2019).

In addition to these findings, there is a research suggesting that several factors may influence students' use of ICT such as socioeconomic status, cultural/ethnic background, gender, and discipline specialization (Kennedy et al., 2008). In addition, the nature and frequency of students' internet use differ based on age and socioeconomic status (Livingstone & Bober, 2004). The age is a factor in ICT use, but it was not the most important consideration; the gender gap and gaps between socioeconomic groups in terms of ICT use may be closing (Nasah et al., 2010).

From the previous studies, it is obvious that current finding on student's research competence is related to direct support such as research education and learning materials. This study argues that the research competence is initiated by the development of critical thinking skills and supported by ICT and the student's digital literacy. The relation between students' critical thinking and their digital literacy is supporting current finding on the context of online education (Visser & Flynn, 2018). In addition, the use of ICT among students who are considered digital native is still worth examining as the shared cyber-culture among net-geners today does not always mean similar digital literacy. Accordingly, this study highlights the relationship between the diversity of students' critical thinking skills and digital literacy to shape their research competence in the context of Islamic higher education in Indonesia.

III. METHOD

This study investigates whether in Islamic higher education institutions the students share similar performance in terms of students' research competence and similar trend on the engagement with technology. It involves an Islamic

State University (UIN) and an Islamic State College (IAIN) in Indonesia. These institutions were chosen because the preliminary study showed that students in both institutions have a high interest in research and technology utilization. Empirical data is still needed about the correlation between research skills and critical thinking with research capabilities

The population of this study is EFL students in Indonesia. The accessible population is the EFL students from two institutions namely English Department of UIN Malang and English Tadris (Language Teaching) of IAIN Kediri. As the sample, the participants are 195 students in the third year of their study assuming that they have taken the course on research methodology.

As data collection tools, this study involved the use of a questionnaire. The questionnaire comprises three parts: the first concerns the characteristics of the students, the second seeks to assess the students' research competence, and the third seeks to investigate the students' e-skills or their engagement with technology. The questionnaires are distributed extensively through online as well as offline contact.

There are five aspects elaborated to assess the students' research competence (Böttcher & Thiel, 2018). They are as follows: 1) skills in reviewing the state of research, 2) methodological skills, 3) skills in reflecting on research findings, 4) communication skills, and 5) content knowledge. The students' e-skills were assessed through four dimensions: 1) the generic use of a computer, 2) the generic use of the Internet, 3) the use of IT for pedagogic purposes, and 4) the use of IT for collaborative work purposes. This instrument rated both the students' research competence and their e-skills on a 5-point response scale, ranging from "1—strongly disagree" to "5—strongly agree."

On the assessment of critical thinking skills, the students were faced with two tasks, namely identifying fact or generalization, and distinguishing between objective report and subjective report. The first task consists of five items. The instruction is to prefer factual statement or generalization, for instance, "all the guests at the party preferred the chocolate cake". The second task consists of two items in the form of a short passage in which the students were asked to decide whether it belongs to objective or subjective report.

Before distributed, the questionnaire was validated by experts. The experts evaluated the phrasing and had the opportunity to propose an alternative phrasing for inappropriate items. Afterwards, a try out to detect any potential problems and misunderstandings on the questionnaire was carried out. Any problems from the try out then were addressed before the data collection procedure. The data collected excludes respondents that declare inconsistent responses and respondents who did not answer all the questions. As the final stage, this study also employed Focus Group Discussion (FGD). It involved senior lecturers, head of English department, curriculum experts and syllabus developer to evaluate the model of proportional items of courses supporting the development of the three skills observed in this study.

The analysis in this study was carried out to assess the student's research competence, critical thinking and digital literacy. The next analysis tested the hypothesis that the stronger the engagement to gadget or other information technology devices, the better the research competence the students have. In addition, it also examines whether the higher critical thinking skills, the better the research competence the students' have. Following the research approach, the correlation statistics employed to do hypothesis testing was Pearson bivariate correlation.

IV. FINDINGS

The EFL students as the participant in this study had shown that to some extent they have been involved to research skills. From table 1, it can be inferred that the variable of research competence is similar to the median, while in critical thinking and digital literacy the mean is lower than the median. It implies that although they are still in the process of projecting themselves to the final stage of their research competence namely thesis writing, the students had practiced their ability in doing a systematic inquiry. In addition, the significant correlation occurs in the relation between research competence and digital literacy as shown in table 2.

TABLE 1
THE SCORES OF RESEARCH COMPETENCE, CRITICAL THINKING, AND DIGITAL LITERACY

Measures	Research Competence	Critical Thinking	Digital Literacy
Mean	27.5	4.6	32.70
Std. Error of Mean	.29	.11	.35
Median	27.00	5.00	33.00
Mode	25.00	4.00	36.00
Std. Deviation	4.12	1.49	4.97
Variance	16.96	2.23	24.74
Skewness	-.371	-.313	-.22
Range	26.00	6.00	28.00
Minimum	11.00	1.00	17.00
Maximum	37.00	7.00	45.00

TABLE 2
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RESEARCH COMPETENCE, CRITICAL THINKING, AND DIGITAL LITERACY

		Digital Literacy (X)	Critical Thinking (Y)	Research Competence (Z)
Digital Literacy (X)	Pearson correlation	1	.011	.566(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.879	.000
	N	195	195	195
Critical Thinking (Y)	Pearson correlation	.011	1	-.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.879		.972
	N	195	195	195
Research Competence (Z)	Pearson correlation	.566(**)	-.003	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.972	
	N	195	195	195

V. DISCUSSION

A. The Level of Research Competence, Critical Thinking and Digital Literacy

This study measures the research competence from what the EFL students practice during their academic study period. The criteria mentioned in the finding such as using internet for finding research resources, deciding data, identifying gaps and so forth belong to scientific literacy (Chang et al., 2011). In this case, the student's level of research skill is also influenced by some other disposition, one of which is self-evaluation. Students who can self-evaluate their own problem-solving skills can improve their competence, including research competence (Yildirim et al., 2019).

However, not all students spontaneously connect their knowledge to research methods or other scientific thinking elements in their education to everyday academic practice. These elements also present in the occupational context (Wernersson & Orwehag, 2016). Further, they describe the freedom and independence they have in their choice of research question and form of work as appealing and encouraging.

Critical thinking covers EFL students' ability to use thoughts clearly and rationally about what is done or believed. This ability actively involves intellectual processes and skills to do the following: conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, evaluating information obtained through observation, experience, reflection, reasoning and scientific communication. In this study, these domains are represented in the ability to identify the factual statements or generalization, and to distinguish between subjective or objective statements. The EFL students responding to the assessment of critical thinking skills had shown that they have been operating their higher-order thinking skills to some extent. The higher percentage shows it in responding all of the items correctly especially in identifying report which is assumed to be easier than to distinguish between generalization or factual statement. For the students of both institutions, the biggest challenge is in identifying factual statement. The findings also show that the level of the student's critical thinking is still fair.

Developing critical thinking for the research participants is not easy since they may face barriers, such as poor metacognitive skills, a fixed mindset, and bias of the fact that thinking is effortful (Persky et al., 2019). Another aspect intervening in the representation of critical thinking skill is how the students use outside knowledge, intensive justification and critical assessment. In the finding, the assessment can show the weak spot in the student's critical thinking disposition (Beckmann & Weber, 2015). To implement changes in the teaching of critical skills, it needs a critical thinking diagnosis approach integrated in the syllabus (Lu, 2013).

Understanding critical thinking means recognizing the skills that are being developed as a continuous process. As the skills are very complex, this study's finding shows that it needs more exposure through explicit teaching of critical thinking (Howard et al., 2015). Although to some extent it not enough and not always effective (Azizi-Fini et al., 2015), the finding of this study shows that the moderate level of critical thinking needs improvement. It can be done in the form of incorporating the skills with the content courses (Aizikovitsh-Udi & Cheng, 2015).

Digital literacy means having the skills needed to live, learn, and work as an EFL student. Communication and access to information are increasing through digital technologies like internet platforms, social media, and mobile devices. In the findings of this study, the EFL students' responses to the assessment on digital literacy shown that they had varied pattern on the use of digital technology in their academic activities. Based on the student's statements, they strongly agree to their being easy to download music, movies, and images from the internet as the easiest digital activity in their daily lives. The sequence of the digital literacy dominantly occurring in the student's academic activities is as the following: (1) easy to download music, movies, and images from the internet; (2) manage online conversation or chat applications; (3) use the internet to communicate with instructors/classmates; (4) use word processing software easily; (5) able to arrange meeting new people online; (6) review online evaluations before purchasing online; (7) proficient at conducting group work using the internet; (8) proficient in presentation software; and (9) able to contribute to the web blogs.

The findings also show similar responses of the students in online shopping where they can review a product online before purchasing and meeting new people online. Whereas, various responses deal with the tendency in contributing to web blogs, downloading from internet, using chat applications, conducting online group work, communicating online

with classmates and instructors, using presentation software, and proficient in word processing software. Overall, the findings show that the average level of the students' digital literacy is still fair. These students tend to use instrumental e-skill, that is the skill in the area of the operational manipulation of technology and strategic e-skill, covering the skill to look for relevant information to use pro-actively. The structural e-skill or the skill in structuring information becomes the second priority of the EFL students (Steyaert, 2002). However, the information e-skills involve the subskills of formal and substantial information skills (van Dijk, 2010). In this case, the students observed in this study employ the formal information skill in handling the computer networks such as file structures, menu structures, and hyperlinks when operating word processing software. They also use substantial information skills, namely the ability to find, select, process, and evaluate information in specific sources according to specific questions and needs.

In the findings, there is a different tendency in the use of information technology. UIN students utilize more on information technology for collaborative work purposes compared to IAIN students. However, both institutions' students show similar tendency in the use of computer, internet and the use of information technology for pedagogic purposes. These usages deal with the principal component of the modes of information technology (Youssef et al., 2015). However, these tendencies are related to digital competences encompassing the knowledge, abilities, skills, and attitudes needed for working in the digital age. The students needed such competences for nearly every knowledge occupation (Murawski & Bick, 2017)

Based on the research data, it is obvious that UIN students use more the discussion forum of the online course compared to IAIN students. It shows how the EFL students engage with the chance to have academic discussion through online devices. Having online discussion also need to involve outside knowledge, intensive justification and critical assessment of any posts made by their peers. This activity should be guided by the content courses to improve students' critical thinking (Beckmann & Weber, 2016).

The fact shown in this study that the students possess digital literacy skills and they use these digital literacy skills daily for academic performance purposes which is not only found in EFL students in Islamic Higher Education but it also occurs in other countries. The students of a university in Nigeria develop digital literacy skills despite the major challenges of electricity failure, low internet bandwidth, ICT facilities, and lack of digital development literacy program and standard (Ukwoma et al., 2016).

The digital literacy requires sufficient knowledge on information technology. The fact that not all of the EFL students observed in this study have adequate IT knowledge and skills is similar to that of Malaysian dental undergraduate students (Chan et al., 2016). The survey found that most of the students had access to computers or internet and possessed adequate IT knowledge and skills. However, there were still some students who complained about obstacles in using the computers and lacked of deep knowledge of the technologies themselves (Bullen et al. 2008).

The different tendency of digital literacy is related to several aspects including the awareness of improving both digital and life skills. The digital literacy brings framework into a powerful lever for digital inclusion (Nedungadi et al., 2018). This idea is urgent in Indonesia particularly in the era of online education or distant learning program during the pandemic period in the current year. This type of framework needs more work regarding how to instill the EFL students' motivation, interest and confidence in their engagement with digital learning process.

The distinction in terms of digital literacy in both institutions is supported by the different digital facilities and available access. In this case, access, skills and literacy-development are necessary for meaningful use of information technology. However, another concept is needed, namely socio-technical awareness (Hosman & Comisso, 2020). This awareness influences the application and measurement of meaningful use of information technology for EFL students. Therefore, it is suggested that socio-technical awareness is introduced to empower students to make meaningful use of digital technologies (Hosman & Comisso, 2020).

In the context of EFL students' digital literacy, the development needs more monitoring through the university policy. In this context, the information literacy mainly comprises technical skill and information management skill. Besides, digital literacy is composed of technical skill, cognitive skill and emotional-social skills (Tuamsuk & Subramaniam, 2017). By enhancing digital literacy through the EFL content courses, at the same time, it augments the digital intelligence quotient of the students. Eight dimensions were developed to measure the digital intelligence quotient. They include aspects of digital identity, digital use, digital safety, digital security, digital emotional intelligence, digital communication, digital literacy and digital rights (N-Nan et al., 2019).

The data analysis performed a significant correlation in the relation between research competence and digital literacy as shown in table 2. This fact is supporting the finding on the students of nursing that student's research skill is also, to some extent, affected by the contribution of their literacy including digital literacy (Kelly, 2019). Table 2 demonstrates an insignificant contribution of critical thinking as this variable is integral to digital literacy and research competence. It is inseparable from enhancing the skills through online learning materials, and attitudes toward information technology (Lim and Jung, 2019). It is also improved through social online reading strategies and extensive reading (Zin and Eng, 2014).

Concerning the insignificant relation between digital literacy and critical thinking as shown in the finding of this study, survey of undergraduate students had similar results (Kvavik, 2005). The digital literacy does not always automatically support the enhancement of critical thinking skills. In this case, it also does not mean that the earlier the

students use ICT, the better digital competence they have as there is no significant relationship between the age of using ICT in childhood and the perceived digital competence (Juhanak et al., 2019).

In the context of digital literacy for EFL students, Song (2008) shows that online collaborative educational websites in second or foreign languages allow EFL university students to improve their writing abilities. Fostering writing is also an effective for improving critical thinking skill (Asraf et al., 2018). This augment is undoubtedly affected by the digital literacy education, introducing ICT based curriculum and the association between library management in maintaining a regular training program on digital literacy. The library technological involvement significantly improves student technology-based learning skills (Rafi et al., 2019).

Regarding the need to enhance student's digital literacy, studies show that it needs more involvement of educators to present powerful instructional practices that link critical and digital literacies providing students with the skills to enlarge multiple viewpoints and promoting critical thinking skills (Amgott, 2018). Educators and students in technology learning environments also can make a good contribution towards offering pragmatic solutions (Al-Qallaf & Al-Mutairi, 2016).

B. The Model of Research Competence, Critical Thinking and Digital Literacy

Based on the result of FGD in this study, curriculum developer, lecturer consortium and pedagogical practitioners agree that the courses should be designed in such a way to support the relation between research competence and digital literacy. So far each course supports the skill with the specific focus. Later on, with the demand of the current distant learning and online education process, it needs integral development of research competence and digital literacy. This issue becomes more significant related to integrating the technology during the pandemic era (Prasojo et al., 2020). This finding supports the results of previous studies that showed how research activities develop students' content knowledge and research, although they can perceive several problems during the process. Accordingly, research skills should be encouraged through several courses in any study programs (Elmas & Aydin, 2017).

The students' research competencies have been formed since students take research courses, such as Research on Linguistics, Advanced Prose, and other courses that hone critical thinking. Even though during the lecture the students did not seem to actively participate in class discussions, in fact the results of the project papers were very good at representing their critical thinking skills. In the finding, it is clear that the students' research competence is basically supported by several courses that involve the dynamic of critical thinking. In both institutions, some similarities occur in the variation of the courses given in similar level and similar portion of digital literacy courses.

Research courses --such as quantitative and qualitative research methods, literary theories, literary criticism etc.-- are sufficient to provide exposure to various aspects of research. There is also non-credit course such as proposal seminars that can assist students sharpening the quality of their research proposals. In fact, if the proposal in the seminar is synchronized and is followed up as a thesis, the quality of the research will be even better. Hence, it takes lecturer commitment to prioritize assignments in research subjects that can finalize research competencies, especially maturity in a frame of mind. However, based on the FGD result, the student's research competence in average does not show significant improvement currently. Only some of the students can find new topic to develop for their research, while others still follow the topics that are considered saturated.

In the Indonesian context, the development of critical thinking skills is effective through certain strategies, for instance is the use of science inquiry model combined with a mind map in learning (Fuad et al., 2017) and learning about effective questioning (Defianty & Wilson, 2019). Another research also shows that the best practice of teaching critical thinking skills for high school students is initiated by developing instructional design to promote higher-order thinking skills (Apino & Retnawati, 2017). It is also considered effective by giving socio-scientific issues (Pratiwi et al., 2016) and using the discovery model (Suardana et al., 2018). Empowering student's critical thinking skills needs the improvement of student's reading interest (Mahanal et al., 2016), and also implementing project-based learning (Hakim et al., 2016) or problem-based learning (Khoiriyah et al., 2015). In addition, the implementation of project-based learning and group investigation can encourage the EFL students to think critically through planning, arguing, stating questions and problems, and analyzing and providing solutions to the surrounding environmental issues (Asyari et al., 2016). These strategies belong to the recommendation for an ideal model of instructional strategies in EFL context.

The result of FGD also concerns with supporting the student's research competence through online research skills that can be given in the form of regular training. In addition, these skills can be given integrated in some research subjects, as material enrichment. If there is a proposal seminar course as a special class, online research skills can be included there. It seems that it is simple and can be learned independently by students, but when it is not currently an obligation, online research skills are not properly honed.

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Regarding research competence, Indonesian EFL learners in this study show typical competence in using internet resources for the student's research projects and being able to decide which data or sources or materials to address the research questions. However, there is more indecision shown in some other criteria such as the ability to identify research gaps, to decide research method, to interpret research findings, to reflect research implications and to

understand research publication standard. These aspects show the need of more exposure so that the improvement in these aspects can be done as the student's research competence is still fair.

In terms of critical thinking level, the EFL students responding to the assessment of critical thinking skills had shown that they have been operating their higher-order thinking skills to some extent. The higher percentage shows it in responding all of the items correctly especially in identifying report which is assumed to be easier than to distinguish between generalization or factual statement. For the students of both institutions, the biggest challenge is in identifying factual statement. The finding also shows that the level of the student's critical thinking is still fair.

The finding shows that the average level of the student's digital literacy is still fair. The students tend to use instrumental e-skill, that is the skill in the area of the operational manipulation of technology and strategic e-skill, covering the skill to look for relevant information to use pro-actively. In this case, the students observed in this study employ the formal information skill in handling the computer networks such as file structures, menu structures, and hyperlinks when operating word processing software. They also use substantial information skills, namely the ability to find, select, process, and evaluate information in specific sources according to specific questions and needs.

This study results in the significant correlation between research competence and digital literacy. Concerning the insignificant relation between digital literacy and critical thinking, it proves that the digital literacy does not always automatically support the enhancement of critical thinking skills. The different tendency of digital literacy is related to several aspects including the awareness of improving both digital and life skills.

Considering that the Indonesian EFL students' research competence level, critical thinking level and digital literacy level in both Islamic institutions are still fair, the finding of this study can be an evaluation of the curriculum. Therefore, as the study's implication, it needs revealing opportunities to instruct students in more effectively articulating transferable research skills. In addition, the finding of this study shows that the moderate level of critical thinking needs improvement. It can be done in the form of incorporating the skills with the content courses as suggested.

The different tendency of digital literacy is related to several aspects including the awareness of improving both digital and life skills. This type of framework needs more work regarding how to instill the EFL student's motivation, interest and confidence in their engagement with digital learning process. To improve the EFL student's digital literacy, the online research skill should be an integral part of learning programs at all courses.

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A Turn-Taking Analysis of the Characters' Personalities and Relationships in *Thelma & Louise*

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Abstract—*Thelma & Louise*, directed by Ridley Scott, is regarded as a masterpiece of American feminism films. The film involves gender inequality, morality and violence, and challenges people's thoughts in a patriarchal society. It finds that using turn-taking framework can help us better understand the characterization and its relationship in the film, but also enable readers to make comments on the characters on a relatively objective basis. It brings a new angle to the analysis of movie text, which helps people to observe the characters' characteristics and understand the relationship among the characters.

Index Terms—turn-taking, *Thelma & Louise*, feminism, growth, rebellion

I. INTRODUCTION

Based on the current theory of conversational analysis, this paper analyzes the turn-takings in the film *Thelma & Louise* and tries to explore the personalities of the main characters in the film and the relationships between them, as is revealed in the dialogue. This chapter will briefly introduce *Thelma & Louise* and the turn-taking theory.

A. Introduction of *Thelma & Louise*

Thelma & Louise (1991) is a representative feminist movie to fight against the patriarchal society. Thelma and Louise were close friends. Thelma was a docile, timid housewife, having an emotionally abusive husband, while Louise was an ordinary looking, manly waitress in the restaurant. They planned to drive for a holiday, and it was supposed to be a simple and pleasant journey. However, it became a struggle of two women against the oppression of male society.

In a bar, a man accosted Thelma. In the beginning, they were just flirting, but the man later attempted to rape her. In a hurry, Louise rushed to shoot the man to death. Assuming the police would not believe their self-defense motive, they ran away.

Finally, they drove down the Grand Canyon and killed themselves. On their journey, they fought back against men and injustice, and they changed and grew up. All events and conversations in the movie are symbols of men status and social phenomena at that time.

B. Introduction of Turn-Taking

Conversation analysis, an important branch of pragmatics, aims to reveal the basic structural features of conversations, and analyze the linguistic performance in social activities. The core theory of conversation analysis, turn-taking, was first put forward by Harvey Sacks, Emanuel A. Schegloff and Gail Jefferson in 1974. At that time, turn-taking was mainly used to study daily conversations. Later, with the development of drama semiotic, turn-taking has been introduced into the script analysis as a particular way to analyze dialogue. The framework provides a new method for the study of film texts, and it can well reveal characters' personality and power relationships in the film.

A turn is a time during which a single participant speaks, with typical, orderly arrangement in which participants speak with minimal overlap and gap between them (Levinson, 2001). And Li Yuee and Fan Hongya (1998) viewed that "a turn is speaker's continuous sayings in any time in the process of conversation and the end of a turn is marked by change of role between speaker and listener or one side's silence or yielding of turn" (p. 29). For the convenience of quantitative analysis, this paper regards every utterance in the film as a turn (Li & Yu, 2001, p. 26). According to the actual needs, this paper adopts the quantitative analysis framework of turn-taking used by Li Huadong and Yu Dongming in drama stylistics, including the initiation and control of topics, turn length, turn type, interruption and monologue, and turn control strategies (Liu & Zhu, 2006), and the turn-taking model put forward by Wang Hong (2006) in *Drama Stylistic Analysis: Discourse Analysis Method*. Combined with the language of this movie, some changes are made to this framework.

II. APPLICATION OF TURN-TAKING THEORY IN CONVERSATIONS OF THELMA & LOUISE

From the perspective of turn-taking, this part, selecting eight representative conversations between two pairs of characters in the film, systematically quantifies the discourse characteristics of the protagonists Thelma and Louise. By doing so, it shows the inner changes of the protagonist Thelma from their discourse changes, so as to reveal how Thelma grows up from a naive little girl to a woman with self-protection ability and independent personality, and how her transformation promotes the development of movie plot.

A. Conversations between Thelma and Louise

The following conversation is extracted from the beginning of the movie. Louise calls Thelma and asks if she prepares for their trip (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 1

Characters		Louise	Thelma
Number of turns		3	4
Initiation & Topic-Control		More control	Less control
Average Length of Turns (words)		21	8
Turn-type	Initiation	1	1
	Response	1	3
	I after R	1	1

In this clip, after Thelma answers the phone and greets, Louise starts a topic and asks Thelma how she prepares for the trip. Thelma follows the topic, saying that she needs to discuss it with her husband. Louise then launches on this topic, criticizing Thelma. Thelma thinks her husband would not agree. After two turns, the call is over.

In this dialogue, Louise has 3 turns, both of which are initiation, one is response to Thelma's questions, and the average length of turns is 21 words; Thelma does not really initiate a topic, and the average length of turns is 7.3. Obviously, Louise dominates the call and controls the right to speak. Thelma just passively accepts Louise's domination. In the phone call, she says that she needs to ask her husband's permission to go out for a trip. It shows that Thelma is a full-time housewife who has never left her home alone. In her family, she also passively accepts her husband's domination. She has no initiative.

The following conversation happens when Louise and Thelma escape the murder scene and discuss countermeasures (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 2

Characters		Louise	Thelma
Number of turns		7	8
Initiation & Topic-Control		More control	Less control
Average Length of Turns (words)		22.3	9.7
Turn-type	Initiation	2	6
	Response	4	3
	I after R	6	1

After Louise shoots the man who attempts to rape Thelma, they quickly flee the scene and discuss countermeasures. This scene is the beginning of their escape. In this clip, Thelma starts the conversation to ask what to do next. Louise gives a negative answer and asks her to be quite so that she can calm down and think of a solution. Thelma, on the other hand, starts another conversation, suggesting that they should call the police immediately. Louise asks questions and makes her own judgment. Thelma agrees and shifts the topic to talk about her feelings about the trip, while Louise refutes this new topic.

There are 15 turns in total in this conversation, of which Thelma has 8 turns and Louise has 7 turns, which are basically the same. In terms of turn types, Thelma initiates topics six times, while Louise rarely does. On the surface, Thelma seems to have control and dominant position, but it is easy to find that her words are all in the form of questions, asking Louise what to do next. This reflects that Thelma does not know where to go, so she has to start a conversation and ask Louise for help. Although Louise does not initiate a topic, every turn of her talk is an initiation after response. She analyzes and answers Thelma's questions and provides assistance to comfort the injured Thelma, which makes her average length of turn 22.3 words. Therefore, it is Louise who controls the right of speech in the real sense, which shows her strong, calm and self-confident side, and also reflects Thelma's characteristic of simplicity, indecision, panic, lack of social experience and immaturity of mind.

The following dialogue happens when Thelma and Louise find out their money is stolen (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 3

Characters		Louise	Thelma
Number of turns		1	2
Initiation & Topic-Control		Less control	More control
Average Length of Turns (words)		44	49.5
Turn-type	Initiation	1	2
	Response	1	0
	I after R	0	0

Louise gets money from her boyfriend and leaves it in Thelma's custody. Unexpectedly, her money has been stolen by the thief J. D. In this clip, Thelma starts the topic first. She expresses her anger at J. D. for stealing money in an unprecedented tone. Louise then follows the topic, expressing the seriousness of the problem of losing money and confusion about their future.

In this segment, Thelma and Louise's power relationship and character are all revealed. There are 3 turns in this clip, of which Thelma initiates the topic and takes two turns, 9 words in total, while Louise only has 1 turn. It is clear that Thelma is in control of the right to speak at this moment. Moreover, nearly half of Thelma's words are imperative sentences, and she uses the tone of command to comfort Louise. Louise, on the other hand, expresses her confusion about their future. After losing money, Louise is in despair, almost collapsed and has no idea. Under the paralinguistic feature, she is squatting in the ground and crying helplessly. But Thelma is totally changed. Obviously, the little girl who was scared, dazed and coquettish, suddenly becomes mature. It is from this moment that Thelma begins to be strong.

The next clip starts with Thelma pointing her gun at the traffic police and ends with Thelma and Louise locking him in the trunk and driving away (see Table 4).

TABLE 4
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 4

Characters		Louise	Thelma	Policeman
Number of turns		9	10	1
Initiation & Topic-Control		Less control	More control	Losing control
Average Length of Turns (words)		5.8	19.7	8
Turn-type	Initiation	2	7	1
	Response	1	2	0
	I after R	0	0	0

There are 20 turns in this clip, including 10 for Thelma, 9 for Louise and 1 for the traffic police. Obviously, Thelma and Louise control the right of speech as well as the traffic police. In terms of the average length of turns, Thelma has an average length of 19.7; while Louise averages 5.8 words. From the perspective of turn-type, Thelma has 7 times of initiations, while Louise has only 2 times. Although the total number of turns of Louise is almost same as Thelma, most of them are responses to Thelma. Therefore, it can be seen from the data that Thelma has absolute discourse control right. It is showed that from this clip Thelma has changed her image from being nervous and at a loss in trouble, submissive to men, obedient to orders, and now becomes an independent woman with a strong sense of autonomy and resistance. Thelma's armed robbery store may be a little immature and lack of innovation, but this time, the hijack seems to be much more skillful.

The following clip starts with the truck driver parking and ends with Thelma and Louise driving away (see Table 5).

TABLE 5
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 5

Characters		Louise	Thelma	Truck driver
Number of turns		11	10	11
Initiation & Topic-Control		Less control	More control	Losing control
Average Length of Turns (words)		11.1	7.4	6.5
Turn-type	Initiation	8	6	3
	Response	2	1	8
	I after R	0	1	0

In this clip, there are 32 turns in total, of which Thelma has 10, Louise has 11, the truck driver has 11, and the number of turns each character is basically the same. In terms of average length of turn, Thelma has an average length of 7.4 words per turn; Louise has 11.1 words per turn; and the truck driver 6.5 words. It's clear that Thelma and Louise dominate the conversation. This is more obvious from the perspective of turn type. Thelma or Louise is the initiator of every topic. The truck driver has never initiated a topic at one time. He is just following the topics of the two heroines, simply responding, repeating and cursing.

Compared with Thelma, Louise has the advantage of dominant discourse, because this time Louise first raised her gun. But compared with their paralinguistic features, Thelma pulls out the gun, shoots at the truck right away, and Louise threatens the driver for a long time, which shows Thelma's inner firmness. It can be said that the confrontation with the truck driver makes Thelma and Louise's image of strong woman to the top. Their consciousness and will of

woman's rights has been highlighted unprecedentedly. They have become strong women fighters to defend their rights. After all kinds of experiences, with the help of Louise, Thelma finds herself for the first time as well as the opportunity to express her feelings. And it is this spirit that inspires them to march forward bravely, and indicates the arrival of the climax part.

This next excerpt begins when Louise realizes they have been seen by the police and finishes till the film's ending (see Table 6).

TABLE 6
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 6

Characters	Louise	Thelma
Number of turns	17	17
Initiation & Topic-Control	Less control	More control
Average Length of Turns (words)	6.2	6.6
Turn-type	Initiation	2
	Response	13
	I after R	1

This clip has 34 turns, 17 for each of them. The average length of turn is 6.6 and 6.2 respectively. In terms of turn types, Thelma initiates topics 15 times in total, while Louise initiates topics 2 times. This shows that at the end of the film, Thelma has completely controlled the right to speak. What issues they are going to discuss and where they are going are all under Thelma's control. After the escape, Thelma, becoming a big woman who has a strong sense of autonomy and ideas, is indomitable and courageous.

B. Conversations between Thelma and Her Husband Darryl

This group of conversation happens after Louise's call at the beginning of the movie. It is the first time in the movie that Thelma talks to her husband (see Table 7).

TABLE 7
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 7

Characters	Thelma	Darryl
Number of turns	7	7
Initiation & Topic-Control	Less control	More control
Average Length of Turns (words)	8.7	9.7
Turn-type	Initiation	6
	Response	1
	I after R	1

Thelma reminds Darryl to come to have breakfast quickly, while he says dirty words and tells Thelma not to shout loudly in the morning. Thelma twice wants to talk about the trip, but finally does not say it. Her husband replies impatiently, "what?" When she asks what to eat in the evening, Darryl mumbles at her again. Then Thelma wants to find some topics to ease the atmosphere, but he is still impatient.

They have the same number of turns. Thelma initiates topics six times in this conversation, but all of them are exploratory questions, while Darryl is responding to the topic impatiently. On the surface, Thelma has control and dominant position, but in fact, her husband has the dominant power of discourse. It can be seen that Thelma at this time is a housewife without status, and she completely obeys her husband.

However, in the following conversation, things change. This scene happens on their way to escape (see Table 8).

TABLE 8
STATISTICAL RESULT OF EXCERPT 8

Characters	Thelma	Darryl
Number of turns	6	7
Initiation & Topic-Control	Less control to more control	More control to less control
Average Length of Turns (words)	9.3	10.9
Turn-type	Initiation	3
	Response	4
	I after R	0

Thelma and Louise left the hotel, and continue to flee. Thelma, who has not made up her mind to escape, calls home. In this clip, Darryl starts with a topic and directly asks where they are going. Thelma tells him where she is going. However, Darryl does not listen to her at all. He is furious, orders her to go home and criticizes Thelma for being crazy. Thelma, on the other hand, follows the topic closely and offers a further explanation. At this time, Darryl interrupts Thelma, because he wants to watch the football game on TV. Thelma finishes explaining, and Darryl does not care about it. Then Thelma refutes him for the first time, "you're my husband, not my father." But there is a more furious roar or the phone. Thelma says for the first time, "go fuck yourself!", then drops the phone and completely abandons her concern for the family.

There are 13 rounds in this clip, including six for Thelma and seven for Daryl, which is basically the same. In the first half of the dialogue, Daryl always initiates the topic, and he initiates several interruptions. Obviously, he does not really care what his wife is doing or saying. Thelma just responds and explains. This reflects the unequal status of them in the family, that is, the husband is superior to his wife. Interestingly, the last six rounds of the clip are exactly the opposite of the first half. This time Thelma always initiates the topic, and her tone is firm, while her husband obviously loses his right to speak. This indicates the coming of great changes and the gradual growth of Thelma. From this point of view, this segment paves the way for the future development of the story, thus promoting the development of the whole story.

III. PERSONALITIES OF THE MAIN CHARACTERS

The above has analyzed eight groups of dialogues between the main characters and clarified the relationship between dialogues and characters. Since these dialogues are analyzed according to the sequence of plots, we can also infer some information about plot development and character shaping.

A. *Personality of Thelma*

Thelma is the key character in the film as well as the most obviously changed one. As Tables 1 and 7 show, Thelma is a housewife who obeys her husband's order before the trip. She has no life of her own. When Louise asks her to have a trip, she is still busy making breakfast for her husband. She even does not dare to mention this simple trip to her husband. She is a woman at the mercy of a patriarchal society. Therefore, Thelma, who just gets rid of her husband, is eager to go to the bar to have fun. In the bar, she is curious, naive and playful, which brings about the humiliation of Harlan. In addition, as shown in Table 2, when they start to escape, she is still at a loss. She just cries and asks Louise for her opinion. All of these show her trying to escape from problems and compromise with patriarchal society.

However, in the process of escape, she begins to change. As shown in Table 2, when she calls her husband, at the beginning, she is still explaining. After being yelled by her impatient husband, she finally hangs up decisively. As Table 3 shows, when she finds that the money for their life is a stolen by J. D. who she thinks to be a romantic lover, Thelma quickly wakes up and gets mature. She liberates and strengthens from the long repressed and bullied self, and encourages and comforts the desperate Louise. In the process of escape, she grabs the gun and bullet of the traffic police and ties him in the trunk; facing the ferocious tanker driver, she and Louise shoots the tanker and leave (see Table 4 and 5). At this time, Thelma is no longer the weak, helpless, independent little woman. After realizing the unfairness brought to women by the patriarchal society, her inner reason begins to wake up and pursue freedom and equality. As shown in Table 6, at the end of the movie, Thelma has full control of the topic. What they are going to discuss and where they are going are all under Thelma's control. Her last strong words, "let's keep going... Go!", shows her tenacity and determination. When they hold each other's hands and drive to the cliff, the movie reaches its climax. This shows that Thelma has gradually changed from a housewife who is at a loss when in trouble to a strong woman.

B. *Personality of Louise*

In most of the dialogues in the first half of the movie, Louise has more control over the topic and a longer average length of turn. In her first conversation with Thelma (see Table 1), Louise shows her frankness and independence. In this clip, it's clear that Louise controls the topic. In addition, she has a strong, calm and confident character. As Table 2 shows, after shooting the rogue, they discuss the countermeasures. In this clip, Louise firmly denies Thelma's unrealistic ideas and asks her to be quiet so that she can calm down and come up with a solution. She analyzes and answers Thelma's questions and helps.

However, as Table 3 shows, when the life-saving money is stolen, she is desperate and almost collapsed. She is at a loss and just squatted on the ground and cries helplessly. In short, it can be seen that Louise is a totally different woman from Thelma in character and experience. She is independent, capable and strong. Economically, psychologically and spiritually, she does not rely on men. She has a certain sense of autonomy from the beginning. However, since there is a secret in her heart that she has been insulted by men in Texas, she had a sense of distrust and estrangement towards men (He, 2013, p. 52). She is a woman of heartache and pity, not only because of her tragic experience, but also because of her sensitivity and tenacity to the injustice of patriarchal society.

IV. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE MAIN CHARACTERS

In this chapter, the relationship between the main characters will be analyzed according to the features of their conversations.

A. *Relationship between Thelma and Louise*

From the analysis of the dialogues between Thelma and Louise, we can see that at first Louise is the leader between them. She starts the journey, leads the conversation, teaches Thelma not to rely on her husband, and Thelma has always been hesitant. When the naive Thelma wants to revel in the bar, Louise always protects Thelma as a guardian and saves her in a critical moment. After the killing, Thelma keeps asking Louise for advice. She is totally dependent on Louise, who thinks calmly and figures out the escape route. It can be said that Thelma relies on Louise in the first half of the

movie. Since the money is stolen, the status of the two changes. Louise has lost her fighting spirit and hope. Thelma has grown up rapidly, and encourages Louise. After that, Thelma robs cash to solve their economic problems, kidnaps the police to solve their security problems, and takes the lead in shooting oil tankers to give the unscrupulous driver a lesson. It can be seen that Thelma has completely become the leader of the relationship.

On the other hand, they support each other and comfort each other. They are each other's comrades in arms. Without Louise's teaching, protection, and demonstration, Thelma may always be a panicky, weak woman. Without Thelma's later consolation and decisive decision-making, they might have been caught by the police. The relationship between the two shows the friendship between females.

B. Relationship between Thelma and Her Husband Darryl

In their first conversation, Thelma's husband never calls her nickname, his words are vulgar, and he always responds negatively to Thelma. He always dominates the right of topic, and is the absolute master of the family. Thelma has no place in the family. In this family, men and women have different status and authority. Men dominate, while women are subordinate. There is no equal right.

However, after Thelma begins to flee, everything changes. When they are on the phone, at first Darryl is dominating Thelma, but when Thelma realizes that her husband does not respect her at all and is hopeless, she finally gives up her hope of returning to the family. She curses Darryl and hangs up. We can see clearly that Thelma is no longer under her husband's control after experiencing the harm of men and social injustice. She bravely challenges the authority of men and finally achieves self-liberation.

V. CONCLUSION

Thelma & Louise is a representative feminist movie to fight against the patriarchal society. Their escape is a journey to find their true selves as well as a process of exposing the patriarchal society and male image. This mature process is accompanied by crime, bloodshed and sacrifice. They learn to resist in insult and oppression, and learn to be strong in resistance. By using the theory of turn-taking to analyze Thelma's discourse quantitatively, we can find more objective and quantitative evidences for her gradual growth.

The above analysis enables us to have a further understanding of the relationship and character of the characters in the film. It shows that the turn-taking mechanism is one of the effective ways to analyze the relationship between characters and their personalities in literary works.

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The Psychological Constraints of Using Japanese Among Indonesian Students

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Abstract—This study discusses the psychological constraints for Indonesian students in using Japanese as one of the student learning processes in order to improve speaking skills. The main obstacle for students is the sentence structure which differs between the mother tongue and the target language. The difference between the Japanese sentence structure and the Indonesian sentence structure can be seen in the learners' speech. The discussion in this study presents the influence of the interference structure of the Indonesian language on Japanese speech. Mother tongue interference then becomes a psychological constraint in the use of Japanese among Indonesian students. Research data were obtained through interviews with elicitation. The results of this study indicate that a number of syntactic elements that affect Japanese speech are found in the fields of phrases, clauses and sentences. This is mostly influenced by structural elements in the different syntaxes of Indonesian and Japanese languages, which actually have different cultural aspects. From this, it is evident that foreign language learners, especially Indonesians, have psychological barriers in speaking Japanese because the language is influenced by linguistic environmental factors related to the way Japanese people express things through their language.

Index Terms—sociolinguistics, psychological constraints, interference, syntax, Japanese

I. INTRODUCTION

Japanese speaking skills are one of the language learning outcome products that are very important for Japanese language learners (Wuisang, 2019). Mastery of speaking skills is very important in foreign language learning as a result of the learning process related to one aspect of the four basic language skills (Vavilova, et al., 2015). Speaking skills, for example, are recognized as communicative events that occur interactively, socially, and contextually (Paola Cabrera-Solano, 2020).

Speaking is the most effective means of communicating and is a person's activity to convey ideas, feelings, thoughts, and so on (Junaidi, et al., 2020). Furthermore, with language, speakers and speech recipients can exchange information, negotiate, and manage friendships (Kafryawan, et al., 2018). In this context, foreign language learning cannot be separated from learning the four basic language skills, namely, speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Rahman, et al., 2019). Of the four language skills, it is considered that listening and reading are inputs in the language learning process and speaking and writing are the output processes of the other two language skills, listening and writing (Shin & Jung, 2021). The focus of this research is to reveal the psychological barriers to speaking Japanese when learning the Japanese language. Language learning is acquiring the ability to speak and communicate (Krashen, 1989; Weda, et al., 2021). The process of learning to speak requires teachers to provide innovative teaching so that the learning outcomes in terms of speaking skills are achieved through a good process. Students are considered capable of conveying the contents of a conversation to their interlocutor in a foreign language when several good elements such as accent, pronunciation and fluency in using the foreign language being studied, so that the interlocutor is able to understand or be able to understand the contents of the speaker's message.

In the process of learning a foreign language, there is a transition of elements of a language. This phenomenon can lead to language transfer or to borrowed language elements which appear when speaking the foreign language they are learning due to the influence of bilingualism or mastery between languages (Galkina & Radyuk, 2019). This study discusses the psychological barriers of foreign speakers of Japanese. This is in the realm of sociolinguistics because it is related to the emergence of interference from elements in the field of Indonesian syntax in students' Japanese speech. Interference is a form of deviation from the language rules of the language used (Rahmayana, et al., 2018). It is the

interference experienced by students in learning Japanese that is the topic of this research study.

Bilinguals face various factors that affect their language processes (Dixon, 2020; Donnelly, et al., 2019). Bilingualism is the status of an individual who is associated with two languages and someone is associated with bilingualism if they are in a group that uses two different languages (Sarfraz, et al., 2016; Miranda, 2012; Sarif and Suganda, 2020). Discussions regarding other areas of speaking skills, for example in the field of psycholinguistics, have also discussed learners' speaking skills as being influenced by different learning conditions and the effects of the four language skills influencing each other (Khreshch, 2020; Purba, 2018; Krashen, 1989). It is widely accepted that language learning is acquiring the ability to be able to speak and communicate in a given language. The foreign language skills of the learners are demonstrated by their ability to speak and how they are able to employ the speaking skills they have acquired as a means of communication in the foreign language they master (Aziz, et al., 2019; Junaidi, et al (2020). Speaking as one of the basic language skills becomes an object of discussion in this study. The learner's speech becomes data that can be collected through interviews in order to be discussed and analysed. Speech as the data collected is speech which is interfered with in terms of syntax by the Indonesian language when the respondent speaks Japanese. According to Weinreich (2010), interference occurs because of changes in the language system related to the contact of the language being used with elements of another language spoken by bilinguals. Interference can be one of the reasons for the use of elements from another language in the speaker's language during a language contact event (Darwis & Kamsinah, 2019). Interference affects two or more languages that a person learns and then uses in communication; there are cases of two languages that have similar grammatical structures, it is also found that even in this case interference can affect the language being studied (Sugianto & Kamarudin, 2021). The interference that occurs can result in a negative transfer if there is no similarity between the two languages, i.e. the source language and the target language (Iman, 2020). Language contact and specific cases of such as interference are subjects of interest to be discussed in this study, especially the interference that occurs in both languages, as Indonesian and Japanese have many differences in linguistic terms.

Some characteristics of the Japanese language, such as the phoneme sounds *r* and *l*, are sounds that are erased because they sound faint or sounds that are pronounced weakly, while in Indonesian they can be pronounced clearly. In terms of morphology, conjugated forms do not exist in Indonesian at the level of verbs and adjectives. At the syntax level, Japanese phrases, clauses, and sentence structures are different from the Indonesian syntax (Tjandra, 2013; 2015). Therefore, students who are studying Japanese in the Japanese Language Studies program at the Nasional University often encounter the interference of these various elements in their speech.

II. AIMS OF STUDY

This study aims to: 1) describe the types of interference that occur in students' speech when communicating in Japanese that are caused by Psychological Constraints; and 2) seek alternative solutions to improve students' ability to speak Japanese.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Sociolinguistics is a field of study that looks at the relationship between language and the context used in that language. The linkage is that the use of language is closely related to social functions (Holmes, 2013). Sociolinguistics is also about the way people use language in different social conditions, as well as the social relations in a community, and how people convey and construct aspects related to social identity through their language.

Wardhaugh (2006) states that sociolinguistics is concerned with investigating the relationship between language and society with the aim of improving the understanding of the structure of language and how language functions in communication; similarly, the goal of studying the sociology of a language is an attempt to explore how social structures can be better understood through an understanding of language. There are two terms with respect to the above, namely: 1) Sociolinguistics, also called micro-sociolinguistics and 2) Sociology of language, also called macro-sociolinguistics.

According to Thomason (2001), language changes occur as a result of language contact (Perta, 2020). These language changes that occur due to language contact result in a variety of different features in the structure of language interference, all of which include linguistic structures such as phonology, lexical and grammatical structures. This is discussed by Weinreich as a manifestation of linguistic interference that begins with the assumption of the possibility of understanding speech consisting of several elements derived from other languages. This can be thought of or described as an utterance that belongs to the entirety of the language that is conveyed at the time of communication. Meanwhile the elements or utterances that do not belong to the language being used are considered as originating in a process of contact with other languages, namely borrowed and transferred elements. This interference process can be seen as a process of language use that has been deviated due to the influence of other languages. Taking a language element or inserting even the slightest language element from the first language to the second language will cause interference (Novianti & Dewi, 2008).

Interference can be divided into three main types (Weinreich, 2010), namely 1) phoneme interference; 2) grammatical interference (morpheme and syntax); and 3) lexical interference. The data to be analysed in this study are

comprised of speech collected from the conversational flow in Japanese that contains examples of interference from the language used by the students in their everyday lives, namely Indonesian. The data were collected based on the type of interference, specifically data where interference appears at the syntactic level in communication. These data came from interviews with students of the Japanese Language Study Program who use the Japanese language. The data were classified based on Weinreich's interference theory as syntactic interference at the level of phrases, clauses, and sentences. The types of language change due to language contact were categorised based on the typology of the influence on the target language structure, namely Japanese, as changes in Japanese language structure belonging to the following types: missing features, additional features, or replaced features.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Type of Research

This research is qualitative research that describes the data based on the environment and its effect on the facts. The basic assumption of this research is that psychological constraints on using Japanese occur among Indonesian Students and are caused by the interference of the syntactic structure of the mother tongue with that of the language being studied, namely Japanese. Thus, learners always feel they are conversing in Japanese but, as a result, their Japanese language development is hampered. This phenomenon is also due to the limited situations in which they can practice Japanese.

B. Population and Sample

The study population was the students of the Department of Japanese Language, Faculty of Letters, of the Nasional University of Jakarta. The study sample was a purposive sample of 20 people including both male and female respondents (Figure 1).

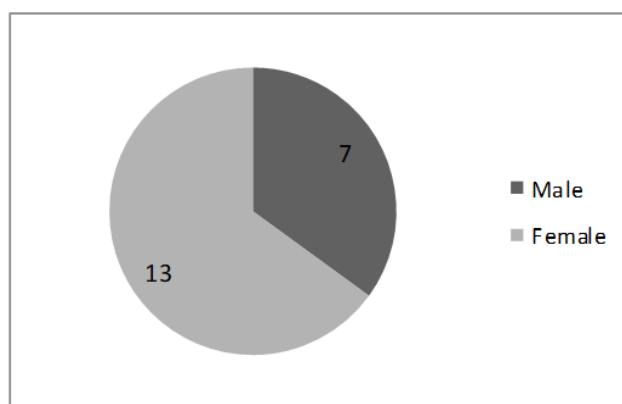


Figure 1. Research Respondents By Sex

Within this sample, the level attained in the basic Japanese language proficiency test varied from Elementary to Advanced (Table 1). The attainment category was based on the results of the test which measured four macro-skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking).

TABLE 1
STUDENT JAPANESE PROFICIENCY TEST RESULTS

Level	Category	Number of students
5	Advanced	3
4	Post intermediate	9
3	Intermediate	8
2	Post elementary	0
1	Elementary	0

C. Method of Collecting Data

Data were collected from recordings of students speaking in Japanese to observe and record the emergence of types of interference and their typology. The respondents of this study were students of the Japanese Language Study Program, Faculty of Language and Letters, Nasional University, Jakarta who were studying Japanese in their sixth semester. Japanese speech data was recorded during interview conversations. The data were collected by elicitation so that the conversations developed around a proposed theme, such as conversations about family, daily activities, hobbies and friends, and campus activities.

The stages of data collection were as follows: 1) individual interviews with the choice of theme and the flow of the interview as elicitation; 2) noting the language structures used that had experienced interference; 3) recording the type of influence on the target language structure; 4) classifying the data that had been collected; and 5) analysing the data

based on this classification.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

TABLE 2
SPEECH DATA WITH MOTHER TONGUE (INDONESIAN) INTERFERENCE

No	Sentences spoken	Correct Sentences	Form of syntactic interference	Influence on the target (Japanese) language structure
1	<i>Sorosoro <u>danjikiake o yatte iru</u> node, sugu ni kazoku o renraku shimasu</i>	<i>Sorosoro <u>danjikiake o yaru</u> node, sugu ni kazoku o renraku shimasu</i>	going to break the fast (verbal complement clause)	Danjikiake o yatte iru replaces danjikiake o yaru
2	<i>Boku ni totte wa <u>mendou to shukudai</u> wa kibishii desu.</i>	<i>Boku ni totte wa <u>mendou de shukudai</u> wa kibishii desu.</i>	difficult and strict (coordinative phrase)	Mendou to kibishii replaces mendoude kibishii.
3	<i>Nagai aida matte iru kara, <u>onaka ga suite ni natta</u> yo.</i>	<i>Nagai aida matte iru kara, <u>onaka ga suichatta</u> yo.</i>	be hungry (complementary clause)	Onaka ga suite ni natta replaces onaka ga suichatta
4	<i>Taman Safari e iku to <u>mado no kuruma</u> kara doubutsu ga miraresou desu.</i>	<i>Taman Safari e iku to <u>kuruma no mado</u> kara doubutsu ga miraresou desu.</i>	DM (car window) to MD (car window) (Noun phrase)	Mado no kuruma replaces kuruma no mado
5	<i>Shokudo ni tsuita yo. <u>Suwatte wa doko?</u> Chotto tatte moraeru. Mienai yo.</i>	<i>Shokudo ni tsuita yo. <u>Suwatte iru basho wa doko?</u> Chotto tatte moraeru. Mienai yo.</i>	Where should we sit? (prepositional clause)	Suwatte wa doko? missing some part of the clause (loss of feature) : suwatte iru basho wa doko?
6	<i>Kinou no <u>jugyou wa konai ka na</u>, no-to o kashite moraenai ka na.</i>	<i>Kinou no <u>jugyou ni dete inai</u> node, no-to o kashite moraenai ka na.</i>	Not attending class (verb clause)	Jugyou wa konai ka na replaces jugyou ni dete inai node)
7	<i>Mou sugu <u>tanjoubi no tomodachi</u> da.</i>	<i>Mou sugu <u>tomodachi no tanjoubi</u> da.</i>	Form DM (tanjoubi no tomodachi) to MD (tomodachi no tanjoubi) (Nominal phrase)	Tanjoubi no tomodachi replaces tomodachi no tanjoubi
8	<i>ii yo. Boushi wa <u>kashiageru</u>.</i>	<i>ii yo. Boushi wa <u>kashiteageru</u>.</i>	(I) borrow (verb clause)	Kashiageru replaces the verb kashiteageru
9	<i>Rizuka-san wa <u>keeki o tsukutta</u> jouzu desu.</i>	<i>Rizuka-san wa <u>jouzuni keeki o tsukurimashita</u>.</i>	Rizka is good at making cakes (sentence structure)	Sentence structure: S-particle assignment (wa)-O-particle case(o)-P-Adjective replacing the sentence structure: S-particle assignment(wa)-adjective(ni)-O-P (replacement)
10	<i>Watashi wa tomodachi to tanbo de <u>asobashi, kawa de ovogu shi, chiisai sakana o tsuru shi, guaba no ki o nobotte</u> imashita.</i>	<i>Watashi wa tomodachi to tanbo de <u>asondari, kawa de oyoidari, chiisai sakana o tsuttari, guaba no ki o nobottari</u> shimashita.</i>	My friends and I played in the fields, swam in the river, fished for small fish, and climbed the guava tree. (sentence structure)	The equivalent compound sentence structure which states several actions is expressed by the sentence structure: ~shi, ~shi, ~masu. It Replaces the sentence structure: ~tari, ~tari, ~masu. (replacement)
11	<i>Malang ni Bijutsukan no Angkut ga dekimashita.</i>	<i>Malang ni Angkut no Bijutsukan ga dekimashita.</i>	In Malang, there is already an Angkut Museum. (Transport Museum: Noun Phrases)	Form DM (Bijutsukan no Angkut) becomes MD (Angkut no Bijutsukan) (replacement)
12	<i>Jibun no anime ga hontou ni miraretai desu.</i>	<i>Jibun no tsukutta anime ga hontou ni miraretai desu.</i>	Self-made anime (supplementary clause)	Jibun no anime replaces jibun no tsukutta anime.
13	<i>Iku no mae ni, ressha chiketto o katte okimasu.</i>	<i>Iku mae ni, ressha chiketto o katte okimasu.</i>	Before leaving (time marker prepositional phrase)	Iku no me ni replaces iku mae ni
14	<i>Watashi wa <u>gakusei no nihon bungaku</u> desu.</i>	<i>Watashi wa <u>nihon bungaku no gakusei</u> desu.</i>	Japanese Literature Student (Noun Phrases)	The form of DM in Indonesian influences the speaker to say: Gakusei no nihon my flower which replaces MD (nihon bungaku no gakusei)
15	<i>Tomodachi wa kinou <u>saifu o wasurete shimaimashita</u>.</i>	<i>Tomodachi wa kinou <u>saifu o motte iku no o wasurete shimaimashita</u>.</i>	Forgot to bring a wallet (verb clause)	Saifu o wasurete shimaimashita (forgot wallet) replaces and removes some features (replacement and loss features) from the clause: saifu o motte iku no o wasurete shimaimashita (forgot to bring wallet)

Based on Table 2, there were 15 cases of interference where psychological constraints occurred during data collection. To ascertain the cause of the psychological constraints in using Japanese, the researcher then conducted interviews with all respondents. A summary of the interviews is presented in Figure 2.

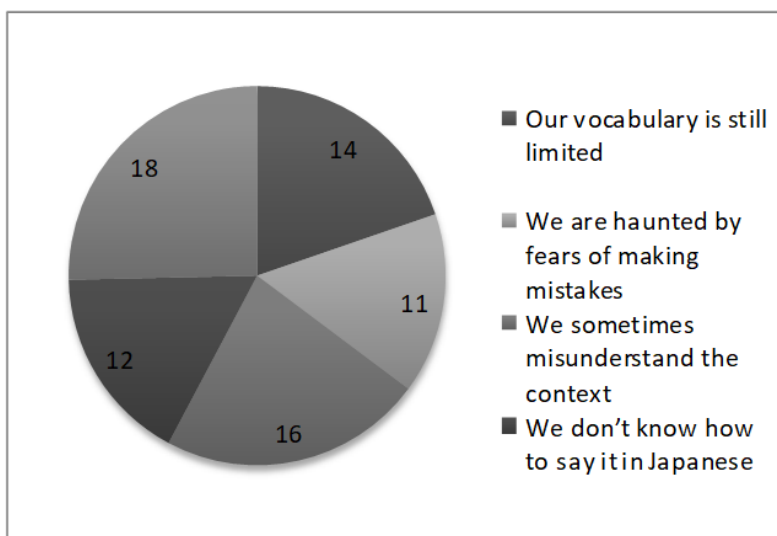


Figure 2. Summary of The Interview Responses

The number and percentage of interview respondents experiencing various types of psychological constraint on speaking Japanese is shown in Table 3. The results of these interviews are important for Japanese language teachers to help them know how to find effective Japanese language teaching strategies to obtain maximum results.

TABLE 3
THE CAUSES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRAINTS ON SPEAKING JAPANESE

No	PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRAINTS	PERCENTAGE (N20)
1	Our vocabulary is still limited	14 (70%)
2	We are haunted by fears of making mistakes	11 (55%)
3	We sometimes misunderstand the context	16 (80%)
4	We don't know how to say it in Japanese	12 (60%)
5	Feeling less confident	18 (90%)

B. Discussion

Japanese has different characteristics from Indonesian. This can be seen from the differences in the field of syntax. In the Indonesian phrase structure, the element D (explained/core) precedes the element M (explains/not the core); however, on the contrary, in Japanese noun phrases the element M precedes the element D. In the cases taken from interviews in Table 2 above, students were affected by Indonesian when speaking Japanese: for example, the Japanese literature students mentioned *Museum Angkut*, with the Japanese phrase pronounced as *Bijutsukan no Angkut* (it should be: *Angkut no Bijutsukan*). Other examples include *tomodachi no watashi* (it should be *watashi no tomodachi*) and *Gakusei no Nihon Bungaku* (it should be: *Nihon Bungaku no Gakusei*).

In the verb clause data, interference cases are often encountered because in Indonesian, there is no conjugation or verb change to express various different conditions such as the relative timeframe. Complementary clauses arise because of differences in the use of expressions in the conversational language used when communicating. This is because Japanese has a high dependence on certain contexts and has its own rules regarding the expressions used when communicating.

In the phenomenon of language contact that occurs in student speech, the occurrence of interference is influenced by language; in particular, interference is influenced by bilingualism. Interference at the clause level is caused by the fact that clauses in Japanese, especially verb clauses, need to be altered or conjugated (*doushi no katsuyou*) according to the form of the sentence. *Doushi no katsuyou* is a change of verb from the basic verb to a positive form, negative form, past form, conjunctive form, invitation form, command form and other forms.

To get used to using verb changes in Japanese, students must memorize and become used to making sentences with verb changes according to the context. Verbs in Japanese undergo changes or conjugations according to their group. These changes cause students to experience psychological constraints when using verbs. Another obstacle is that students are more responsive in the written language than in the spoken language.

Findings in this study included the formation of the verb, where *--yatte iru* replaced the verb *yaru*; the verb form *--tte iru* means the verb indicates the activity being carried out, while the verb *yaru* expresses the future tense. Verb clauses are used in other complements such as *kashiageru* being used to replace the verb *kashiteageru*. The context in sentences with *kashiageru* verbs is different from that of *kashiteageru* verbs. Verbs that are given the affixes *--ageru* and *--kureru* indicate an act of giving or receiving that is done with kindness. The use of Japanese verbs based on their changes and context in sentences still experiences interference from the Indonesian language when students use them to

communicate. This is also seen in *Rizka is good at making cakes*, pronounced as: *keeki o tsukutta jouzu desu*. In a proper sentence structure, the position of the adjective is in front of the predicate, namely the verb to make: *jouzuni keeki o tsukurimasu*.

The influence of language contact on the speech of Indonesian Japanese language learners undergoes an adaptation process in code-switching, code alternation, passive familiarity, negotiation, second language acquisition strategies, first language acquisition effects, and deliberate decision. In addition, the influence of the structure of the Japanese language which is syntactically different from Indonesian is also a major obstacle.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study shows the influence of the speaker's mother tongue, namely Indonesian, on the spoken Japanese language. The speakers were native Indonesian speakers with different abilities who were learning Japanese. These students have generally met and talked to Japanese people, but in the phenomenon of language contact that occurs between Indonesian and Japanese, these students still experience the influence of their mother tongue, especially at the syntactic level.

When encountering a different language system and structure, the performance of students experienced interference due to the strong influence of the mother tongue, namely Indonesian. Although the interviews were delivered in Japanese, the students made several speeches with language structures adapted to their mother tongue, namely Indonesian, despite the many differences in systems or the linguistic level of the two languages.

In the process of learning a second language or becoming bilingual through the process of acquiring a second language, it was found that there was an inter-lingual transfer error or an error in the transfer process between languages which was influenced by the structure of the mother tongue when communicating using a foreign language; in this case, the structure of the Indonesian language affected Japanese language usage. In this study, when the students spoke during interviews, the Japanese spoken structure used was affected by the structure of the Indonesian language.

In communicating through verbal expressions, the students used speech with sentence patterns that are adapted to oral speech patterns, in that they placed adjectives or adverbs in their speech without paying attention to standard Indonesian sentence patterns. In terms of sociolinguistics, further study is needed to elucidate other factors which cause changes in the way the target language is spoken, resulting in interference or other forms of influence.

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Language of Violence in Social Media: A Linguistic Cognitive Study

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Abstract—Language is not a fixed structure, but a changeable group whose contents the violence. First, we do not choose our native language. Second, we do not choose the concepts prevailing in our culture. However, we have neither the capacity nor the choice to escape the power of language. This research presumes the existence of the phenomenon of language violence in dialogue with the other, in dialogue with oneself, as well as hidden violence in language. It also presumes that this phenomenon has cognitive dimensions through which violence structures are built into general concepts, which are feared to be physically realized in reality. What arises within the language may be processed within the language before it appears in reality. This study examines the cognitive dimensions of language violence and its recent manifestations of social networking by analyzing selected models of social media by taking advantage of cognitive linguistic data to figure out the cognitive images of language violence used by social media dialogists/interlocutors. In other words, it is an attempt to reveal how words and compositions are used as a weapon by which the speaker attacks the dialogist. This study does not abide by strict time limits but adheres to the study of the phenomenon in models of expressions currently used on social media. On the other hand, it discusses the roots of violence in models of expressions in the Arab heritage in the past. All these contexts are in peace, not war.

Index Terms—language, cognitive linguistic, violence, social media

I. INTRODUCTION

Just as the peaceful cooperation among human beings appears, so does violence in human societies; But when violence turns from an urgent matter of self-defense or property protection to a justified behavior in words or actions, here violence becomes a devastating threat that requires urgent treatment to save its victims. Addressing violence within language represents an implicit agreement to reject violence altogether, which means refusing to utter its words first, and refusing to agree to the circulation of violent concepts second.

The effect of language on thought and on the direction of culture is so prominent. Language makes culture on the one hand, and culture on the other, makes language. But the problem here is that a human evolves very rapidly and many of his concepts change, which may actually fade out of existence, but they remain stuck within the language that he uses. The danger of language here lies in reproducing texts with violent contents and repeating them in modern contexts that promote their acceptance.

When I wrote this paper, it became clear to me the extent of the damage that violent language inflicts on the soul and body. The frequency of encountering those violent words that I collected during this study, even though these words were not directed at me personally, caused me psychological distress and extreme discomfort. Here, I would like to underline the importance of studying this subject linguistically, psychologically, socially and technically as well; to provide appropriate solutions to address this issue, to purify the human language in general and Arabic in particular from any violence that distorts the face of human civilization.

Among the most important findings of some previous studies on language violence is that the use of colloquial language in the realization of violence makes it more dangerous and more effective. "Language violence tends to be more intense when political discourse makes use of the vernacular and is met with a counter-violence more harsh than it. This violence permeates the society, so reflected in the behavior of its members, and becomes an inherent characteristic of it". Language violence also appears in conversations, which is manifested "in adjectives of slander in the colloquial dialect and their expressive ability to create words that specific to the linguistic community and derived from dialect environment, its senses, its terrain, and its conception of the universe and life". Saad al-Dukkan (2016) indicates that the power of language makes it an important responsibility on the shoulders of linguists: "When its speakers, who belong to it, in its various fields and fraternal branches, call for the necessity of exposing the fallacies of violent discourse."

This research assumes that social networks is an open digital space which gives complete freedom of expression in the same language that people speak in their daily conversations, and that such an unfettered freedom indicates many dangers in using language as a tool to inflict harm on the other, thus creating violent reaction to counter these linguistic attacks. From social networks, we chose "Twitter" as an analytical evidence model that employs language to realize violent purposes.

Before beginning to present the themes of this paper, it is important to differentiate between two important terms: "Violence of Language" and "Language of Violence". What is meant by the first term is the violence that a language, by

its nature, imposes on its speakers through an authority that exists in the language itself and another symbolic authority that the language acquires from the social status of the speaker. Language with its authority may force us to do with our words or our thinking what we do not like to do that when it restricts us to limited choices of words. As for what is meant by the second term "Language of Violence", it is the use of language for realizing violent purposes and charging the words with desires of inflicting psychological or physical harm on the other, or on oneself.

II. THE CONCEPT OF VIOLENCE

In Arabic dictionaries, Al-'Ounf (violence) is defined as being against Al-Rifq (kindness). I reprimanded him: i.e. I scolded him, blamed him and reprimanded him with the words. And Al-'Aanyif (violent words) means: harsh words, and from that is what Abu Sakhr Al-Hudhali said in addressing his satire to Ta'abbata Sharran: (innuendo التعريض)

*Fa-'Ina ibn Turna 'Idha Ji'atukum *** Araho Yudaafi'au Qawlan 'Anifan*

In English literally translates as:

If I come to your land, Even Ibn Turna *** I think he will be insulted with violent words

[Ibn Turna is a metaphor for the mean person]

Violence is defined idiomatically as: A set of behaviors aimed at harming oneself or the other, and it comes in multiple forms, such as hitting, quarreling, destroying or damaging, and verbal violence such as threatening, instigating sedition, innuendo, stinging joke, and everything that leads directly or indirectly to inflicting harm.

According to the previous definitions, violence is an act against and harms the other, which, in its cognitive dimension, is a sensory thing that occurs from and falls in language. In the struggle over power, human beings choose verbal rather than physical violence, so they replace their physical weapons with symbolic tools (the words) because these tools keep them away from getting hurt or killed. In order to liberate the concept of violence in language, we define the metaphors by which violence is practiced against the other and sometimes against the self. The violence inherent in any society uses words as a weapon of conflict, and makes language a field of war, as language, as described by Jean Lecercle, is the field within which current conflicts being played out. In other words, it is language that conveys to us the hateful racist views, and at the same time is the area where racists are moving. Linguistic violence is inflicted by words, and it also occurs within words. The danger of coercion of language lies in language's acknowledgment of the already existing words of violence or racism.

Violence is a disease or epidemic that feeds on and thrives in language and is finally realized outside it in physical reality. The danger of the symbolic power of language comes from its ability to create violence through verbal expressions. This power of the language, its effectiveness is not realized only if it is recognized by accepting it when being silent about it or by acknowledging it through its circulation, and here, the dominance of language emerges. Ethnic genocide, for example, is not a spontaneous event or the result of a sudden moment, but the result of a history of texts circulation by agreement and support, texts charged with revenge and nostalgia for the past, which feeds violent language and contributes to the realization of violence on the ground.

III. THE LANGUAGE CONCEPT

De Saussure defines language as a system of signs for expressing ideas. Language, even if it appears to us as a tangible thing, in sounds or written forms, however, it represents a set of events. Words are instruments of thought. Just as ideas have an individual aspect represented in their expression, they also have a social aspect represented in receiving and accepting them. Because language is a social phenomenon, it cannot emerge without the existence of a society; and words do not acquire their significance or meanings except within this social order. Accordingly, "the study of language, in terms of the social conditions in which it functions and develops, falls within the field of the scientific study of societies."

Sapir believes that language is "a purely human, not instinctive, aimed at communicating ideas, feelings and desires by means of a system of symbols chosen by a society." Searle argues that the speech act is the smallest unit of human communication, by which the speaker exercises an action towards the recipient and wants to bring about what he means by his saying. This is clearly reflected in the meaning of a simple speech when the speaker intends what his words exactly mean, and here the speaker has the intention to produce an effect or an action that is directly mentioned in the speech; in another words, the speaker seeks to have the recipient know his intention in a direct way. But the meaning of a speech is not always simple and straightforward; as there may be hidden hints are implicit in the saying such as irony, sarcasm, or metaphor.

In his book "Language Violence", Lecercle differentiates between the system of language and the remainder of the language, even if he finds them intertwined and living together in linguistic activities. While the language system follows the grammars and the prevailing norms in society, the reminder of the language breaking out of the prevailing linguistic paradigms and cannot be described or subjected to a specific system. The reminder exploits and violates language rules. In Lecercle's view, metaphor has the greatest influence on the remainder of language. In the view of Lakoff and Johnson, language is a source of inference about the cultural metaphorical structure that shapes the nature of our thinking. Metaphor is not a purely linguistic figure, but rather a cultural phenomenon, by which language is affected,

and can be well explained by assuming conceptual correlations between one field of perception and another field of expression.

Language plays an important role in physical reality; it is not a description of already existing events but rather a description of the partial creation of them, and the symbolic aspect of language is an essential part of the construction of actual reality. According to Austin, speech acts can be broken down into two types of intentionality: The first type is the directive acts, which are intentional in essence such as direct commands or prohibitions, or verdictives. The commands push you to do the act and prohibitions push you to avoid the acts, and the verdictives convince you to accept or reject. Here, "the effect of that directive act appears on the listener, such as urging, persuading, or expecting someone to do something." The second type is perlocutionary acts that may or may not be intentional. This speech act is not directly intended but leads to consequences for our actions.

Language connection to reality is through circulating the meanings of its words, and it is the meaning of words that transforms speech into actions that appear in reality. In order to address the reality of violence in the language, it must be withdrawn that the collective acceptance of circulating or justifying notions of violence within language and declaring them in the faces of others or towards oneself. The most powerful influencer that leads to the disappearance of this violence is the refusal to practice and convey it in word and deed. We not only use language to perform the functions of communication, but by the words of the language we also perform actions; by language we do harm, and by language we make good, and by language judgments are issued, and a person dies or lives. Our words are part of our actions, and with every word we utter or write, an action generates and makes an impact on the ground.

IV. NETWORK COMMUNICATION CONCEPT

Networking communication is the communication that takes place between digital individuals on social media. Social media can be defined as: digital communication tools based on the Internet, and allow people to interact with posts, pages of friends or followers. Among the most famous social media are: Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Pinterest, Snapchat, and other social networks that have recently increased rapidly.

Registration on social sites required choosing a pseudonym that will be your identity on these sites and a password, which will serve as a user identification card, and a candidate for membership in a social network must agree to the terms of an agreement that sets out his/her "digital" rights and obligations. A social media user may be subject to penalties such as deleting his/her account or freezing it as a result of unethical or immoral practices that a digital citizen may do, as social media sites represent a virtual country in which individuals enjoy freedom and protection by the administration of these sites.

When personal identification is up to the user, participating individuals can use pseudonyms to represent their identities. Research on this type of social interaction, in which real identity is hidden or not known, has indicated that it allows individuals to explore their repressed identities and get to know themselves more in a somewhat safe manner. Because of the opportunity of having an alternative anonymous identity and that your actions have no consequences for you and will not be linked to your real identity but to the virtual identity you have chosen on the virtual space, perpetrating aggression against and bullying of others becomes easy.

The speech act on social media is not explained by its meaning but by its effect. The language of conflict or antagonistic scenes on social media is part of the actual world, where the relationship between words and the intentions of the interlocutors/speakers is not one of representation but one of interaction; if a tweeter or commentator writes a word, it travels from the commentator's screen to the recipient's screen. This word constitutes a meaning that can have physical effect on the body of a recipient who receive these meanings in the form of words but they do harm in his body as bullets do or what a weapon does. The materiality of linguistic practices makes language violence dangerous and directly affecting; the violence inherent in the insult is not due to the high-pitched voice, but to its incorporation into a well-established practice in a series of affecting expressions.

V. THE ROOTS OF VIOLENCE IN THE ARABIC LANGUAGE

The concepts that control our thinking, according to Lykov and Johnson, show what we are aware of and how we deal with the world and with people, so that the conceptual format plays a central role in determining our daily realities, and that our conceptual system in a large part of it is metaphorical in nature.

Before we begin to analyze any model of linguistic violence, dear reader, we must initially agree to recognize the existence of what is already called linguistic violence. The existence of the term "linguistic violence" is an implicit agreement that, this linguistic or social disease exists. This is the beginning of diagnosing the disease and determining its roots and locations. The fact that a language does not contain a specific term does not indicate that the culture of such a language does not contain the concept of this term. This is in contrast to Russell's conclusion, who believes that the absence of the term "ineptus" (impertinent) from the Greek language indicates that the morals of the Greeks are so high that they did not need a word to describe this disease. On the contrary, Cicero concluded that this disease was very common to the degree that they were not even aware of its existence. The recognition of the existence of the concept of linguistic violence in the Arabic language, hence, is the beginning of a correct diagnosis of it. Our access to the concept of violence in language means that the culture consciously reaches out to the diagnosis of the disease to begin to cure it.

By envisioning violence as a disease that can be combated, violence becomes a biological condition that can be treated, thus strengthening the language's immune system to resist any emerging viruses of violence. By relying on linguistic data, we can determine the perception of violence in the Arab mindset by searching for its roots in traditional texts first, to give an idea of what makes feelings or controversy are depicted as violent scenes of war and physical conflict, or makes language words are depicted as weapons by which humans kill each other. It is important noting that, this depiction is not just a linguistic metaphor but what is depicted in it is absolutely achieved in feelings or situations. When we talk about the controversy as a war, one of the two sides of the controversy may "actually" win or lose; a person he argued with him is considered an adversary; the words he says are for defense or attack; and one of them may besiege the other by "words". And "in this sense, borrowing a controversy as a war is one of our cultural metaphors that we live by and that show the activities we perform when we are arguing." In the past, the Arabs were aware of what words can do, so they said: "Al-Harb Awlha Kalam wa Akhirha Essttilam" (*literally meaning: war begins with words and ends with bloody battles*). The Arabs pointed out the great influence of language on souls and bodies, and that the injuries caused by words to the body are more painful and harmful than that caused by arrows and swords, some of them said: "Jarh Al-Kalam Ashadu mn Jarh Al-Siham" (*literally meaning: the wounds of words are worse than the wounds of arrows*). Al-Jahiz in his book "Mahasin wa Azdad" under the title "Mahasin Hifz Al-Lisan" (*literally meaning: the advantages of keeping silent*) quotes the words of Aktham bin Saifi: "Maqtal Al-Rajol biyn Fakkaiyh" (*literally meaning: The killer of a man is between his jaws [indicating to the human tongue]*). A poet said:

(V1) *Wa Jurho Alsayf Ta'asawh Fibra***Wa Jurho al-Dahr ma Jarh al-Lisano*

(V2) *Jirahat at-Ti'aan laha Ilti'aamo***Wla Yaltam ma Jarah al-Lisano*

In English literally translates as:

(V1) A wound of the sword, if treated, will be healed

*** A wound by the tongue (speech) would not heal

(V2) Stab-wounds will heal *** But a wound caused by the tongue will not be healed

Here, in these poetic verses the knowledge of words is built by depicting them with concepts and relations (metaphors) derived from the domain of war: that is, building the concept of [the word] by depicting it with the concept of [the weapon]: i.e. depicting the word as a sharp tool that causes wound or stab. The first domain has been called the "target", and the second is called the "source". For Lakoff and Johnson, metaphor is based not so much on similarities as on mapping. The relations are based on a penetrating process between two domains, one is a target domain and the other is a source domain, as there are correspondences between the two domains.

Nasr ibn Sayyar said:

*Fa'iina al-Naar bil-Awdain Tuthka***Wa 'ina al-Harb Mabda'wuha al-Kalam*

In English literally translates as:

A fire is generated by two sticks***A war begins with words

In these poetic verses, language is portrayed as a tangible entity, and words are portrayed as tools used to realize certain functions or goals; The poet deals with the tools of language as weapons that inflict harm on the victim's body. So the word is a sword, the injuries of words are not expected to be healed, and the word is maybe a small spark that ignites a great war. Although the Arabs have noticed the manifestations of linguistic violence and referred to it in more than one place, the Arabic grammar books contain many linguistic exercises that show violence; it appears specifically in Arabic language verbs that describe the actions practiced by one individual on another, the most prominent of which is the act of beating that always falls on (Amr, boy and servant), for example: "(Ay Rajol Dharabt) meaning (*Which man did you hit?*); (Zayd Dharab Amr) meaning (*Zayd hit Amr*); (Hal Tadhriban) meaning (*Do you (dual) hit?*); (wa Dharbi al-Abdo Mosaian) meaning (*Beating a slave by me is a bad*); (Dharab Gholamha Gar Hind) meaning (*her boy hit Hind's neighbor*); and (Al-Dahribat Gholam Al-Rajol) meaning (*the female beaters of a man's boy*).

The violence of language does not appear in the expression of harm to others only; Violence may be used in language to express feelings of love and longing. Al-Sarraj, in his book "Massari'a Al-Ushshaq," conveys to us this poetry verse of Ahmed bin Obaid:

*Ra'ayt Suyuf Albayin eind Firaqiha***Bi-Aydi Junuud al-Shawq, bil-Mawt Tadfa'u*

In English literally translates as:

When she is gone I saw the swords of farewell

***in the hands of the longing's soldiers, that galloping and coming with death

In the previous poetic verse, we see the words of violence are used to describe the scene of announcing the farewell, as longing is an army that wields deadly swords in the face of the lover and drives him to death. This book of Al-Sarraj is replete with the use of violent expressions to describe love; for example: the eyes kill, love kills, the lover is a martyr, and the lover is killer.

The roots of violence in Arabic "which are represented in those expressions used to describe love or those of grammatical exercises, in addition to the expressions that directly call for killing as a matter of courage and daring" reveal violent concepts implicitly agreed upon by evidence of their abundance in literature and grammar books.

VI. COGNITIVE DIMENSIONS OF LINGUISTIC VIOLENCE

A. Violence agonist the Other

There are two types of linguistic violence in social networks. The first type is in the context of actual war and the words of violence that bloggers (users) mention on social media and intend their literal connotation, which are phrases derived from the domain of combat, such as: (Al-Thar [revenging], Al-Qatl [killing], Al-Tamthil bil-Jasad [mutilation of body], Al-Tadmir [destruction], Al-Qasf [shelling], Al-Tafjir [bombing], Al-Nail Minkom [attacking or killing you], Al-Ibadah [extermination]...etc). Such linguistic violence is justified in the context of a war that actually inflicts violence on physical reality. The second type is patterns of linguistic violence that exchanged by dialogists/interlocutors in times of peace and in the context of talk about the religious, cultural or political issues of daily life, and in which, the same expressions from the same domain (fighting) are used.

The simplest linguistic discussion between two parties (two people) is described as a conflict or war in which one party is victorious and the other is a loser. Social networks represent a vast field for these language wars, as discussions are war, dialogue methods are tools of siege, retreating from confrontation in a dialogue war is cowardice, and when the addressee person wants to incline towards peace, he may raise terror in the heart of interlocutor/speaker who wanted to fight using language and have advanced war tools such as the original method that enables him to besiege others. All this is reflected in the following tweet:

"Most of the intellectual disputes today have become like this (Do not discuss me, do not debate me, do not besiege me), and follow the original method in the science of controversy and disagreement like (Just search in Google for information and evidence as I do; let me say what I want; do not oppose me; that is not your concern; and I am free in what I think). Terrifying superficiality." See the tweet in (Fig. 1).

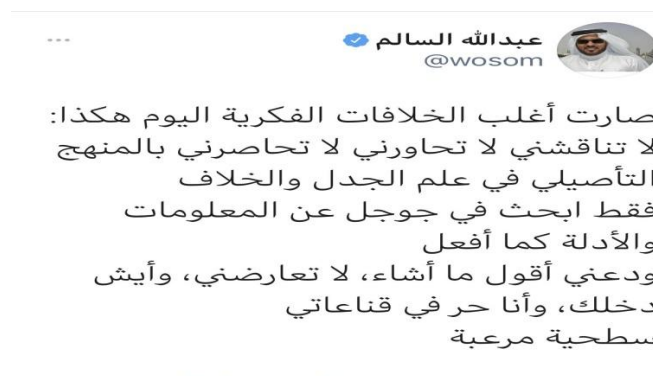


Fig. 1

Linguistic violence sometimes appears as a call to inflict physical harm on the other, in which the speaker specifies the parts of the body that he wants to stab with knives of his/her words and directs them directly to an addressee person in many forms, for example: praying/supplicating against him, insulting him, cursing him, or threatening to inflict physical or psychological harm on him. Perhaps one of the most prominent forms of linguistic violence in terms of their circulation among people is that appears in the form of "praying/supplication", in which the speaker person charges his words with the strongest meaning in existence when he asks Allah (the Almighty) to fulfill his violent desires, and then directs the arrows of his words towards the addressee person, saying for example: *"May Allah cut off your tongue and paralyze your body pillars."* See the tweet in (Fig. 2). The speaker (the author of this tweet) here will appear innocent of the direct act of violence on the victim's body, since the actor of violence here will not be the speaker himself, but according to the wishes of the one who prayed/supplicated (the speaker or tweeter), violence will fall on the victim by Allah's command. The speaker justifies such a violent statement to himself because he sees himself outside the framework of the accusation of violence and his hateful and violent desires are attributed not to himself but to Allah; thus, he makes himself immune from being charged with a violent crime.

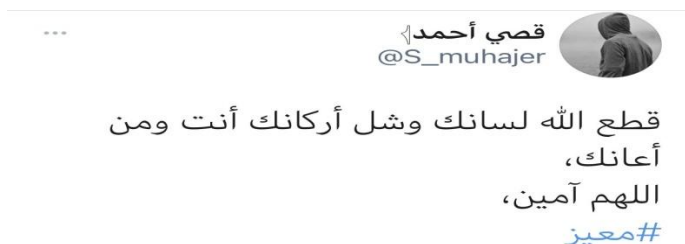


Fig. 2

This supplication which calls for direct violence towards the person against whom the supplication was directed and towards every person who assists him, was not a violent reaction to violence directed against the supplicant, but rather a response to a tweet by another person expressing his opinion on a religious issue. See the tweet and reply in (Fig. 3).



Fig. 3

Among the linguistic violence that which incites the infliction of physical harm to a specific person and alludes to what some terrorist groups are notorious for that cut off human heads, one of the tweeters specifies the part of the body that he wants to inflict violence on, tweeting: *"Feel your neck... we will avenge"*, with a direct threat indicating the writer's desire to cut the neck of the addressee person or his desire to realize this matter at the hands of others. See: the tweet in (Fig. 4).



Fig. 4

In the context of someone's victory in a dialogue, the language turns into missiles that bombard and explosives that blow up the forehead of the addressee person, by a tweet saying: *"By Allah, he blew his forehead,"* meaning that he (a third party) embarrassed the addressee person and proved the corruption of his argument with the power of proof and defeated him. This linguistic violence is accompanied by laughter and rejoicing with the thrill of victory. See the tweets in (Fig. 5, Fig. 6).



Fig. 5



Fig. 6

Direct hate speech is verbal aggression when the speaker person exploits language resources to express racism against some groups with the aim of causing psychological or physical harm to the addressee person, while incitement speech is the incitement of followers or addressees to ostracize a group of people or an individual. "Hate speech" can be defined as: "racist expressions against individuals or groups of people that based on gender, race, skin color, citizenship, political opinion, sexual orientation, or geographic range."

Violence also seen in taking religious texts out of their context and using them in a context that contributes to people's feelings of hate and desire for revenge, in order to incite against a certain group of people by using texts that depict scenes of torture of criminals in the afterlife to surround the addressed person by a frame within this violent scene, and the speaker person here grants himself "the authority of Allah the almighty" and gives himself the right to specify whoever he wants and according to his opinion those for whom these verses were intended. See the tweet in (Fig. 7).



Fig. 7

A translation of the tweet in Fig. 7 is as follows: "Allah the almighty said: *'Indeed, the criminals will be in the punishment of Hell, abiding eternally.'* {Surat Al-Zukhruf (43), verse (74)} Who are the criminals in the land? The Jews and the Americans, May Allah curse them."

The speed of intuition and mastery of language gives a person a power to confront his opponents; Language is a tool of strength, and the dominance in social situations is always for those who are skilled in language. One of the strategies that some dialogists/interlocutors or sometimes intruders use is that of asking direct personal questions to the addressee. This is because the question is a weapon that surprises the addressee (who they're speaking to) with the aim of stripping him of his weapons, making him on a defensive instead of an offensive position, or the goal of questions of curious people may be to bring the addressee out of a state of peace into a state of war with them. A direct question by an unknown person, or by a known person who possesses any kind of authority, through a text message without greeting, identifying the questioner's identity or mentioning the reasons for his/her question, may be a weapon that penetrates the privacy of the person to whom the question is addressed. Even if the message is something like: "How's it going?" Intrusive questions in our cognitive perception are a direct invasion of privacy, because every direct question is a compulsive intrusion; the questioner or the inquirer may know what is there and what he will find, but he wants to find the answer himself and bring it to light. Here, the goal of language is not to inform or communicate, but rather, it is to extract the answer, and to establish an authoritarian relationship between the questioner and the person to whom the question is addressed, by the question itself. The same is true whether the question is a repetitive or urgent personal question, or a formal question in a formal interrogation. Both represent authority over the person to whom the question is addressed (the person questioned).

When one asks the other in an intellectual discussion: "What is your religion?" or "Are you a Muslim?"; he definitely wants to get out of the discussion and invade the other's privacy like a thief breaks into your home and steals your possessions to use them as a weapon against you. Let us consider the dialogue in (Fig. 8): The first dialogist raises a question as a weapon in the face of the second dialogist in order to invade his privacy and explore his identity, by tweeting: "..... the* question is: *Are you a Muslim or not?*" The second dialogist gives the first what he wanted, by replying: "*I am a Muslim, praise be to Allah.*" And here after the second dialogist snatched what he wanted from the first dialogist, he used that as a weapon and directed it against the first dialogist, by asking him another question, taking him outside the Muslim community: "*Ok, you say that you are a Muslim. But why do you **disbelieve** in the Holy Quran?*"



Fig. 8

Linguistic violence is not only in the words that call for a shift to physical violence, but in building cognitive perceptions of groups or individuals when it is established for them within their mother tongue that they are outside the framework of the peaceful human community. Hence the dangers of linguistic violence that justifies the isolation of some individuals or groups within barriers that are denying them the right to a safe life, or that makes it easy for others to attack or kill them.

What about other people who are unable to participate in a dialogue and are content with silence or remain silent? They do not express their reaction. They suppress feelings of anger or desire to harm. Silent people influenced by the language are perhaps more lethal than those who spoke the “language of violence”; Because there are instigators of violence by the language and there are actual perpetrators, and violence by reproducing historical texts is the most dangerous type of violence. The soft method may be the most successful way to practice symbolic violence, in cases where the prevailing balance of power does not allow recourse to open violence (Bourdieu, 1994).

B. Violence towards Oneself

It was expected at the beginning of writing this research that the language of violence against the other is dominant in the dialogue between people, but when observing the expressions of violence in the Arabic language, I found that the violence directed by a person towards himself is more than the expressions of violence with which he/she faces his/her opponents!. This is often in the context of a joke to express regret for an action.

A human uses language to inflict violence or harm on the other, and on the other hand he/she uses language to resolve conflict and address problems between him/her and the other. In language violence originates, and in language violence dies. However, it is strange for a person to practice violence towards himself/herself with words, he/she may insult or curse himself/herself, or make the words of the language knives with which to stab his/her body or distort his/her soul; One of the tweeters says: “*I am inhabited by a soul that I no longer control, driving me strongly towards a doom that my mind has distinguished well. This spirit no longer cares about my body or even my mind, which has long held it. It flees from me and only comes back loaded with fire that ignited my heart until I became a block of fire.*” See the tweet in (Fig. 9). We note in the previous tweet that language is a source of pain, although not directly, but through the violence that language literally inflicts on the writer’s body and mind. It is violence from the self towards the self, which he/she inflicts on himself/herself with the weapon of language. He/she charges the words with feelings of anger and hatred and draws from them imaginary characters who drag him/her towards a doom and with the language, ignites fires that burn him/her and turn his/her heart into a mass of flames.

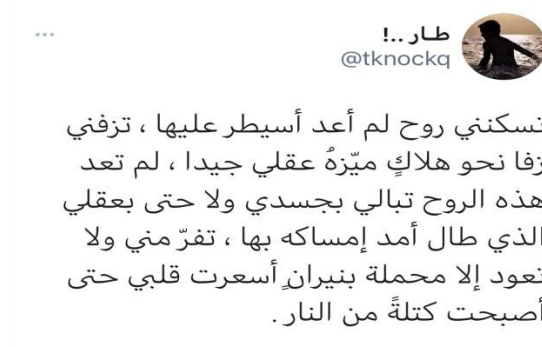


Fig. 9

Often a person practices violence towards oneself after a person does something that he/she thinks is wrong, as if he/she is punishing himself/herself with language to relieve himself/herself of guilt. For example, a female-tweeter says in this respect *"I wish Allah had cut my tongue before I promised her to go out with her tomorrow,"* and another says *"I feel like I would stab my heart."* See the two tweets in (Fig. 10). In the two previous models of tweets, we saw how a person directs towards oneself the most extreme types of physical violence (cutting the tongue) and (stabbing the heart).



(Fig. 10)

A person may pray against himself with death and destruction, for example, a tweeter says, *"May Allah takes me,"* and here we note that the execution of the act of violence declared by the speaker against oneself is executed by Allah's command. Or a person declares his/her desire to punish oneself with flogging, as one of the tweeters in this respect says, *"I would like to flog myself, I feel that I deserve to be flogged for my stupidity, my Lord, I wanted to flog me for a long time. I am conquering myself,"* It is noted here that the act of violence (flogging) is performed by a person against oneself and is repeated three times. Another tweeter in a tweet asks Allah to break his hand! He said *"Why do Twitter messages not be deleted or disappear? May Allah make my hands break."* See the two tweets in (Fig. 11).



(Fig. 11)

Here we ask: Does a person really mean to harm oneself? or that he/she only expresses his/her feelings of guilt and punishes himself/herself by using the language, but he/she does not really mean that this violence be carried out against him/her outside of language. Studies on the phenomenon of self-injury (more commonly known as self-harm) conducted in 2008 in England provides us with the answer to that question: the rate of individuals who self-harm 33% and 32% of them had intentionally cut or burned themselves.

So the violence that appears in language/speech may be an actual reflection of an inner desire to self-harm. Psychological studies have dealt with this phenomenon seriously to investigate its causes and manifestations. What increases its danger is the ease and speed of its spread over the Internet, by means of words and sometimes pictures. Facebook and Instagram have pledged to delete any pictures that show scenes of self-harm. Will we witness a ban on any language expression that calls for violence towards oneself as well?

Language alone does not have the power to prevent violence. But the spoken word bears the seed from which physical aggression sprouts. Because the seed of physical violence is first planted in the land of language. Violence diseases can only be treated with the drug of peaceful language, agreement and convention to replace the violence of words with the expressions of kindness. It should be noted that studying this subject made me, on the one hand, aware of the danger of violence that the inner language exerts on the soul, or, in a more precise expression, the seriousness of the violent words that we direct towards ourselves, and on the other hand, aware of the extent of the great psychological harm that some groups of society are constantly exposed to; Because of the violent language they see every day on the rapid growth social networks.

As long as we can control reality in part by language, through enacting legislation, laws, and regulations, and as long as we can by using language accomplish the peaceful actions that dominate the violence they contains, so Why don't we describe the dialogue as a duet dance, for example? or describe love as a state of peace and tranquility, and words become tools of strengthen construction, not incisive weapons and shovels of destruction. Can we change the language so to change the culture, or does the change must begin with culture and end with the language? The symbolic power of language may be able to form a new view of the world, or transform the worldview, but it will not be effective unless the linguistic community recognizes its legitimacy. What gives words their power is the belief in their legitimacy, and the authority of those who speak them and produce new words, or reproduce old words in new contexts.

VII. CONCLUSION

The roots of violence in the Arabic language lie in the grammatical and literary heritage, and the danger of violence in the heritage lies in its sanctification without considerations of the context in which violence appeared and in its reproduction in a modern context as a weapon with which to confront opponents. The violent metaphors that appear in the Arabic language are a direct reflection of the system of cultural perceptions in Arab mindset. The cognitive dimensions of linguistic violence can be generally classified into the following three dimensions:

- 1- Language is a material entity made up of weapons (the words).

- 2- Language is a field of conflict, violence and self-defense, and a place where a person punishes himself to relieve his feelings of guilt.
- 3- The cognitive content of the language is an army that uses its tools to besiege opponents.

Recommendations

At the end of this research, we recommend proposals for future studies aimed to address the seed of violence in language before it grows and bears its toxic fruit on the ground, by criminalizing linguistic violence of all kinds, the most dangerous of which is implicit violence that uses language in constructing mental images that terrify and frighten people; and aimed to replace violent words with peaceful ones. On the other hand, changing by creating nice metaphors to describe words, love, dialogue or argument contributes to treating the phenomenon of violence within language, and thus builds a nice perception about language and what happens within language or things which language describes.

The suggested studies include:

- 1- The impact of linguistic violence on adolescents who use social networks.
- 2- Cognitive dimensions of linguistic kindness in text messages.
- 3- Linguistic violence in education community.

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Racial Discrimination Experienced by Black People as Reflected in Langston Hughes's Poems

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Abstract—This study aims to describe the racial discrimination from white people against black people that was formerly a slave by analyzing Langston Hughes' poems; *I, Too*, *To the Black Beloved*, *The White Ones*, and *My Beloved*. Presentation of racial discrimination can be seen from the act of prejudice, insulting, words used, and the act of suppression to the black people. These poems represent the poet's feeling of social phenomena that happened. The data were analyzed utilizing the new historicism theory, enriched by historical text, socio-cultural, and political information during slavery. This study is a qualitative descriptive method using the new historicism approach to explain the racial discrimination experienced in Langston Hughes' poems. The result showed that Langston Hughes reflects the phenomena of racial discrimination through his poems, such as slave, victim, nigger, torture, darker brother, and not beautiful in his poems. Langston Hughes in his poetry concludes that black discrimination is treated badly; they eat in the kitchen, they are not beautiful, children's happiness is tarnished, and racial discrimination is inhumane.

Index Terms—racial discrimination, black people, new historicism

I. INTRODUCTION

Literature is easily known as a work that displays expression and motion as the result of human creativity in the form of art that produces high aesthetic values. The example of motion is the author's imagination that turns his thoughts and ideas into a literary work. Literature is a simple way where people can experience the world around them through imagination (Jones, 1968). It can be inferred that literature means that people talk about a work that is related to feelings, imagination, experience, and thought by authors. Similarly, in general, literature may be understood as a written piece of art produced by a certain author (Arafah & Kaharuddin, 2019). Besides that, literary works are also the personal opinion of an author about something which is then passed through a work that also reflects the author (Hasanah, Arafah, & Abbas, 2021).

Therefore, literature is one of the phenomena that describe the reality of human life. The existence of literature is viewed as a culturally valued text reflecting human life (Sunardi, Arafah, & Salija, 2018). Literary work is a form of reflection of human life, but it does not mean that literary works reveal whether facts or truths. Literature is also called the mirror or reflection of society (Marliana, Arafah & Abbas, 2018). It cannot be denied that what is written in literary works is a reflection of real-life which can be identified by describing some of the evidence shown in the literary works produced (Arafah, Abbas, & Hikmah, 2021). It means that human life is described through a literary work in a form of fiction that is sometimes the same as the reality of human life. Everything that is presented and summarized in literary works is always related to the phenomena of human life, both personal and collective phenomena. Simply that literature indeed reflects society, both for its good values and its ills. Correctively, the function of literature reflects the ills of society to make people aware of their mistakes and correct them (Duhan, 2015). Many things can be used as lessons in human survival. One of them is a literary work because it has many benefits to the reader's life since the literary works are generally reflections of life at one period (Arafah, Abbas, & Hikmah, 2021).

In addition, literature is not only a work that comes from thoughts, experiences, and phenomena that describe human life but also function as communication. The ability of an author to produce a literary work can be seen from the language used and how the author conveys his literary works. Sell (2002) also states that literature is useful for exploring several different cultures. Therefore, there are two perspectives in literary works, namely an eye to the content and form of literary work (the "pure" side), and its social function potential, especially in language education (the "applied" side). These perspectives are brought together with the theory of literature as a form of communication. Interestingly, literature is known as a written work, but in this case, literature is a written work produced by the author aesthetically for communication (Arafah et al, 2021). The development of technology has changed the way people think

and communicate. Therefore the language used by an author means to explore the meaning that contributes to a better understanding as a means of communication (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019).

Literature that has a relation with communication makes people change the way of thinking, acting, and attitude in everyday life. Therefore, literature as a medium of communication can be a means of introducing culture, social life, and the reality of human life. The progress of literature is growing by following the technological advances. More specifically, the era of information technology has made the way of thinking people of the world (Arafah & Hasyim, 2019). Through social media, people can easily and quickly access, receive and broadcast information, even comment on the truth or just give an opinion about something (Arafah, Hasyim, & Kapoyos, 2021). Social media is a part of today's technological developments, making it easier for humans to access anything. Humans can enjoy literary works through social media, not only through books, television, or live streaming. Social media becomes a part of the development of technology that has given broader opportunities for many people to take a part in a wide range of social interactions without being limited by space and time (Hasjim, Arafah, Kaharuddin, Verlin, & Genisha, 2020). Specifically, the internet media content becomes more frequently visited because technology changes the human perspective to make life easier to find information, both in work, education, or just enjoying literary work (Arafah, B & Muhammad, H, 2020). It is also one of the supports or branding of a literary work through technology so that more and more people can enjoy literature easily. Branding is needed by-products, works, and destinations so that it has an identity, personality, and image. When literary works can be enjoyed easily and with the use of beautiful language, it becomes an identity for literature (Hasyim, Arafah, & Kuswarini, 2020).

It is commonly known that there are some genres in literary works, such as prose, play, and poetry. All these works are mostly the result of the imagination, feeling, expression, and thought by the authors. Poetry is any kind of verbal or written language that is structured rhythmically and meant to tell a story or express any kind of emotion, idea, or state of being. Poetry is useful in achieving this artistic expression in several ways (Ollila & Jantas, 2006). In addition, the languages and words that are used in poetry are often modified to make them sound beautiful (Arafah, 2018). But apart from using beautiful language in poetry, some authors also use other ways of writing in poetry. The authors follow the linguistic and grammatical rules to make the poem sound better when it is read (Hasanah, Arafah, & Abbas, 2021). As a result, readers or people who read a literary work, especially poetry, with high motivation will also lead to achieving more information about it (Arafah et.al, 2020).

Poetry is generally judged to be slightly different from other literary works because its language usage is different from the language of other literary works. It is because an author does not only express the contents of his imagination and thoughts but also pays attention to the language used. Poetry is a kind of literary works with slight words but dense of meaning as seen in the structure of poetry in utilizing very limited words, arrays, and stanzas (Arafah, B. & Kaharuddin 2019). Furthermore, the use of language in poetry can be done with a well-organized and detailed discourse analysis that can be useful for students in understanding the number of words by the community (Ahmad, Arafah, & Kaharuddin, 2021). In the density and limitations of words used in poetry, it contains a very broad meaning. The density of meaning lies in the poetry meaning convention that uses two dimensions of meaning at once, namely meaning dimensions of denotation and connotation (Takwa, Arafah, B., Syam, J., Kaharuddin, & Kadaruddin, 2021). This makes the readers need more understanding to know the content and meaning of the poem. Sometimes most of the poetry uses figurative language, which is not easy for the reader to understand the poem just by reading it once. The language used in poetry can be understood easily by using and understanding as much vocabulary as possible. In addition, understanding and knowing several vocabularies can make it easier for someone to understand ideas, messages, etc. (Kadaruddin., Arafah, B., Kaharuddin., Ahmad, D., & Iska, 2020).

Through literary work, the author tries to describe human life. Various types of life such as economic, religious, political, and even social life are described in literary works by the author. Literary works can be seen as the social products that are equivalent to cultural, political, and social studies issues (Irmawati, Arafah, & Abbas 2020).

This writing only focuses its discussion on poetry. It is the same with other literary works from the thoughts and imagination of an author, the poet in writing his poems, is much influenced by the circumstances around him, including religious, cultural, or social aspects. The situation that happened around an author affects the way an author uses words because a literary work will only be meaningful and informative if it is observed in its context, such as by studying the cultural discourse (Arafah, Thayyib, Kaharuddin, & Sahib, 2020). It is in line that poetry is the life of literary works and through literature, the vast territory in between as vast as human life itself, where they interact and influence each other, is the nerve of human existence (Tymieniecka, 2000).

There are lots of things that can be talked about in poetry, such as; economic, religious, political, scientific, and social life issues. One of these social issues has been occurred for a long time and still happening today. What makes this research is different from the others is that the writer chooses the work of Langston Hughes as the object because the author is Afro-American, which means that he indirectly also experiences social discrimination as a black person. In line with Dougless (1845), the author of the literary work is ready to saw wood, shovel coal, carry wood, sweep the chimney, or roll oil casks, all he did for nearly three years in New Bedford. Discrimination that happened to black people did not only happen in men, but women also experienced such things. It did not only happen in the ancient era, but even in the modern era, women also feel discriminated against. It has been rooted in ancient times. It was because of

some discrimination issues that are existed within the society. The drops were rooted in some social changes, such as women who slowly start to gain popularity and get enlightened (Suleman, Arafah, Abbas, & Delukman, 2021).

The poetry in Langston Hughes' book entitled *The Collected* of African American descent, which means that he as a writer in this literary work has experienced direct discrimination by white people. There was no work too hard – none too dirty. There are many works of poetry written by Langston Hughes which indirectly tell the life of African Americans who live as black people and experienced acts of discrimination throughout history. Some of his poetry shows many acts of discrimination felt by black people, both socially, culturally, and educationally. One of the triggers for these acts of discrimination is due to the difference in skin and hair color between black people as a minority with the white people. Black Americans have been defined as racially different by white groups for several centuries. Through the poetry of Langston Hughes as a literary work, it provides a description of the life experienced by black people for many years as a minority. Langston Hughes, as the author of the work, stimulates readers to come in and experience their lives indirectly. He as 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, & Nur, 2020). In addition, literary works as a social product have many benefits in life; everyone must learn from anything and anyone including animals because whatever happens in the universe is a teacher (Irmawati & Arafah, 2020).

Langston Hughes's poems, which are literary works that tell the life of black people who experience discrimination, are the form and result of the author's thoughts, imagination, and experiences. The social phenomena that exist in Langston Hughes's poetry have a historical and social background. This is in line with Wellek and Warren (1956) ideas that literature is a social product that reflects the phenomena of social behavior in society, using language as its medium to express the author's thoughts. Therefore, the creation of a literary work through a historical process is appropriate for its time.

The writers of this article believe that Langston Hughes's works are the selection of the right research object to be used to analyze racial discrimination by white people against black people of African-American descent making real-life in describing the sense of discrimination against black people. Langston Hughes who is a part of Afro-Americans makes a thick work with history. Research on racial discrimination by viewing, reading, and analyzing the history is still limited, therefore this is one of the significant reasons for the writers to describe and analyze it with a more detailed explanation.

II. LITERATURE BACKGROUND

Talking about a literary work, it cannot be separated from history. Literary and historical works are both sourced from past events or experiences so that literature and history place themselves as works that record events. Then it becomes a document or record about a person, building, event, or anything related to the past. Kuntowijoyo (1987) explained literary work in imaginary language to the aim of understanding historical events according to the level of the author's ability. Literary works can be a means for the author to convey thoughts, feelings, and responses about a historical event. Like historical works, literary works can recreate an event according to the knowledge and imagination of the author.

New historicism is a perspective that develops in history. As in terms of a perspective, new historicism is an alternative approach used in understanding and writing history. Simply the New Historicism can be understood how the study of the past is based on the placement of historical documents and non-histories (literary works). In this regard, Tyson's (2006, p.291-292) explained that *New Historicism* is the literary text and the historical situation from which it emerged are equally important because text (the literary work) and context (the historical conditions that produced it) are mutually constitutive, they create each other. More explanation from Greenblatt in Felluga (2015, p.197), Greenblatt provides a similar list of "practices" that characterize new Historicist investigation: (1) one should begin with specific details, anecdotes, and examples in order to avoid a totalizing version of history; (2) one should proceed from such details to illustrate how they are tied up with larger contradictory forces in a given time period, no matter how apparently innocuous the detail may seem at first; (3) one should remain self-conscious about one's methodologies, thus resisting "a historicism based upon faith in the transparency of signs and interpretative procedures," (4) one should be suspicious of liberatory narratives: everything is, on some level, caught up in the circulations of power in a given time period; and (5) all cultural products, whether they are high art, political documents, personal letters, or trash, are a part of larger discursive structures and, so, can offer clues to the ideological contradictions of a given time period.

Black people in America experienced problems and difficulties in carrying out their lives. They not only felt in work or social condition, but they experienced various forms of racism, both in the form of prejudice, discrimination, and segregation. This is also in line with Oliver (2003, p.3) that many African Americans, particularly males, have been stereotyped as dumb, violent, dangerous criminals. This expression proves that the racism committed by white people to the black people is not only socially and work, not only violence and cruelty in physical form but also mentally. Discrimination cannot be changed or eliminated, it still exists in America and is still being felt in the 1930s. Mehrotra and Wagner (2009, p.6) stated racial discrimination in terms of physical characteristics like skin color, facial features, hair type that are common to an inbred, geographically isolated population. The history of racial discrimination in the United States has recorded various racial issues.

Langston Hughes is an Afro-American writer who tells a lot about the discrimination that black people experience. However, he did not only describe the suffering felt by black people, but also told the black people's pride and struggles. According to Rampersad and Roessel (1995, p.3), Langston Hughes is one of the more controversial names in the history of American poetry. To many readers of African descent, he is poet laureate, author of poems well in an Afro-American culture that exudes Hughes's affection for black Americans across all divisions of region, class, and gender. He created his works by reflecting reality and real human personality. The personality of the white people who discriminate against black people by looking at their different physical appearances brings about various readers' feelings. In addition, people indeed believe that human behaviors and personality are still attributed to inner motives, intentions, aims, and plans (Purwaningsih, Arafah, & Abbas, 2020).

There is a lot of black discrimination committed by white people, both in discrimination of skin, employment, and education. In this case, the author reveals racial discrimination by white people to black people by applying a new historicism approach to seek more information about the history and racial discrimination that occurs in black people.

III. METHODOLOGY

The technique of data analysis that is used in this study is descriptive qualitative. The writer discusses the act of discrimination based on the text in the selected poems of Langston Hughes. Specifically, a descriptive qualitative was used to analyze the primary and secondary data. The primary data are the selected poems of Langston Hughes, while the secondary data are those gathered from another source as the supporting data related to the object discussed (Purwaningsih, Arafah, & Abbas, 2019). All the collected data are then further analyzed by employing the New Historicism theory to discuss the discriminatory practices that happened to black people by white people at the time. New Historicism deals principally with the importance of local, political, and social contexts for the understanding of literary texts (Wayne, 1990). The history or events of literary works do not just happen by chance. At least there is something to underline history. This is supported by several aspects such as religion, culture, politics, or ideology.

IV. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

Langston Hughes's poetry presents a social phenomenon or problem that has existed for a long time, namely, discrimination. Discrimination against black African Americans makes them a minority group. This is not only due to physical differences between blacks and whites, but the implementation and practices in education, social, and economic also makes black people discriminated against. The discrimination isolates them in the process of getting a decent life as human beings. This discriminatory act has become a bitter and traumatic history for black people. In this case, the author found several things related to acts of discrimination committed by white people against black people.

Datum 1:

I am the darker brother

They send me to eat in the kitchen

When company comes

(Hughes in Rampersad and Roessel (1995, p.46, Stanza 2, Line 1-3)

As conveyed in his other poems about black people, in the poem entitled "I, Too" Langston Hughes describes racial discrimination and Afro-American minorities. racial discrimination and injustice experienced by black people represented through Hughes' characters in obtaining the same civil rights as can be obtained by white people majority. The words "*I am the darker brother*" as an acknowledgment of the identity that African Americans have black skin. "*Darker*" in this case refers to the skin color of Afro-Americans who have dark skin tones, so are called black people. The word "*brother*" does not mean that one brother is related to one black person, but it does represent all black people. "*They send me to eat in the kitchen*" in the sentence refers to white people. In this case, black people are sent to the kitchen to eat, it does not like eating in a family who eats in the kitchen or sits at the dining table, but they go to the kitchen to eat because between master and slave they never eat together at the dining table, that's why "*they*" in this case black people are told to eat in the kitchen. Because the kitchen was a place to eat for animals and slaves, blacks were of a lower class and so did not deserve to eat at the same table as white people. "*When Company Comes*" in this sentence it becomes clearer that black people are sent to the kitchen to eat because their master had arrived; they were asked to go into the kitchen while the whites are at the dinner table. White people do not want to sit together with black people, especially when their families, friends, or guests arrive. They are afraid that black people will hurt their families because white people think that black people are scary, criminal, and rude.

Datum 2:

Ah,

My black one,

Thou art not beautiful

(Hughes in Rampersad and Roessel (1995, p.58, Stanza 1, Line 1-3)

The next data is, entitled "*To the Black Beloved*" in the first line the author mentions "*Ah, My Black one*" which is an affirmation of the identity of black people who have a dark skin color. "*Thou art not beautiful*" sentence states that they are ugly, which in this case they are black people. Black people will not feel and call themselves ugly if they have

never felt discrimination. Because they have dark black skin, which is identical to darkness, they then are called ugly. This is in contrast to the beauty standards, according to white people, where white people possess white skin, a sharp nose, straight hair, and a tall body. Acts of racial discrimination are committed by white people against black people, because of their physical differences. The white people in certain circumstances do not merely hate black people because of the actions or attitudes of black people who are different, but because their physicality is far from the standard of white people's beauty.

Datum 3:

My black one,
Thou art not good
Yet thou hast

(Hughes in Rampersad and Roessel (1995, p. 58, Stanza 8-10)

This sentence is almost the same as the previous line; this seems to give the impression that black people vilify themselves or their identity; it gives the impression that they think they are different from other humans. However, if we look back on the life history of black people who have been discriminated against by white people, this just likes bringing back the memories of black people who were discriminated against by white people because of their dark skin color, so it looks scary and cruel. Therefore, in this case, black people refer to themselves as people who are not beautiful and cruel.

Datum 4:

Yet why do you torture me,
O, white strong ones,
Why do you torture me?

(Hughes in Rampersad and Roessel (1995, p. 37, Stanza 1, Line 5-7)

Furthermore, the discrimination received by black people is not just the treatment of minorities or the absence of recognition of equality between the two. Black people not only experience discrimination verbally but also through action. Disturbances received by black people are not only through words but also actions. White people are free to do this because they have stronger powers than black people; that's why white people are free to do anything to black people. This is also confirmed by the history that between 1885-1908 in Belgium, there was a labor tax rule of 10 percent, and it also applies to slaves of the King of Belgium where there is another tax rule for them. According to Kisangani and Bobb (2010, p.104) a 10-percent labor tax, passed in 1890, became an excuse for demanding large quantities of rubber from African populations. Failure to pay the tax was punished by flogging, execution, and occasionally the destruction of entire villages. This is a witness to the racial discrimination committed by white people against black people which has an impact on physical violence.

Datum 5:

At first, they are nice to him,
But finally, they taunt him
And call him "nigger."

(Hughes in Rampersad and Roessel 1995, p. 36, Stanza 2, Line 5-7)

The poem entitled *Migration* by Langston Hughes shows that the discrimination committed by white people to black people is not only done by adults but also children. The first sentence "*At first they are nice to him*" they in this sentence refer to white children who when they meet black children they are very kind, and even welcome them warmly, and invite them to play. The sentence "*But Finally they taunt him*" told us that the attitude of the white people to the black people was not as beautiful and gentle as the first sentence said. They do finally social discrimination because of differences in skin color, face, and body shape. Last sentence "*And call him Nigger*" the white people call black people Nigger (both adults and children) because of their dark and black faces.

Datum 6:

He is a little dark boy
With round black face
And a white embroidered collar.

(Hughes in Rampersad and Roessel (1995, p. 36, Stanza 4, Line 11-13)

A continuation of the poem is still about discrimination by little white, children because of their different skin color. In the first sentence "*He is a little dark boy*" they still think that they are not the same because they have different skin colors, so that is their reason not to play with a little black. This is also further stressed in the next sentence "*With round black face.*" The last sentence "*And white embroidered collar*" implies that the only thing that looks white from a black man's body is the collar of the school uniform he wears; the rest are black and dark. This showed that the poet came from a place where white people hate them, because of his black skin, and they discriminated against and tortured him and his family.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis that has been described and explained previously, it is certain that the forms of racial discrimination against black people are clearly described in Langston Hughes' poems that are the subject of this study.

The racial discrimination committed by white people that appears in Langston Hughes's poems is related to physical appearance with the assumption that black is not beautiful; stigma black people are inferior, stupid, criminals, cruel, and unequal to white people. It leads to discrimination against black people, who in the injustice, inequality, and arbitrariness carried out by the majority, in this case, are white people. White people treat other people based on their skin, they have racial tendencies towards black people. Therefore, white people still tend to think of black people like their former slaves, white people do not treat black people based on their actions, but by looking at the color of their skin.

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On the Awakening of Female Consciousness in *It Happened One Night*

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Abstract—In the 1930s, the United States was at the beginning of the Great Depression, while at the same time its film industry was booming. The screwball comedy as a new type of film became popular. One of the most representative and successful screwball comedies, *It Happened One Night* by Frank Capra in 1934, which not only won five awards of the Seventh Oscar, but also saved the Columbia Pictures from bankruptcy, can be called a miracle in the history of American film. As a pioneering work of the screwball comedy, the film's theme, narrative and other aspects have exerted profound influences on the subsequent films of this kind. Among the many advantages of this film, it is worth noting that the image of the heroine breaks people's traditional idea about women, which is ahead of its time. Besides, we can see her gradual awakening of female consciousness. Therefore, combining with the social and historical background at that time and the characteristics of the screwball comedy, this paper attempts to reveal the female image of the heroine Ellie and give a general view of the course of her consciousness awakening by analyzing lens language of the film, including shots, lighting and sound, together with the narrative.

Index Terms—screwball comedy, awakening of female consciousness, lens language, *It Happened One Night*

I. INTRODUCTION

The film *It Happened One Night*, first released in 1934, was directed by one of the most famous directors of the United States Frank Capra. And the script of it was adapted by his partner Robert Riskin from the love story *The Midnight Bus* (Li, 2015). The story goes like this: Ellie Andrews, a young and beautiful rich girl who runs away from home in order to get rid of her father's detective, takes a shuttle bus to New York to get married with her lover King Westley. On the bus, she meets Peter Warne, a newly unemployed but optimistic journalist (Wan, 2011). They spend five days and four nights together, and are attracted to each other, then finally fall in love with each other. But due to some misunderstandings, Ellie decides to go back home and marry the person King Westley as planned. Under the help of her father, they clear the misunderstandings up and are reconciled. At the end of the film, Ellie escapes the marriage and lives with Peter (Meng, 2015).

In the current view, the plots seem to be old and out-of date, but it was then very creative and departing from the conventional pattern (Li, 2015), which can be proved by the five awards it won in the Seventh Oscar. It was awarded the winner of the Best Picture Oscar; its director Frank Capra won his first Oscar Best Director Award, making a name for himself (Zhao, 1997); its leading actor Clark Gable won the Oscar Award for Best Actor for his outstanding performance in the film, which catapulted him from a second-tier actor to a Hollywood A-list actor (Li, 2015); the leading actress Claudette Colbert also won the Best Actress by virtue of this film, and this film changed her previous stereotyped role image. What's more, the film won the Best Adapted Screenplay, which was attributed to the cooperation between the director and the screenwriter. Moreover, the perfect cooperation between Frank Capra and Robert Riskin became the first example between director and screenwriter in Hollywood (Jun, 2009). Last but not least, it saved Columbia Pictures from bankruptcy that was caused by the downturn and catapulted it into the top tier of film studios (Wu, 2020).

Many scenes in the film, such as drapes hanging in the middle of the room to separate the hero and the heroin from each other, have had profound influences on the following films (Li, 2015). It was the paradigm for the screwball comedy of the classic Hollywood era (Liu, 2017). The female image of its heroine also challenged the passive, weak and submissive position of women in the traditional love films, showing gradual awakening of female consciousness, which was ahead of its time (Yue, 2020). Therefore, in the following sections, the paper will focus on the female image of the heroine Ellie and the process of her consciousness awakening in the light of the analysis of the film's narrative and lens language, including shots, lighting and sound (Zhang, 2021), combining with the social and historical background at that time with the characteristics of classic Hollywood screwball comedy.

II. THE FEMALE IMAGE OF ELLIE

Screwball comedy, which was born during the Great Depression in the early 1930s, is one of the most important genre films in the classic Hollywood era (Fan, 2012). Screwball is a term originally used by pitchers in baseball who throw a screwball that deviates from the normal curve ball. In the United States, screwball is also used to refer to people who behave strangely or slightly neurotic in real life (Feng, 2010).

The classic narrative model of screwball comedy is a love story of a couple of hero and heroine, usually with vastly different status. One of them belongs to the bourgeoisie who is rich enough to do everything and the other is an ordinary person who has little money. At first these two people meet each other by some incidents followed by some conflicts, and then the conflicts will be resolved. The man and the woman will find that they fall in love with each other; therefore, finally they get together (Zhang, 2017). It's worth noting that in the screwball comedy heroines are usually the ones with the higher status. For example, in *It Happened One Night*, the heroine is a rich girl, in *Roman Holiday* the heroine is a princess (Zhang and Shi, 2018) and the heroine in *Notting Hill* is a superstar (Chen, 2013). This is designed to strengthen the conflict between the hero and the heroine, making the heroine strong enough to confront the hero (Feng, 2010). Therefore, they are usually strong in character (Mei, 1999), which breaks the traditional stereotype of submissive, passive and independent women. This kind of female image is also shown through a large number of dialogues in the film, which is another feature of the screwball comedy. On the one hand, the large number of dialogues comes out to meet the trend of films with sound (Zhou, 1984). The rapid quarrels between the hero and the heroine and the witty sarcasm can satisfy the audience's curiosity about the new technology of sound, making the audience feel interested and shocked; on the other hand, through the dialogues and quarrels between the hero and heroine of different social classes, the audience's dissatisfaction in the reality of the economic crisis is also vented (Feng, 2010).

In the classic Hollywood films, the female images of the screwball comedy are very eye-catching. Their prominent status, strong character and bold behavior do not conform to the traditional value and the female stereotype. This is exactly the case with Ellie's female image in the film. At first, she was born in the bourgeoisie, and her father was wealthy enough to buy a cruise ship, hire many servants and detectives, take a private jet and publish notices on newspapers and radio stations for looking for her. These can all show that she has a good family background and financial condition. Moreover, Ellie did not listen to her father's advice. After being slapped in a quarrel with him, she resolutely jumped into the sea to escape, to find her lover and get married, which can show her strong character. After that, she went to New York alone, on the way she met Peter and lived with him in the same room. After discovering that Peter was a reporter, she made a deal with him to let him help to find her lover, and finally they arrived in New York, but she escaped marriage. All of these reflect her bold behavior, proving that she is not a person of rules and regulations, and she is totally different from the traditional female image. In the process of running away from home and looking for the lover, she meets Peter, gets to know him, hates him and falls in love with him. What we can see is an independent, audacious woman who pursues freedom and love. Also, in this process, her female consciousness is gradually awakening.

III. THE AWAKENING OF THE FEMALE CONSCIOUSNESS OF ELLIE FROM THE LENS LANGUAGE

A. *The Oppression on Ellie*

Although the heroine Ellie in *It Happened One Night* has rich family, strong characters and is bold in deeds, we can still see that she is oppressed under such an affluent environment, and this oppression mainly comes from her father.

The first scene of the film was on a luxury cruise. Ellie's father asks her servant about her hunger strike and blames the servant with "Why don't you jam it down her throat?". After that, with a wipe, the shot shifts us to a medium long shot with a straight-on angle. Here the space has changed to Ellie's room. At this point, her father is trying to persuade Ellie to eat. He tells her, "You know I have my way," which shows that he has always used some means to control her. After Ellie retorts that "Not this time you won't", his speech speed suddenly accelerates, which reflects his oppression in language. And he also indicates that he would never let her be with King Wesley. When he says these words, at the same time, the oppression turns stronger as the camera zooms in to show a middle shot. He is pointing his finger at Ellie while speaking faster to show his opposition. Followed by that is a medium long shot with Ellie walking back and forth in the room, complaining that he has told her what she got to do since she got remember. When Ellie refuses to eat and knocks over all the food, her father finally slaps her face. The shot switches to a medium close-up and quickly cuts between Ellie and her father, showing the subtle expressions on their faces.

In addition, after Ellie jumps into the sea to escape, the father immediately asks servants to write to the detective agency, telling them that his daughter has run away again, and asking them to keep a close eye on all the roads, airports and train stations in Miami. From this, it can be seen that this is not the first time he asks people to do this, showing his strong desire for controlling Ellie.

Furthermore, from Ellie's conversation with Peter, we can get more information about her father's oppression on her. She has never been with a man alone. Whenever and wherever she goes, the nanny, bodyguards, even detectives will follow her, which makes her feel depressed. But she has got used to growing under such an environment. This suggests that she is kind of numb with all these oppressions. The only time when she goes shopping without a bodyguard ends in getting into King Wesley's car to escape capture. And it is in this only time that she considers she finds her true love. In fact, it is her father's control and oppression on her results in her lack of life experience and gullibility, so much so that when she meets a man, she thinks it is true love.

B. *The Female Consciousness Awakening in the Bud*

Although Ellie grows up under the control of her father, and gradually gets used to his all-around control, as a person with independent personality, she goes through a process from instinctively resisting such control of her father at the

beginning, to completely deciding her love and marriage by herself.

As what Ellie tells Peter in the film, she has an instinctive resistance to her father's control at an early time. However, this is just out of instinct and can only be called the female consciousness awakening in the bud. When she makes complaints and tells her escape story to Peter, the shot shifts to focus on Ellie and the table with a medium close-up. We can see clearly her subtle facial expression changes when she is eating breakfast and telling these experiences. It can be seen that she tells the story as a joke to others, and that her brief relief is something great to her. It is during this escape that she thinks she meets her true lover King Wesley, and then she decides to run away to meet him. This actually is consistent with what her father says—she runs away just to disobey her father, not really for the pursuit of love and freedom.

Back to the medium close-up shot in which Ellie is arguing with her father, we can see that not only her father, but also she herself is accelerating the speech speed and raising the voice. Our attention is attracted to their quick conversation and their facial expressions. Obviously, Ellie is impatient, uses “definitely”, “legally” and “actually” to tell her father that she and Wesley are married, and rolls her eyes when she informs these to her father. It seems like Ellie has her own idea, but from her father's response, this is just the way she is showing her disagreement with him. Ellie's facial expression when talking with her father, walking around the room impatiently, smoking, as well as the volume, speed and wording, indicate that her quarrel with her father and the escape this time are just out of instinct to get rid of her father's control. To a certain extent, this proves the germination of her awakening of female consciousness.

C. Further Awakening of Female Consciousness

During the five days together, she gradually gets fond of Peter. With his help all the way, finally they're only three hours away from New York, but Ellie insists on a night's rest. The camera cuts to the room, where Ellie is sitting on her bed getting dressed while she faces a “wall”, which is a drape used to separate them. At this present, the main light comes from the bedside lamp on her right, reflecting her upper body and the “wall”. Behind the wall, there is the shadow of Peter who is standing and changing clothes. When she asks Peter when they can see each other again, her speech speed slows down and her voice is weakened. With the dim light in this tiny room, there is sharp contrast of their poses, one standing and one sitting, one strong and one weak, clearly showing Ellie's reluctance to separate and hesitation. She does not fully realize that she has fallen in love with Peter, but the subsequent dialogue makes her more aware of her feelings for Peter. The camera then tracks in from the whole room to Ellie's side again, with a medium long shot, to the front left of Ellie. The Hollywood classic three-point lighting is used. The main light comes from the right side of the camera, showing Ellie's left body. We can clearly see the expression on her face when she speaks; the filling light comes from the right side of Ellie and is used to show the right side of her body and the background behind it; the backlight comes from the back of Ellie's body and is used to show the bed and the curtains behind it. After listening to Peter's plan, she walks to the other side of the wall from her side and the shot is shifted to a medium close-up shot. In the screen, there are only Ellie and a small part of the upper part of the “wall”. The light turns to soft light (Xie, 2017) and we can see that Ellie's eyes are full of tears. With the effect of soft light, she looks delicate and pathetic.

The next second the camera tracks her back to Peter's bed, and she leans over his bed and tells him that she hopes to join him in his plan. In fact, it is a hint or even an expression of her feelings for Peter. In this medium close-up shot, she changes her usual patronizing attitude, falls on the side of the bed, and looks up at Peter. This shows that love changes her from the strong side to the relatively weak side in this relationship, although we can only see her back, but from the dialogue and Peter's facial expressions, we know that he is surprised that Ellie should love him. During their conversation, the camera tracks in from the medium long shot to the medium close-up shot. We can clearly see the confusion on Peter's face. When Peter tells her to go back to her bed, Ellie even speaks in a supplicatory tone that she loves him and can't live without him. What's more, she even wants to run away with Peter instead of going to New York. It can be seen from this that Ellie thinks she has found her true love again. Her female consciousness is further awakening, but at this time, she still chooses to elope. She gives up her former lover easily just because she gets along with Peter for five days. In fact, it seems that she is still trying to escape from her previous life, instead of being truly independent, having her own ideas, and pursuing freedom and love. This can be seen from the later episodes.

After Peter goes at midnight to look for money and petrol, Ellie is driven out of the hotel and thinks that Peter has abandoned her. At this time, she is dismayed and calls her father to take her home and marry King Wesley. Here we can see her love to Peter is so fragile that she doesn't need to confirm what really happens before going back home. Although her father tries to persuade her to cancel the wedding after knowing her story with Peter, she decides to give up for the reason that it will get all the people in trouble and make people laugh at their wedding cancellation. This on the one hand shows that she is mature, on the other hand indicates that her female consciousness is still not fully awakened. Because she abandons herself when thinking that Peter doesn't love her and gives up the so-called restraint and oppression of resistance.

D. Full Awakening of Female Consciousness

Their misunderstandings are finally resolved by Ellie's father. At the last moment of the wedding, when Ellie's father walks to the priest arm in arm with her, he encourages her to escape the marriage and find Peter if she wants to. The atmosphere is nervous when they say the vows, but Ellie still doesn't say “I will” and runs away from the wedding. The camera pans as Ellie runs from the wedding to the road and the car. There the long shot shows the whole chaotic scene,

the guests, reporters and servants all run after her, without more details of their faces. This scene shows that Ellie's female consciousness is completely awakened, and she decides to pursue her love and live the life she wants to at the risk of being blamed and ridiculed by the public and media reporters.

IV. CONCLUSION

Throughout the film, we can see the classic screwball comedy female image of Ellie. She is strong in character, she is not timid at all when talking with hero, and her behaviors are bold. We can also see in behind her image, that her female consciousness is gradually awakening. At the beginning, she escapes just by instinct against his father's control to pursue the so-called love. Gradually, she falls in love with Peter and is brave enough to show her love and weakness to him, even though she used to be so proud. But for pursuing love and controlling her life, she can do all including escaping marriage. These experiences not only make her mature and independent, but also awaken her female consciousness. This process of gradual awakening of female consciousness can still impact on the contemporary women, who should try to control their own life and pursue their love.

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A Model of Task-Based Blended Learning for the EFL Writing Classroom

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Abstract—Online learning is being implemented due to the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic. This is based on the reduction of cases and casualties to the danger and severity of the disease. Though several compliments were encountered in the implementation of this educational process, English instructors at secondary and tertiary levels continue to protest the change. To respond to this dilemma, the development of blended learning (a combination of online and offline learning) emerged. Therefore, this study was intended to develop task-based blended learning for English correspondence education and to identify and explain the learning aspects in the model development. Approximately 120 students from four classes of semester 6 were selected and divided into two groups (experiment and control groups) since a research and development model was used for analysis (Dick & Carey, 1990). The draft model was further validated and piloted for several meetings. The results show effective learning materials containing five sections, namely (1) activity lead, (2) mind mapping, (3) refocusing, (4) writing, and (5) reinforcement. The materials were designed through the provision of tasks in every section, therefore integrating the students' use of four language skills. In addition, these materials were designed according to lesson plan, learning syntax, and assessment tools.

Index Terms—task based, blended learning, EFL, writing classroom, English for business correspondence

I. INTRODUCTION

Technology is presently being used to support English language learning worldwide due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the education sector. Besides the introduction of this concept, technology implementation is intended to produce a more suitable method for learners. It is also empowered to ensure effective, efficient, and meaningful learning processes. Another aim of this technological concept is to provide assistance to every English teacher or lecturer, scholar, and expert. The most popular method for assisting language learning is information and communication technology. Additionally, several applications have been developed to facilitate language learning with model choices. This indicates that each application has specific features for the needs and fashion of learners.

The frequent and massive implementation of online learning has presently led to a new era in the education sector, with several institutions deciding to use a digital or blended model to support academic needs. Moreover, blended learning (online and offline learning) is presently popular among lecturers because the educational process promotes the easy use of several applications for distance and direct classes. Besides the specific percentage between distance and direct learning, lecturers still create time to meet their students to solve problems, directly convey materials, and advise

students on projects and other works. For the learners, this learning model provides opportunities to interact with lecturers, which is very important for most students. In addition, teachers are enthusiastic in undertaking the learning model.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, all learning activities were conducted through an online model because all institutions globally switched to the total use of digital learning to avoid dangerous social interaction. Although the implementation of this model was difficult due to the emergence of several weaknesses, it was still advised to be conducted. This led to encounters with many educational obstacles such as inadequate materials, unavailable internet connections, knowledge restrictions on applications, learners' undisciplined attitudes, time limitations to access several sites, and a lack of direct social interaction.

However, blended learning has been redesigned to meet the needs of English learning, especially for international business correspondence in the Administration Department of Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia. This is based on responding to the learners' needs and considering the problems, hindrances, and obstacles encountered during previous online and traditional learning. The redesigned learning model fundamentally uses task-based language teaching (TBLT) combined with blended techniques to support pedagogical activities. In addition, TBLT was selected due to being effectively implemented in several pedagogical interventions within Politeknik Negeri Bali, such as in Tourism and Administration Department classes (Somawati, 2017; Somawati, 2018; Sitawati, 2019). These successes enhanced the utilization of TBLT to redesign writing subject through the blended learning model.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Some Critiques of Task-based Language Teaching*

Despite having received negative feedback, TBLT is an approach that has also received positive reviews depending on its implementation purposes. Based on learning forms or English language grammar, this approach was instructionally rejected by Japanese students due to obtaining good test results (Sato, 2009). Since the aims of this technique were students comprehending and producing sentences as well as using patterns and other grammar items, traditional models were found effective, including the grammar translation method; presentation, practice, production (PPP); and test, teach, test. This is in line with Bruton (2002), Sheen (1994), and Swain (2005), who claim that TBLT was very doubtful for the performance of Japanese learners for several reasons: (1) TBLT did not meet the Japanese students' needs due to their disinterest in communication skills, (2) TBLT is not in line with the pattern of Japanese learning, (3) TBLT decreased learners' motivation to succeed on tests, (4) TBLT is opposed to Confucian culture based on the belief that lecturers often had greater authority than students, (5) TBLT does not include a learning model focusing on forms or grammar, (6) TBLT breaks the principles of form-focused instruction, and (7) TBLT is assumed to cause language fossilization rather than acquisition among learners (Sheen, 1994; Hu, 2005; Swain, 2005; Burrows, 2008; Sato, 2009).

Widdowson (2003) has observed the weakness of TBLT based on its negligence regarding semantic meaning. This indicates that TBLT is indistinguishable from traditional learning activities. Furthermore, Sheehouse (1999) asserts that TBLT merely proposes introductory tasks using impoverished language samples, leading to minimal improvement and acquisition, as well as pidginized linguistics. Additionally, it provides unpredictable language goals and outlaws grammar aspects in its syllabus (Swan, 2005) because grammar is not a salient aspect. Meanwhile, several experts disagree about and advocate for the reliability of TBLT. This approach was observed to be a failure in defending its purposive goal of facilitating learners' maximum language acquisition.

B. *Benefits of Task-based Language Teaching*

Based on the success of TBLT, a supportive belief was determined through the investigation of several studies, such as those by Ellis (2003), Skehan (1998), and Willis (2009). These researchers claim that the PPP approach failed to improve learners' communicative competence. Conversely, they indicate that TBLT suits the second language acquisition process due to having several strong points. Therefore, the benefits of this model include (1) reliability on communicative language teaching; (2) implementation failure reaction of PPP and test, teach, test; (3) treatment of the target language as a communication medium rather than a learning object; and (4) involvement of students in the utilization of language with meaningful presentations and practices. This is unlike PPP, which required students to learn forms. Moreover, Samuda and Bygate (2008), Mackey (1991), Little and Fieldson (2009), and Takimoto (2009) have also observed the effectiveness of TBLT. Samuda and Bygate (2008) stated that the task was an activity holistically involving learners achieving a nonlinguistic goal. This was due to providing learners with language utilization activities. Samuda and Bygate also advocated that TBLT was effective for several reasons: (1) provision of realistic language to learners, (2) an alternative approach to the problem encountered by Japanese learners, (3) provisions of input and real output, (4) the utilization of an input-based task helped in improving communicative competence, (5) provision of meaningful language use to learners, and (6) situation and condition adaptability (Mackey, 1991; Little & Fieldson, 2009; Takimoto, 2009; Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

Other studies also strengthened the effectiveness of TBLT in terms of integrativeness, indicating focus approach and grammar construction (Seyyedi & Ismail, 2012; Rahimpour, 2008; Schmidt, 1990; Prabhu, 1987). The model was further found effective based on being integrated in a meaningful communication activity, indicating the aims of solving

problems, completing projects, and making decisions (Seyyedi & Ismail, 2012). For optimal performances, TBLT should be supported with an analytic syllabus about learners' ability to complete tasks in the target language culture (Rahimpour, 2008). Rahimpour (2008) claimed that apart from knowing the form or the language learners should also be aware of and competent at the culture under which the language exists. This situation will certainly make the learner to be pragmatically competent, that is they are able to use the language appropriately and effectively (Widanta, et al., 2018). In addition, a procedural syllabus on meaning and grammar construction approach should be in line with this model based on the learning process unconscious to the learners (Prahbu, 1987). Schmidt (1990) proposes that TBLT should enable learners to notice the input, such as syntactical, vocabulary, and phonological aspects. This indicates the ease for learners to acquire the language. To realize achievement in the learning process, learners should be grouped according to their abilities for two reasons: (i) to assist accelerated acquisition of more proficient students and (ii) to provide circular support for struggling students. In line with this, success of learners' language acquisition also depends on how inputs were given by teachers. Widanta, et al. (2020) claimed that inputs benefited learners when they were explicit and comprehensible by means of problem clarification, explicit concept building, and learners' awareness building.

C. Task-based Language Teaching and Blended Learning

The development of technology recently created a new atmosphere within the world of ESL or ELF because teachers were found to have switched to online and/or blended learning due to certain effectiveness. Online learning involves technology and is often known as e-learning (Ginaya, 2021). Ghazizadeh and Fatemipour (2017) state that blended learning was effective for Iranian students in terms of improving reading skills. This was because the model triggered students to extensively read through application texts. As young learners, they were enthusiastic, motivated, and confident to study reading exercises using gadgets. Furthermore, Adas and Bakir (2013) used blended learning to improve Palestinian learners' writing competence. This study investigated and eventually showed that the model was effective in specifically improving learners' writing skills and other supporting competences, including grammar, spelling, punctuation, and paragraph coherence. The results indicate that blended learning was able to channel learners' competences towards the achievement of good writing goals. In addition, the model assisted in speaking and listening classes as well as all language skills utilizing computer applications, blogs, and Facebook. Besides this success, several unclaimed studies indicated the challenges of blended learning. Therefore, the learners' perception of the implementation of the model demonstrated general agreements and satisfaction. This is likely to be the reason students are very confident and motivated towards the utilization of blended learning. However, the model was found to fail in the enrichment of vocabularies. Tosun (2015) showed that this model failed to improve learners' vocabulary knowledge. Blended learning also failed to provide a positive effect in the educational sector.

Other studies were also conducted in an attempt to implement only online learning through various aims. Pappas (2018) showed that blended learning provided learners with numerous resources through the availability of internet accessibility. Several scholars discovered the effect of this model on learners' self-motivation and educational activity through the utilization of authentic materials. Akbarov and Aydogan (2018) showed that blended learning motivated EFL learners through professional performances towards the achievement of academic goals. In line with this, Oweis (2018) states that blended learning positively impacted learners' achievement and motivation in understanding English. This indicates that the model affected learning performances and motivated students to authentically practice the language. According to Ju and Mei (2018), blended learning provides life-long knowledge and further encouraged learners to internally and externally practice the English language. It also showed that the model gave students the chance to effectively use their brains with information and communication technology spaces to practice the language more authentically. Zhan and Zhu (2018) and Rahim (2019) also discovered the encouraging effect of blended learning and state that the model substantially assisted learners in flexible, interactive, and highly educational environments. It was also found to be effective in meeting the characters of learners based on the reduction of anxiety levels. Similar to the learning trend of individual and collaborative learning, this model was found to be a possible solution. Moreover, blended learning was able to facilitate student-based education and collaborative tasks and assist teachers in designing a more efficient model. Therefore, technological integration ensured that the teaching-learning model coincided with the new paradigm in education, which caused the restructuring of future educational backgrounds.

Despite TBLT rarely being implemented in blended learning, one of the total related literatures still used it, especially speaking task (Rahim, 2019). Besides direct speaking performances, the study still utilized a video-recorded task, the narration of which was found to be very effective in increasing learners' creative ideas, learning time flexibility, and academic goal endorsement. These results were an inspiration for the execution of the present study, which did not use a video-recording task. The tasks used in this study were inserted or submitted into the Schoology application.

The aforementioned study on the implementation of blended learning for EFL or ESL classes was conducted using a common or conventional model. However, the teaching method used was not clearly mentioned and identified. In addition, several studies on writing only investigated the teaching method for general English skills. Furthermore, TBLT was not completely implemented in these studies because they mostly focused on teaching writing with blended or online learning and not on investigating a specific collaborative model. Therefore, the present study aims to combine blended learning with TBLT. Several questions specifically stated in this study are as follows:

- 1) What is the aim of the designed TBLT-blended learning model?
- 2) What aspects were developed to ensure the functions of the model?
- 3) What challenges and benefits did the students encounter and obtain?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

This study involved four classes of 60 semester Administration Department students who were taught English for international correspondence for one session. These learners were further divided into two groups (i.e., two classes each for group A and B). Furthermore, groups A and B were classified as experiment and control categories, respectively. Due to having similar English competences, the students were grouped and registered as valid research participants. These selection criteria were stated by their English lecturer and further confirmed through the students' daily performances and formative test results.

B. Data, Instrument, and Collection

The data utilized in this study were the results of the TBLT-blended learning model, including the educational materials, teaching-learning syntax, assessment tools, TBLT online method, and students' and instructors' perceptions. The instruments used to collect the data varied and included a checklist, questionnaire, and assessment rubric. The checklist was used to value educational activities since teachers and students were assessed to determine the tendencies, strengths, and weaknesses of the proposed model. The questionnaire was also used to assist the focused group evaluation activities as well as the instructor's in-depth interviews with several participants. In addition, the assessment rubric was used to help validators score the model components.

C. Procedure

The procedure contained three stages, namely the preresearch, research, and postresearch activities. The preresearch stage was the initiation of all the activities, including locus preparation, participants, and coordinating with the instructor as well as the head of the department. The research stage further involved the main activities, such as development, preparation, validation, observation, and implementation. Meanwhile, the postresearch stage involved the completion of the processes through evaluation and tracing. Moreover, the model development was the most important stage in this study based on the integration of related activities. This was accompanied by the validation and implementation of the developed tools. To measure and ensure the effectiveness of the model, the process of evaluation was also necessary based on the users' and stakeholders' perceptions.

D. Data Analysis and Result Presentation

The data in this study were qualitatively analyzed, including model development, TBLT online learning combination, and the perception of the instructor's and students' perception of the proposed method. The results were also formally presented in the form of narration.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Developed Model

The development of the TBLT-blended learning combination was in line with the procedure proposed by Dick and Carey (1990), which basically included three factors: developing learning materials, assessments, and educational syntaxes.

1. Developing Materials

The learning materials were obtained from the former conventional resources adapted and adjusted with TBLT principles. These resources contained 12 units: basic principles, structure, business letter style (letter of enquiry and reply), quotation, placing and handling orders, account statement, requested and delayed payments, memorandum of complaint, international banking, application letter and CV, social business report, and e-mail and memoranda. The materials were abundant because students were obliged to study and finish all units in one semester, which consisted of four months with insufficient learning hours. In addition, some units contained repetition and review of former materials, which was time consuming. Therefore, an effort was made to minimize materials and combine units (similar topics, language functions, and learning target). For example, unit 1 concerning 'basic principles, structure, and style' was executed through the combination of schemes 1, 2, and 3 from the former conventional study. This process was conducted for students to complete the materials based on the consideration of learning hours and TBLT activities.

The learning objectives of each group were initially developed after mapping the module units. These objectives were rooted in the thematic and language goals of each unit. They also contained obtainable achievements for students after the completion of their learning activities. In addition, linguistic goals contained tense, structure or expression, grammar, and other formulas. Furthermore, the task materials of each unit were developed according to the proposed learning outcome, with several variations observed due to different target goals. These task types contained several activities, such as filling in gaps, matching, writing text, listening and noting information, identifying, stating 'yes' or

'no' data, interview and written responses, completing and constructing sentences, comparing, mapping, role-playing, mentioning, and reading and answering. These types were arranged from the simplest to the most complicated.

Unit materials were developed to enhance students' production of writing, although other language skills such as speaking as well as reading and listening were also practiced. This was adequately empowered because students mostly acquired language through speaking or writing. For example, unit 1 contained several items such as nature knowledge and characteristics of business letters, principle explanation and letter organization, structure identification, memoranda placing parts, and formal report writing. Several tasks were also developed for students to comprehend and perform the required unit. Besides written structures, students should also possess the abilities to comprehend, interact with, and produce verbal expressions and perform other meaningful and realistic activities (Long, 1985; Breen, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1989; Ellis, 2003). To realize the target of the unit, these activities were operationally designed in some tasks, such as 'matching terms with meaning', 'asking more extended information using 5Wh and 1H-questions', 'mapping ideas', 'interview through clues', and 'filling in forms'. These activities ensured that tasks should utilize natural language, promote verbal language use (Swan, 2005), provide natural learning pattern opportunities, focus on meaning, produce fertile inputs, prioritize fluency before accuracy (Ellis, 2009), engage learners in high-creativity activities, and use resources beyond the conventional standard (Hatip, 2005).

The materials used to support English business correspondence learning were deemed appropriate through two processes, namely validation by expert judges and instructor-learners' input. The validation by expert judges was conducted based on the development of materials. This was initially conducted before usage in the instructional activity. The goal of this process was to ensure the validation of materials in readiness for implementation in pedagogical intervention. Passing expert judgment ensured the reliability of the materials in supporting instructions, although they were not the only factor determining successful learning. Meanwhile, input from learners and instructors was necessary due to being responsible for the utilization of materials. This indicated that instructors and learners completely understood the performances of the materials to support learning. They also had knowledge of the material parts requiring revision for improvement. In addition, expert judges should have opinions and suggestions regarding revision of the materials.

The materials for each unit contained three or four tasks since one session was conducted in two hours. Each session began with topic introduction, speaking and main activities, and writing exercises. Writing was arranged for learners to create text or letters as outlined in the learning objective. Home assignments were also provided for more creative writing activity. Before its implementation, expert judges validated learning materials or modules.

2. Developing Teaching and Learning Syntax

Instructor and learners were one of the key points in the process of learning to create comprehensive and effective pedagogical activities. Besides the learning materials, these educational personnel also determined the performances of instruction. Therefore, any aspect related to instructors and learners should be appropriate, supportive, and reliable for the learning process. For the achievement of goals, teaching-learning syntax was found to be important. The provision of a lesson plan was also extremely essential in a learning process executed in an orderly manner. This was because random steps of instruction infrequently led to effective and focused activities, ensuring learners' consciousness of learning objectives. Therefore, learning syntax is important to instructors' and learners' goals based on the provision of educational ideas.

The syntax of TBLT-blended learning was designed to avoid wrong educational directions towards the achievement of goals. There were three main stages in this process, namely preteaching, teaching, and postteaching. Furthermore, the learning syntax was flexible depending on the needs of the educational process. This process is likely to be used for different durational sessions depending on the requirements of the learning process. Preteaching focuses on the introductory aspect of the lesson for learners to understand the contents of the materials. The models of the lesson should also be understood based on the combination of TBLT and blended learning in this study. In addition, the instructor should also state the type of lesson plan used due to several variations such as conventional, traditional, offline, or online TBLT. Besides explaining the learning objectives and durations required, the instructor used the syntax to explain the lesson expectations when conducted with an online model. Thus, learners were introduced to the methods of opening applications, accounts, and access codes to join the course. In this case, the introduction of the blended learning application was time consuming because several students were not familiar with the process compared to the conventional model.

The teaching stage was the main phase of this process due to its dominance in the learning activities. It contained more than one activity or task, especially when the learning hour was longer than 90 min. This process started with the conventional, direct, or digital distribution of tasks. In this case, Schoology was used to explain task execution, introduce linguistic features, model dialogues, and provide feedback. When the model used was blended or digital, modelling was conducted using videos and sent through the application. Learners were often provided with other tasks due to unfinished materials after previous activities. These normally involved extended speaking tasks, which enabled the practice of producing utterances in a verbal interaction. Moreover, the tasks were often based on interview, information, role play, et cetera. They also required learners to individually or collaboratively demonstrate performances. In addition, the purpose of oral or spoken tasks was to trigger learners' attention, awareness, and knowledge of the topic or language. This was because explicit experience in the form of production mostly stimulated

learners to demonstrate strong knowledge and comprehension, leading to language acquisition (Schmidt, 1990; Widanta, 2017). The performance of spoken tasks frequently assisted students in improving their pragmatic competence due to their engagement with pragmatic interpretation during oral practices (Arnawa et al., 2021).

Based on the learning target being able to produce text, the conventional and digital activities often led to writing tasks, which were focused on the main topic of each unit. This included the learners' abilities to design business, enquiry, and cover letters while also arranging them in an orderly fashion. The last activity in the teaching phase was the provision of feedback on learners' work. This was provided in almost all activities and was very essential in evaluating work quality, weakness, and progress. The last stage of the three main stages of learning syntax was the postteaching stage, which involved general feedback, reinforcement, and home assignments. Before being utilized as a standard tool, the learning syntax had to pass validation by expert judges.

3. *Developing the Assessment Tool*

The last main tool designed in developing a learning model is assessment, which helps to measure the learners' achievement during educational activities. The tool contains two subaspects, namely the test and the rubric.

The test was conducted through the role-play model, which involves the evaluation of learners based on productive skill performances in writing letters. Therefore, the role-play method is the learning outcome of each unit. However, only several topics of total units were selected in the role-play cards, which required learners to write through the consideration of five aspects, namely format, content, grammar and spelling, language appropriateness, and concision. Based on format, learners should be able to write letters with good and standard precision. In addition, standard format comprehension helped learners ease a certain level of anxiety due to the satisfaction obtained from their performances. Besides format, the messages included within the body of a letter were also a strong and reliable point. Additionally, the directions for messages were included in role-play narration. Therefore, learners' comprehension of role-play was essential to succeed in writing an appropriate letter. The other three aspects of a good letter—grammar and spelling, language appropriateness, and concision—were implicitly expressed in the role-play. In addition, five aspects were also used to construct a parameter for measuring and scoring learners' output (i.e., the descriptor). This was adopted from the rubrics proposed and published on the internet.

The descriptor is the sign or parameter for scoring learners' writing skills. In this case, five segments were used to provide descriptions, namely format, content, grammar and spelling, language appropriateness, and concision. Each parameter could be rated 1 (needs improvement), 2 (satisfactory), 3 (very good), or 4 (excellent). Format concerned the items contained in a business letter, such as address, date, inside referral, attention line, salutation, content, closing, and signature. This aspect was very important because its comprehension led to awareness or consciousness in learners, which in turn increased their self-confidence and motivation to finish the letter. Learners are often confused when beginning to write a letter because they are unfamiliar with the format of a letter. The body or content of a letter is often used as a determinant because it is considered a goal factor during assessment. Therefore, the content of opening and closing paragraphs as well as messages was utilized as a parameter. When a learner fails to construct messages, the content conveyed in the letter certainly becomes difficult for readers to comprehend. Two linguistic properties that further emerged as parameters were grammar and spelling as well as language appropriateness. A comprehensible letter should contain grammatical sentences and correct spellings as well as appropriately selected words. When used in business domains, several words were found not to provide exact, familiar, and appropriate meanings. The final aspect to be considered in constructing a good letter is concision. A long-winded letter containing redundant and/or superfluous information is likely to lead to confusion among readers. Therefore, writers should be skilled in designing conscious letters to meet standard goals. Similar to other instruments, test and rubric assessment tools were validated by expert judges before use.

B. *Combining Task-based Language Teaching with the Blended Learning Model*

The blended learning model is a combination of digital/online and conventional/offline models due to the frequency set for both types of learning. Online learning helps socialize learners with technology and unit materials and provide opportunities for instructors and learners to virtually conduct educational activities during the COVID-19 pandemic era. The application used provided the resources of learning materials, such as videos, songs, articles, and news. In addition, learners expressed their ideas through various activities, such as recorded monolog, dialog, and drama. Besides TBLT, the online model also promotes learners through several methods, such as problem and project-based learning (PBL and PjBL) as well as group investigation (GI). Several possible models were combined with the online learning; however, this study only considered the assessments of TBLT. Moreover, the application used to support the learning was Schoology, which was well known at the university. The program was quite easy to apply due to having good menus, systems, and subapplication. It also proposed several menus that were simple to operate.

The TBLT model was found to be suitable for online learning just like other methods such as PBL, PjBL, and GI. It was selected for several reasons: (i) TBLT was a potential conventional learning approach; (ii) experts were inspired to implement it in an online learning model; and (iii) before PBL, PjBL, and GI, experts attempted to begin combination with TBLT. The combination of online and offline learning began with the review of materials and conventional TBLT approaches, which advocated learners' improvement of spoken and written language uses. It also relied on learners' fluency before accuracy. Therefore, the communicative language teaching approach is often facilitated for its

implementation (Richards & Rodger, 2012). In addition, the online model through blended learning was used to acquire learners' language, although it led to writing skill. Almost all units were completed with a task, which enhanced learners' speaking skills before their writing skills. Writing skills were often produced in the main task of the learning activity due to its output being writing production. Based on this condition, the combination of both models successfully led to learners' language and content mastery for the improvement of writing skills.

C. Challenges the Students Encountered

The implementation of blended learning contributed to several challenges for learners and instructors. Besides being slightly experienced, these different challenges were individually felt by the learners. Since learning was divided between direct and online activities, students felt that sharing time between the performance of tasks, exercises, and assignments on campus was highly demanding. Internet connection was the main problem on campus since several students had to share it. This is in line with Qidah (2018), who showed the perception of learners to blended learning model application in EFL grammar classes in Palestine. Additionally, distance learning without meetings with colleagues and lecturers led to socialization problems because students needed social interaction and collaboration when sharing task ideas. These interactions also help to increase social intelligence. Therefore, sociolinguistic competence is difficult to teach via distance learning compared to direct activities (Tawil, 2018). This led to lecturers' inability to observe learners' personality or character, including motivation, anxiety level, courage, and curiosity, which are essential aspects of a successful and meaningful learning process. Interactions also provided learners with more benefits, with students most easily understanding the lesson when they physically encountered the lecturers' performances. For instance, most learners who are introverts, closed off, or shy experienced more convenience when directly interacting with their lecturers via asking questions or having personal consultations (Kaur, 2013). Lecturers further showed that students felt frustrated and considered blended learning time consuming because they were not ready for technology-based education. In addition, students cheated in other online classes because it was difficult for lecturers to control them while learning compared to direct education. This is in line with Mudra's (2018) research regarding EFL classes in Indonesia.

Other students also commented on this form of learning after a semester. For certain reasons, they found that the learning environment was not conducive during blended learning, such as internet connectivity; less technical skill; and learners' indiscipline, frustration, and nonownership of personal computers. Less availability of internet connection on campus was the most frequently mentioned problem, which led to the ownership of their tools. The absence of internet and nonownership of computers also played important roles in the embodiment of success, which was in line with Al Zumor et al. (2013). Besides internet availability, blended learning success depended greatly on punctuation because the time limit on a certain assignment or test caused significant stress (Hande, S., 2014). To cope with these problems, reliable tools asserting a smooth learning process were very important. These challenges affected learners' performance, causing low academic achievement. Therefore, blended learning was considered a failure in fostering positive effects for students' education. This is in line with Tosun (2015), who showed that blended learning did not improve students' achievement, especially their vocabulary knowledge.

D. Benefits Students Experienced

In addition to disadvantages, blended learning had positive impacts because students' perception was also gathered on the model implementation. Based on the focused group discussion with participants, several advantages were obtained from some aspects, namely materials, language skills, flexibility, character, practicality, and improvement.

This learning model further promoted various materials, with students accessing modules uploaded by lecturers and several other resources, such as videos, audio recordings, books, and other links. Materials were modified and presented in better performance because lecturers were able to sort variety from the internet. This is in line with the lecturer method that uses pictures to teach grammar (Qidah, 2008). Furthermore, the selected learning materials provided abundant extensive reading texts, which allowed students to study authentically. This is in line with Ghazizadeh and Fatemiour's (2017) study. An example of this condition was the use of video and audio performed by native English speakers (Mudra, 2018).

Students' language skills also improved. Although the materials were focused on achieving writing skills, they still triggered other language features such as speaking, reading, and listening as well as grammar and analytical skills. Students found the lesson interesting since speaking activities were often involved in the learning activities, which originated once or more in each unit. In addition, this attribute was placed as an initiating activity in the middle or before the main task. Furthermore, speaking was observed to be an effective stimulus for learners through language or expressions, idea explanations, or writers' plan before writing. Students also had the knowledge of what to write, what format to use, and what vocabulary to choose. These inputs were further processed before being made an output (Schmidt, 1990; Widanta, 2017). Although blended learning was not specifically designed for writing, it still had the ability to improve certain skills, such as speaking, listening, spelling, and grammar (Andas & Bakir, 2013).

Blended learning prioritized flexibility since most students noted the model's fluidity and lack of time limitations (Kaur, 2012; Rahim, 2019; Zumor et al., 2013). This was experienced as long as the proposed materials were not time bound. Furthermore, most of the lesson materials attached on the site were rewound due to being constantly uploaded

and could also be downloaded any time. Flexibility was also embodied by the situation where the learning was conducted inside and outside the classroom (Ju & Mei, 2018).

Furthermore, blended learning was able to construct better learner character, with most learners being motivated, enthusiastic, constructive, and inspiring as well as independent. The actual goal of education is for students to be highly motivated, enthusiastic, inspired, and independent (Kaur, 2012; Rahim, 2019; Hande, S., 2014; Oweis, 2018; Akbarov & Aydogan, 2018). In addition, the achievements of these characters were the highlight of educational goals.

Several perceptions further showed that the designed learning model was practical for reasons such as (i) being massively used at the same time; (ii) being used inside and outside classrooms; and (iii) its learning materials, such as audio, video, presentation, and assessment immediately being updated and repeated. Since resources are easily accessed on the internet, updating learning materials was flexibly conducted any time. This is almost in line with research conducted by S. Hande (2014), Al Zumor (2013), Pappas (2018), and Ju and Mei (2018). Continuous improvement was conclusively found to result from models, approaches, and methods being used to support blended learning. The use of TBLT in this model was also successful. Other models included in blended learning were PjBL, GI, problem solving, advanced organizer, et cetera. Another model successfully inserted was PBL (Tawil, 2018).

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The development of task-based blended learning for an EFL writing class in Polytechnic Negeri Bali was successfully conducted, leading to several conclusions such as the proposed model, the combination of both educational methods, and the challenges and benefit encountered. The development successfully provided a model with learning materials, syntax, and assessment tools. Several simplifications were also made since the conventional materials included some units with similar language functions, purposes, and grammar points. The simplification caused unit minimization and learning hour maximization for students. Furthermore, learning syntax stated that instructors and students had similar perceptions of the learning performances. The assessment tool was formed as a role-play model requiring students to produce a written text such as a business letter that was evaluated with an assessment rubric measuring format, content, grammar, language appropriateness, and concision. This tool contained a Likert scale including four descriptors: need improvement (1), satisfactory (2), very good (3), and excellent (4). Several challenges were further encountered through this developed model, such as anxiety levels, sharing time for task performances and opening site, shortage of socialization, and inadequate communication with teachers (especially for introverts). However, the blended model motivated students for certain reasons, such as the abundant access to materials provided on the site. In addition, elicitation fostered students' self-confidence due to highly coping with the materials. The task of speaking also helped students to accurately comprehend the learning activities.

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Cognitive Skills Reflection and Distribution in EFL Program Testing

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Abstract—The present study aims at figuring out the extent to which the low-order cognitive skills (LOCS) and high-order cognitive skills (HOCS) are reflected and systematically distributed in the first and eighth levels exam question papers. The study adopts the assumption that, critical thinking skills and creative thinking skills are adequately reflected and distributed in the exam question papers based on Bloom's Taxonomy of the Learning Behavior. The tool used for data collection is a check list containing cognitive domain order which is based on Bloom's Taxonomy. The goal is to ascertain whether questions at level 1 and level 8 offered in English language program in the College of Science and Arts in Mahayel Asir are adequately adjusted to the taxonomy. The descriptive and analytical method is applied to analyze the data. The researchers reviewed relevant literature and assessed similar results. The findings of the study revealed that lower-order cognitive skills for level 1 (88.23%) are used in the question papers more than higher-order cognitive skills (11.77%). On the other extreme, lower-order cognitive skills in level 8 (93.86%) are mostly used in the question papers more than higher-order cognitive skills (6.14%). There are adequate distribution and reflection of cognitive skills in level 1 exam questions. This is not the case as in level 8 where the focus was wholly based on the lower-order at the cost of the higher-order cognitive skills.

Index Terms—bloom taxonomy, distribution, EFL, higher-order and lower-order thinking testing

I. INTRODUCTION

In the year 1956, Dr. Benjamin S. Bloom (An American psychologist and educator) along with a group of educators, originated Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. This classification was built on the basis of the work of Hilgenheger (1993), a German philosopher-psychologist who developed a five-steps learning model comprising: preparation, presentation, comparison and abstraction, generalization, and application. The classification is seen as a framework for facilitating and exchanging tests questions among teachers of different faculties. The objective is to create question banks that measure same educational objectives (Andrich (2002). The taxonomy includes a chain of six integrated orders of cognitive skills. Nicholas and Leame (2003) demonstrated that Bloom's taxonomy is seen as a scaffolding device or stair steps that students use to move from down to top. Each stair step backs then next one that follows it. This means that acquiring one cognitive order facilitates the acquisition of the other. The first cognitive level is labeled as knowledge dimension (McNett & Harvey 2003). It addresses four types of knowledge; factual, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge (Radmehr & Drake 2018). Knowledge level requires the recalling, remembering, and retaining of information without further thinking process. It is the base upon which the other cognitive orders rest. The second cognitive level is comprehension. This level is defined as the ability to grasp the meaning of objects and transform the items from one position to another such as: translating words into numbers and vice versa. The third cognitive level is called application. It is defined as the competency to use acquired knowledge in real situations. It is the capacity to apply rules, theories, terms, and laws in proper modes. The fourth cognitive order is analysis. It is the ability to break down a subject into its basic structural elements. The fifth cognitive level is synthesis. It is the ability to use elements together to create a new entity. The sixth cognitive order is evaluation. It is the highest order of cognitive skills that enables students to manifest judgment and criticism on the value of something. Cognitive order skills presented in this study stand for low-order cognitive skills (LOCS) and higher-order cognitive skills (HOCS). The former, as Adli & Mahmoudi (2017) refer to is the form of thinking that involves recalling and memorizing information, whereas the latter involves analysis, synthesis, and evaluation of conceptions and procedures. Thus, the higher cognitive skills (henceforth) higher-order thinking is an umbrella that incorporates creative thinking, critical thinking and problem solving. Creative thinking is the capacity that enables learners to create unique ideas; generate ideas that others could not think of; deal with things in unusual ways; view a problem from different angles, etc. Similarly, critical thinking is the competency that enables learners to search for evaluation, clarity, consistency, precision, accuracy, justification, relevancy, and truth in everything (Piaw 2016). To sum up, both critical and creative thinking lead to the process of problem solving which is considered as the ultimate function of higher thinking. The present paper comprises ten sections. The following section is wholly devoted to the literature relevant to the study. The

aim here is to have snapshots of the main concepts and to see the relationship among them. The concept of higher thinking which includes creative thinking, critical thinking and problem solving are presented. The second section is about the research questions along with hypotheses. The third section presents the research design whereas the fourth section tackles data collection. The fifth section is about data analysis along with the sixth section which is about the method used. The seventh section addresses the results obtained. The eighth section is assigned for the discussion. The ninth section includes the conclusion whereas the tenth section offers the recommendations. The final section brings about the limitations of the research as well as proposes gaps to be addressed in future studies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Low-order Cognitive Skills Distribution in the Exam Papers

Cognitive skills, whether they are low or high, are essential in high education. At the early stages, the LOCS including memorization and gain considerable proportion. The previous studies reviewed show consistency on the application of the first phase of the theory. It includes LOCS. That is to say; questions testing student's knowledge through their cognition abilities to remember, recall and memorize the items in question are applied in all the studies. Bloom's taxonomy is used by Soleimani & Kheiri (2016) to examine the quality of the exercises and assignments provided to Iranian MA and PhD students. The study found out that LOCS are used more in MA testing classroom activities while HOCS are never used. On the other hand, LOCS are never used in PhD testing classroom activities. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives is used by Mohsen et al., (2010), Miyazoe & Anderson (2010) to investigate why the introductory biology courses are widely criticized for overemphasizing LOCS rather than HOCS. They quantify the cognitive level of learning targeted by the faculty in introductory-level biology courses. The investigation reveals that the assessment items used overwhelmingly target lower cognitive levels; however, the cognitive level of articulated course goals is not predictive of the cognitive level of assessment items. Their study also shows that there is no influence of course size or institution type on the cognitive levels of assessments concluding that the findings support the claim that introductory biology courses emphasize facts more than HOCS. In another similar study, De Waelsche (2014) and DeWaelsche (2015) investigate whether the higher-level questioning in student-centered activities is valid enough to elevate critical thinking and increase student engagement among Korean university English majors. The study focuses mainly on exploring difficulties associated with reluctance among students to speak or share opinions in class because of sociocultural influences in the classroom. Although the studies reviewed are based on different subjects, many of them, in accordance with Soleimani & Kheiri (2016), Athanassiou (2003), Zoller & Tsapalis (1997) and Tammy Long et al., (2010), are subjected to tests that measure LOCS rather than HOCS. Zoller believes that LOCS-orientation in teaching and the extent of prior examination preparation and examinations that contain items of both types is the main factors behind poor performance among the students.

B. Higher-order Cognitive Skills Distribution in the Exam Papers

The HOCS, defined above, are extremely crucial in the realm of higher education. This could obviously be seen in the relevant studies reviewed. Soleimani & Kheiri (2016), Ryan (2014), Ryan (2018), Marzban (2014), Adli (2017), Athanassiou (2003), A. Ranjbara et al., (2007) and Marzban & Jalili (2014) emphasize the fact that the test given to their targets measure HOCS. Soleimani (2016) notices a systemic pattern in the distribution of the order of thinking skills of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy in postgraduate activities and assignments. Soleimani postulated that activities and assignments given to postgraduate students lead both to LOCS and HOCS. Marzban (2014) examined problem-solving in writing skills on the formulation stage of writing among Iranian EFL learners. The study investigates the frequency of solving, and the amount of time devoted to solving formulation problems in general and type of problems. For a period of six weeks, learners were taught how to ask and answer questions in English based on their textbook using keywords and sample questions stem from Bloom's (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (cognitive domain). The aim is to develop their critical thinking. The results of Marban's study reveal that the treatment of the study is effective in increasing the level of critical thinking. He also found out that the treatment leads to an increase in the time spent on formulating problem-solving. According to the study, it is obvious that there is more time devoted to teaching questioning that leads to upgrading rather than compensating class of problems. However, the treatment does not have any significant effect on the frequency of solving formulation problems. De Waelsche (2015) conducted two separate studies sharing their targets views as to the validity of higher-level questioning in student-centered activities to elevate critical thinking and increase student engagement. The study shows that the student participation and critical thinking activities are negatively affected by cultural and institutional factors, in addition to limitations in English language proficiency. He argues that when students possess adequate English language skills and when they are challenged to do so in dialogues they will overcome sociocultural obstacles and successfully engage in group conversations with peers (DeWaelsche, 2015). In another study, Ryan (2014) found out that language test candidates not only have strong opinions (both positive and negative) about the tests they take, but they also have a strong desire to share those opinions with test developers. Ryan believes that this type of feedback can then be used to substantially improve future tests, thereby helping to enhance the validity of the test system.

Athanassiou (2003) investigated the use of Bloom's Taxonomy as a metacognitive framework for a student-centered management class adopting a six-level classification system using observed student behavior to infer the level of cognitive achievement. Based on suggested uses of Bloom's Taxonomy, he surveyed thinking within general education and within management education. Through an Empirical evaluation, he investigated the taxonomy's effect on student achievement. It is found out that in each class the difference between the median score of the students who demonstrated improvements and the median score of the students who demonstrated a decline is significant and positive. There is repeated attention given by students to the steps of Bloom's Taxonomy that increases their propensity to apply higher levels of conceptual sophistication to their work. More specifically, it is noted that in the IM class there was an actual decrease in performance on Bloom's scale between the first and the second observation. This may be explained as a learning effect. However, after each of the subsequent two periods of emphasis of Bloom's concepts, the class's performance improves significantly.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The following section includes the methodology followed to conduct the present study.

A. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The questions of the present research are:

1. what extent the Low-order and High-order Cognitive Skills are reflected in the first and eighth terms exams?
2. Are the Low-order and High-order Cognitive skills adequately distributed in the first and eighth terms exams?

B. The Null Hypotheses Derived from the Research Questions above Were:

1. H1: Low-order and High-order Cognitive Skills are reflected in the exam papers.
2. H1a: Low-order Cognitive Skills are adequately distributed in the exam scripts.
3. H1b: High-order Cognitive Skills are adequately distributed in the exam scripts.

IV. DATA COLLECTION

The present study adopts a quantitative approach in which mathematical, computational, and statistical methods are used. To obtain numerical data, a structured check list of low-order and High-order Cognitive behaviors based on Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Skills is designed. The required data for the study; are exam questions for two different levels in an EFL program. The tables below show the data collected from level 1 and level 8.

TABLE 1
TEST QUESTIONS DISTRIBUTION AND REFLECTION IN LEVELS 1 & 8

Levels	Course code	Knowledge	Lower order	Higher order			
			Comprehension	Application	Analysis	Synthesis	Evaluation
Level-1	110Eng-3	What (6) Write	Check, Select True/false				
	111Eng-3	Define, fill, match	True/false (2) circle				
	112Eng-3	Put, fill, correct Complete (2)				Join, make Write (2)	
	113Eng-3	Complete (4)	Circle (2) Correct			Make	
Leve-8	423Eng-3	Define, give (3)	True/false Discuss				Explain
	425Eng-3		What (2) how Which, choose (3)	Write an essay		Compare	
	427Eng-3	Define, give (2) What2	True/false	Use			Explain
	433 Eng-2	define, list, give Mention (3), what (2) State (2) write	Discuss (5)	Choose			
	441Eng-2	Mention, complete		Translate (6)			

Level=Semester; Lower- order (LOCS)=Knowledge, Comprehension, Application.; Higher-order Cognitive Skills (HOCS) =Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The descriptive and analytical methods are applied to analyze the research question as to the extent in which the Low-order and High order Cognitive Skills are reflected in the first and eighth terms exam scripts. The main data source of this study is the test questions offered in level 1 & level 8. There are four tests assigned for level 1 and five tests for level 8. The test questions are classified according to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (cognitive orders). An independent samples T. test is used to show if there are any significant differences supposed be found between the two levels.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF COGNITIVE ORDERS IN LEVELS 1 & 8

Bloom's Taxonomy of cognitive orders							Total	
Levels	Low order	Freq.	Perc. (%)	High order	Freq.	Perc. (%)	Freq.	Perc. (%)
Level-1	Knowledge	21	61.76%	Analysis	0	0%	34	100%
	Comprehension	9	26.47%	Synthesis	4	11.77%		
	Application	0		Evaluation	0	0%		
Level-8	Knowledge	22	44.89%	Analysis	0	0%	49	100%
	Comprehension	15	30.61%	Synthesis	1	2.060		
	Application	9	18.36%	Evaluation	2	4.08%		

Table (2) shows that there are 21 items classified as knowledge questions representing 61.76%. There are 9 comprehension questions representing 26.47%, and 4 synthesis questions representing 11.76%. It is clear in the table that there is zero application for analysis and evaluation questions in level 1. It means that LOCS are mostly used in level 1 test questions. Whereas only four questions in HOCS are used. There are no instances of questions in analysis and evaluation used in level 1. This means that both LOCS and HOCS, as thinking skills are concerned, are not adequately reflected. On the other hand, there are 22 knowledge questions representing 44.89%, 15 comprehension questions representing 30.61%, 9 application questions representing 18.36%. This means that LOCS are heavily used in level 1 test questions. It is also noticed that there are only three questions in HOCS. There is no single analysis question used in level 8. This indicates that HOCS are not systematically distributed.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR LEVELS 1 & 8

Factor	N	M	STD	SEM	F	Sig.	DF	T	Sig.
1	5	0.2000	0.182578	0.8165	4.223	0.074	8	4.445	0.002
2	5	3.1333	1.46439	0.65490					

M: Mean; N: Number; STD: Standard Deviation; SEM: Standard Error Mean; Sig. at 0.05 level.

Table (3) shows that there is a significant difference between the two levels where F distribution-F (6.064,16) = 0.026 < 0.05 level. Based on this result, the first hypothesis is proved referring to LOCS and HOCS which are reflected in the exam papers. To confirm the above result, another t-test 1 (t-value t (5.981) and sig value is (0.00) = 0.00 < 0.05 and 0.01)) also proves the same result.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR LEVEL 1

Factor	N	M	STD	SEM	F	Sig.	DF	T	Sig.
1	5	0.2000	0.182578	0.8165	4.223	0.074	8	4.445	0.002
2	5	3.1333	1.46439	0.65490					

Table (4) indicates that there is no significant difference between the two factors of level 1. As F distribution - F (1.744,6) = 0.235 > 0.05 level. Based on this result, the first sub-hypothesis referring to the adequate distribution of LOCS in the exams is not proved. However, the result of t-value t (3.806) and sig value is (0.009) = 0.00 < 0.05 and (0.01) shows that there is significant difference between the two factors of level 1. Therefore, the sub-hypothesis H1a is proved.

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR LEVEL 8

Factor	N	M	STD	SEM	F	Sig.	DF	T	Sig.
1	4	2.5000	1.03638	0.51819	1.744	0.235	6	3.806	0.009
2	4	0.3333	0.47140	0.23570					

Table (5) reveals that there is no significant difference between the two factors of level 8 as F distribution - F (4.223,8) = 0.074 > 0.05 level. Based on this result, the second sub-hypothesis (H1b:) is not proved. However, the result of t-value t (-4.445) and sig value is (0.002) = 0.00 < 0.05 and 0.01)) indicates that there is significant difference between the two factors of level 8. Accordingly, the sub-hypothesis H1b is proved.

VI. DISCUSSION

The results of the study indicate that LOCS in level 1 (88.23%) are used more than HOCS skills (11.77%). This result is similar to what Soleimani (2016), Thanassionu (2003), Zoller (1997) found out. On the other hand, LOCS in level 8 (93.86%) are used more than HOCS (6.14%). This result agrees with the findings reached by Tammy and Long et al., (2010). It is noted that there is adequate distribution and reflection of cognitive skills in level 1 exam questions, whereas; it is not the case in level 8, where the focus was wholly on the LOCS at the cost of the HOCS. What can be drawn out from the findings above is that: exam questions offered in level 1 conform to Bloom's Taxonomy to a high degree, since it lays greater emphasis on the LOCS. This emphasis helps learners to build up their linguistic competence

at the earlier stages in the learning scaffolding process. However, smooth and balanced transition from one cognitive skill to another in a systematic manner prepares learners for the upcoming levels that demand more mental efforts. As for the exam questions offered in level 8, the emphasis is on the LOCS. This, of course, doesn't conform to Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives to a high degree. Learners at such level are expected to develop higher cognitive skills such as creative thinking, critical thinking and problem solving which are considered as the goal of outcomes-based education.

VII. CONCLUSION

Teachers and test makers generally tend to pose questions that place more emphasis on knowledge acquisition. Knowledge is considered as the building block of the learning process. Effective training for forming questions that are based on Bloom's Taxonomy enables teachers to gradually help learners to advance from one step to another. By so doing, learners grasp knowledge as well as they promote creative/critical thinking. The findings of the present study emphasize similar conclusion. i.e., LOCS gain greater proportion in comparison HOCS. By contrast, level 8 questions which are supposed to lay greater emphasis on HOCS, focus on LOCS. Although this situation promotes learner's linguistic competence yet, it does not help them to develop HOCS that enables them to solve problems in real life.

VIII. RECOMMENDATION

Based on the findings of the present study, the researchers recommend that teachers have to be familiar with Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives and practice them in their teaching/testing habits. Careful preparing of test questions using the different cognitive orders assists instructors to provide a wider range of questions that incorporate knowledge retention and recalling as well as requires that learners apply, analyze, synthesize, create, and evaluate information. In other words, test questions should be posted in a scaffolding manner to guarantee systematic cognitive skills development. i.e., LOCS should be given a higher proportion than HOCS in level 1. Similarly, HOCS have to receive greater proportion than LOCS in level 8.

IX. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The present study is wholly devoted to compare exam questions offered at two levels. The comparison of exam papers is made between two levels namely level 1 and level 8 (micro study). However, there are eight levels in the program. Therefore, generalization of the study findings needs to be confirmed with further research (macro study) that covers all levels in the program. So, this study is an attempt to pave the way for comprehensive, studies to be conducted in the area. Consequently, comprehensive, generalizable findings will be generated.

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Subtitle Translation of American Sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* From the Perspective of Eco-Translatology

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Abstract—Eco-translatology is a theory of translation put forward by Professor Hu Genshen, which regards translation as a process of “selective adaptation” and “adaptive selection”. The popularity of American TV dramas has aroused a huge demand for subtitle translation, resulting in the rapid growth of subtitle translation by *fansub groups* and increasing enthusiasm for subtitle translation studies in China. While there is no accordant idea about the understanding of subtitle translation of TV dramas on the internet translated by *fansub groups*. Based on the theoretical framework of Eco-translatology theory, this study examines the subtitle translation of *The Big Bang Theory* to analyze translators’ “selection” and “adaptation” on linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions. It also pays attention to the inappropriate selection of translation techniques made by the *fansub groups*. The analysis shows that in the translation process of *The Big Bang Theory*’s subtitles, the translators adopted various translation techniques which include the applications of buzzwords, Chinese idioms, annotations, and free translation to implement adaptive selection in linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions. And the *fansub groups* make some inappropriate selections as abusing the Chinese dialect in translation. These findings attempt to provide a reference for subtitle translation of American TV dramas available on the internet, as well as evidence of the explanatory power of Eco-translatology theory in subtitle translation studies, in order to supplement a new perspective on subtitle translation and more attention on this developing translation theory.

Index Terms—eco-translatology, three-dimensional transformation, adaptive selection, translation techniques, inappropriate selection

I. INTRODUCTION

After the year 2000, the development of the internet in China has made a great contribution to the boom of American TV dramas, particularly *Prison Break* in 2006, which had a remarkable start and success among Chinese netizens¹. From 2015 to 2020, the number of American TV series played on Tencent’s Video Website alone was 2.45 million to 680 million (Zhong, 2021, p. 65). The popularity of American TV dramas has aroused a huge demand for subtitle translation, which results in rapid growth in this area and increasing enthusiasm for subtitle translation studies about American TV dramas on the internet. However, not many studies in this area are conducted from the perspective of Eco-translatology. It is a theory put forward by Professor Hu Gengshen that can be used to demonstrate how translators of subtitle translation make translation survive through adaptations and selections in a transitional complicated eco-environment.

The Big Bang Theory (hereafter *TBBT*) is an American sitcom that was first presented on CBS on September 24th, 2007. It has been nominated more than 50 times by the Emmy Awards and other TV show authorities. It has been favored by millions of audiences in China and has consistently scored above 9 on the Chinese film and television rating platform, *Douban*, with a maximum score of 9.6. The appreciation and popularity of it in China owns not only to its featured language with the scientific knowledge, cultural differences, and religious factors, but also to its subtitle translation. The translation of its subtitle is produced by *fansub groups* on the internet. Thus, its featured language and translation are worth studying.

Many scholars have attempted to analyze the translated subtitles of *TBBT* produced by *fansub groups* on the websites

¹ “These are the people who as citizens of the Net, I realized were netizens ...”(Hauben, 1997, p3).

in specific aspects, such as humor representations (Yang, 2017; Del, 2020), discourse analysis (Wang, 2020), and metaphor translations (Li, 2021). However, little attention has been paid to the translation techniques and subtitle translation of TBBT as a “selection” process from the perspective of Eco-translatology. As a theory advocated by a Chinese scholar, Eco-translatology arouses little attention in the western academic community. Therefore, there is a large room for practical studies in this area.

This study intends to examine the subtitle translation of *The Big Bang Theory* to analyze translators’ “adaptive selection” in linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions under the theoretical framework of Eco-translatology theory. It also pays attention to the inappropriate selection of translation techniques by the *fansub groups* in the subtitle translation of TBBT. Finally, it proposes a possible reference for subtitle translation of American TV dramas on the internet and offers a new perspective in subtitle translation studies to enrich the theoretical framework in this field. Meanwhile, it can provide proof for the explanatory power of Eco-translatology to subtitle translation and supplement more attention and discussion on this developing translation theory.

II. OVERVIEW AND LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Subtitle Translation in an Era of TV Dramas on the Internet in China*

In 1922, the Shanghai Peacock Film Company pioneered in making foreign films shown with Chinese subtitles (Yu, 2015, p. 498). Subsequently, the subtitle translation in China kept changing due to various factors till the 21st century. By virtue of the application and popularity of the Internet, people are no longer confined to watching limited TV programs, but more actively choose the Internet to watch American TV dramas (Zu, 2020). Because the English language abilities of the audiences are uneven, most Chinese need to understand the plot development of American dramas and western culture through Chinese subtitles. There are many differences between English and Chinese in the ways of expression, customs, and value orientations. When it comes to subtitle translation from English into Chinese, it is the usual case that English subtitles occupy more space than Chinese ones in terms of the utterance length due to their differences in the graphic system and syntactic structures (Yu, 2015).

Huge demands for subtitle translation of TV dramas on the internet have spawned *fansub groups* in China. *Fansub groups* are groups of people who translate and add subtitles to foreign films or foreign television programs. Most members of domestic *fansub groups* are people who love translation or college students with different levels of translation abilities, and the quality of their translations is also uneven (Meng, 2021). Zou and Zhu (2021) hold the idea that the communication form of “transformational translation” created by *fansub groups* is dispersive, uncorrelated, irrational, and difficult to regulate. However, there is no accordant idea about the understanding of subtitle translation of TV dramas translated by *fansub groups*.

B. *Previous Studies on Subtitle Translation of TBBT*

Lots of previous scholars put their interests in the translation of humor in subtitle translation, taking TBBT as the case. Both Yu (2014) and Lu (2017) conducted studies about the representation of humor in the subtitle of TBBT under the scope of the Relevance Theory. Yu (2014) focused on direct translation and indirect translation, while Lu (2017) talked about it from a self-built framework as language humor, cultural humor, and common humor. Li (2018) categorized the type of humor in the subtitle of TBBT with some translation examples and then explained the translation method.

Some attention has also been paid to the translation strategies for the subtitle translation of TBBT. Li (2016) studied this from the perspective of Relevance Theory, focusing on the linguistic aspects. Therefore, in terms of “direct translation” and “indirect translation”, the translator in the said study used conversions, annotations, analogies, and paraphrasing respectively. Li (2017) studied the principles and strategies of subtitle translation of films and TV dramas, taking TBBT as a case. But based on the principles that it was analyzed, “creative translation strategy” may not be regarded as a translation strategy. Meanwhile, Wang (2019) conducted an analysis that is specific on domestication in the subtitle translation of TBBT.

C. *Eco-translatology: A Translation Theory with Oriental Wisdom*

It has been 20 years since 2001 when Professor Hu Gengshen² published his first paper on Eco-translatology. In these years, from the presentation of various terms to the convening of academic conferences (2010 in Macau; 2012 in Chongqing, and so on), and then to the publication of systematic books (Chinese version in 2013, English version in 2020), Eco-translatology theory has experienced a comprehensive development.

The notion of “Translational eco-environment” firstly appeared in 2001 in *Initial Exploration into Translation as Adaptation and Selection* by Hu Gengshen for a conference (2001), referring to “the worlds of the source text and the source and target languages, comprising the linguistic, communicative, cultural and social aspects of translating, as well as the author, the client, and the reader” (Hu Gengshen, 2004, p. 90). According to Hu, the process of translating comprises two stages, including the translational eco-environment that selects the translator and the translator that selects or decides on the form of the final target text (Hu, 2004, p. 222). The translator should make a “selective adaptation” to the

² Hu Gengshen is Professor Emeritus at the School of Languages and Translation, Macao Polytechnic Institute, Macao, and at the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures, Tsinghua University, Beijing. (<https://forumtis.gdufs.edu.cn/info/1040/1055.htm>)

“translational eco-environment” and then make a “selective adaptation” to produce a translation version.

Eco-translatology has aroused continuous discussion among Chinese domestic scholars. For Meng (2019), it was an excellent translation research discourse system with unique and profound Chinese ecological wisdom and both Chinese and Western academic norms. While affirming the value of Eco-translatology, Wang (2021) thought that Hu Gengshen’s “translation as an adaptive choice” was similar to Levy’s descriptions of translation that were based on game theory; both of which were based on the idealized assumptions inherent in rational choice theory. Therefore, it had limited descriptive power for some idealized translation phenomena but could not objectively describe the universal translation phenomena in the empirical world (Wang, 2021, p. 90).

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. *The Origin of Eco-translatology Theory*

To begin with, Eco-translatology emerged along with the trend of international ecological interests which reflected the turn of social civilization in translation to some extent. Since the 1960s, human society’s interest has turned from industrial civilization to ecological civilization. In 1972, the *Declaration of Human’s Environment* was published to stress environmental protection. Along with this trend and atmosphere, the concept of “ecology” was widely accepted by many social science researchers and became more and more popular. Moreover, it also started to emerge with the philosophical turn. In the 19th century, the theory of “Deep Ecology” (Naess, 1973) introduced ecology into the field of philosophy and ethics, laying a solid foundation for the development of Eco-translatology.

Furthermore, eco-translatology has deep roots in philosophical ideas and specific backgrounds, as many Chinese cultures embody ecological consciousness, such as “the philosophy of moderation,” “the Dao follows nature,” and “people-oriented” (Meng, 2019).

Moreover, eco-translatology arose from translation studies as perceived by ecology. It was true that there was much research on translation in light of “environment”, “ecology”, “survival”, “adaptation” and “selection” before Eco-translatology came into being. For instance, Nord (1994) regards translation as a process of cultural and linguistic adaptation and Kantan (2004) once classified the ecological culture of translation.

B. *Main Concepts of Eco-translatology Used in This Research*

1. *Translation Process: Adaptation and Selection*

Guided by Darwin’s “adaptation and selection” theory, Hu Gengshen defines translation as a selection of activities by a translator so as to adapt and fit into the eco-environment of the translating work (Hu, 2003). According to Eco-translatology, the process of translating comprises two stages, including the translational eco-environment that selects the translator and the translator (who stands for the translational eco-environment) that selects or decides on the form of the final target text (Hu, 2004). That is to say, the translator should conduct “selective adaptation” to the translational eco-environment and “adaptive selection” to select the most effective and proper translation strategies.

2. *Three-dimensional Transformation: Linguistic, Cultural and Communicative*

In Eco-translatology, the translator must make various selections based on adaptations to the translational eco-environment, which could be summed up as “multi-dimensional adaptation and adaptive selection” (Hu, 2004). Subsequently, “multi-dimensional adaptation and adaptive selection” can be centralized in a three-dimensional transformation including linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions.

Linguistic transformation: the translator must select suitable and adaptive transformation in different levels in the light of linguistic forms, such as the adoption of semantic meaning, phonetic selections, vocabulary and sentence arrangements, and so on.

Cultural transformation: the successful transmission of cultural connotations is a significant standard for judgment of a translation. A translation that ignores cultural connotations and background could hardly arouse the readers’ interests and reorganization.

Communicative transformation: emphasis should be put on the communicative level, which is the realization of communicative purposes. Without communicative effects, information is useless. The translator should deliver clear information and convey the true communicative intention to the readers or audiences.

However, it has to be declared that there are some other adaptive selections besides the above three-dimensional transformation like marketing, goals, and timing that should be considered when choosing a suitable translation strategy according to Eco-translatology. Therefore, the translator should not only confine himself to the three-dimensional transformation but should also take other factors into consideration.

IV. METHOD

This paper presents a qualitative study of English subtitle translations of TBBT. The study employs the descriptive qualitative approach. Descriptive translation studies “describe the phenomenon of translating and translation(s) as they manifest themselves in the world of our experience” (Holmes, 1988, p. 71).

The data of the current study consists of two versions of subtitles of the first ten seasons of TBBT; the first set of data is

the subtitles in the source language, Chinese, and another set of data is translated subtitles in the target text, English. The data was gathered from the *YYe Ts (Videos Website)* since its *fansub group* has been the longest developing and largest one in China (Wang, 2020).

The transcription process followed the standard procedures that involved an overall observation on the computer screen to understand the story of each episode, and this process was then repeated for a second observation. All the dialogues or interactions in English and the translation in Chinese contained the factors and challenges in the translation process related to linguistics, culture, and communication were paid extra attention and 10 of them were selected for data analysis. Meanwhile, the inappropriate translations which set up the obstacles to understanding were also paid attention to and two of them were demonstrated as examples.

The process of analyzing the data for this study was conducted according to Eco-translatology, based on its framework of three-dimensional transformation on linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions. To make the analysis understandable to other language readers, literal translation is provided to all the target text examples in Chinese language.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Three Dimensional Transformation in the Process of Adaptive Selections

1. Linguistic Dimension

For the linguistic dimensional transformation, the translators mainly focus on two aspects: lexical level and syntactic level, using different translation techniques as follows:

a. Application of Buzzwords

Buzzwords can be seen as a form of popular language on the Internet, as well as the conventional expressions used by netizens, which are brief and strong in summary, often creating a humorous atmosphere. Buzzwords come from the necessity of substituting the limited ability of modern Chinese in network communication with the more dynamic ability of modern Chinese. People use the inherent rhetoric in Chinese creatively, which has greatly enriched the connotations of modern Chinese. In the following translation examples, the translator applied buzzwords to make the translation more abundant.

Example 1:

Rajesh: OK, first order of physics bowl business. We need a truly **kick-ass** team name.

Translation:

Rajesh: 我们需要一个很**拉风**的队名。

Literal translation: We need a very cool name.

(TBBT: S01E13)

Example 2:

Howard: Ok, simulated zero-gravity human waste disposed test.

Sheldon: **Fascinating!**

Translation:

Howard: 好, 模拟零重力环境人类排泄物处理测试。

Sheldon: **很好很强大!**

Literal translation: Very good and very powerful.

(TBBT: S02E22)

In example 1, “kick-ass” is intended to be “strong, brutal”. In this setting, the audiences can get a clue that what Rajesh needs is a quiet rock and a great name. The translators translate it as the popular words “**拉风**” (which means “super cool”), strengthening the sense of the sitcom. According to Yu (2010), buzzwords are not only a linguistic phenomenon but also a cultural and psychological phenomenon that is a mirror of the time, a reflection of the social change, cultural life, and mass psychology of a specific historical period. In example 2, a single word in the source text is translated into a phrase in the target text. The popular sentence structure “**很.....很.....**” (which means “very...very”) is a transformed quotation of “**很傻很天真**” (means “very silly and very naive”) coming from the sex scandal of a Chinese superstar in 2008. For quite a long time, people made up many similar structures like “very...very” to express humor or sarcasm. Here, the result of Howard’s text was a very funny failure mocked by others. The application of buzzwords successfully gains humor and derision more locally and understandably for the target audiences.

b. Applications of Chinese Idioms

English is a kind of language that focuses on hypotaxis, while Chinese stresses on parataxis. Hypotaxis refers to the realization of word or phrase connections with the help of language forms (including vocabulary and forms). Parataxis, on the other hand, describes the realization of word and phrase connections without the aid of language form, but rather the logical meaning of the words or phrases. To the target audiences, the formative sentences with long and sometimes loose structures are not easy to understand. Additionally, some Chinese idioms have similar meanings and are quite acceptable, which may have better effects in translation. The translators make the translation more colorful through the application of

Chinese idioms as follows:

Example 3:

Howard: That was absolutely humiliating.

Leonard: Come on, **some battles you win, some battles you lose.**

Translation:

Howard: 真是太丢人了。

Leonard: 好了，**胜败乃兵家常事嘛。**

Literal translation: It is very common for the army to win or lose.

(TBBT: S01E06)

Example 4:

Penny: What happened?

Leonard: Nothing. Mother likes looking at brains and Sheldon likes getting his brain scanned.

Penny: Geez, **what a fun couple.**

Translation:

Penny: 怎么了?

Leonard: 没事，老妈喜欢扫描人的大脑，Sheldon 喜欢被人扫描大脑。

Penny: 一个愿打，一个愿挨。

Literal translation: One is willing to beat the other, and the other one is willing to be beaten.

(TBBT: S02E15)

In example 3, “Some battles you win, some battles you lose” is a typical English inverted sentence, neat and antithesis. Literal translation can just convey the meaning but will lose the charm of the rhetoric of the original language. The translators borrow the idiom with the meaning that it is common to lose or win in battles, which is very refined and conveys the exact information, enabling the translation to become more authentic at the same time. In example 4, “what a fun couple” shows Penny’s plaint at the remarkable understanding between Sheldon and Leonard’s mother. They both could accept the ideas of each other, which was considered crazy in others’ eyes.

c. Annotations

In some circumstances, some words may have the same pronunciation but different spelling, and the scriptwriter may deliberately use the words with two meanings like a pun to create humor or irony. Since the target audiences have limited knowledge of English and translation, simple words are not adequate for them to fully understand what is going on. The translators use annotations to add to the implied meaning of the words and illustrate the original purposes of the scriptwriter.

Example 5:

Sheldon: Perhaps he’s at a sensitive point in his monthly cycle.

Howard: Are you saying he’s **man-struating**?

Translation:

Sheldon: 也许他正处在每个月的敏感期。

Howard: 你是说他**大姨夫**来了（与 **menstruating** 同音）?

Literal translation: Are you saying that his Big Aunt’s husband is coming (same pronunciation with menstruating)?

(TBBT: S03E19)

Example 6:

Leonard: What would you be if you were attached to another object by an inclined plane wrapped helically around an axis?

Sheldon: **Screwed.**

Translation:

Leonard: 如果你被绑在一个围绕轴心成螺旋状的斜平面上的话 你的下场会是怎样?

Sheldon: **拧一块儿了（也有完蛋了的意思）。**

Literal translation: Twisted together (also means “screwed up”).

(TBBT: S04E05)

In example 5, “man-struating” is the keyword. It was made by Howard to jibe with Leonard. It was because Leonard had the regular monthly sensitive performance like a girl, according to Sheldon’s description. Howard made this word based on the word “menstruating”. For Chinese, “大姨妈” (Big Aunt) is a metaphor for girls’ menstruation. And then “大姨夫” (husband of the Big Aunt) is a fun way to tease a man about having menstrual problems. If the translator does not give the annotation, the whole soul of the humor that lies in this sentence will be lost. More importantly, the intention to use buzzwords to make it more enjoyable cannot be realized. As in example 6, the original text played a pun trick. Sheldon consulted Leonard about the issue with Amy because Leonard didn’t have a clue about the relationship and was rather scared about meeting Amy’s parents. Leonard tried to use the physical phenomenon to explain it to Sheldon because it was easier for him to understand. The word “screwed” can refer to the result of the physical phenomenon and can indicate the consequences of Sheldon that Leonard tried to describe. To let the target audiences understand and laugh,

using annotations is the best way.

2. Cultural Dimension

Cultural differences have always made translation very challenging. TTBT enjoys not only typical American culture, Indian culture but also some Indian and Jewish religious factors. The following examples can show how the translators used annotations and free translation to achieve adaptive selections and transformations in the cultural dimension.

Example 7:

Rajesh: I'm sorry. Where's the tumbleweed? Where's the saloons? This does not look like Texas.

Translation:

Rajesh: 等等，风浪草呢？小酒馆呢？这一点都不像德克萨斯（老电影中的德克萨斯州的常见的景象）。

(Literal translation: Hold on. Where's the tumbleweed? Where's the saloons? This does not look like Texas. (A familiar sight of Texas in old movies)

(TTBT: S03E01)

Example 8:

Rajesh: It's about to tell my parents that **I'm not riding an elephant down the aisle with Lalita Gupta.**

Translation:

Rajesh: 我要告诉我的父母，我是绝不会跟拉丽塔 古塔结婚的。

Literal translation: I am going to tell my parents that I will never get married with Gupta.

(TTBT: S01E03)

In example 7, Rajesh mentioned two images, "tumbleweed" and "saloon", and a place that is Texas. What is the connection between them? There is a huge blank of cultural background which leads to an obstacle in mutual understanding between the source of text and the target audiences. The translators add an extra explanation as "tumbleweed" and "saloon" appear quite often in old movies related to Texas. In this way, the audiences can understand with enough information. In example 8, the translators use the free translation approach to reach the conversion, translating "riding an elephant down the aisle" as "get married".

3. Communicative Dimension

In general, communication barriers would mainly occur in the following two situations: Firstly, apart from the literal meaning, the character wants to express another level of meaning which can achieve communicative purposes such as warning and sarcasm. Secondly, sometimes the dialogue is quite long and most obscure to understand with cultural connotations. The translators should simplify the original language, making it clear and concise, and then achieve the purposes of the communication. During the conversion in the communicative dimension, the translators chose the free translation approach as follows:

Example 9:

Leonard: Come on, you can leave if you want, but I'm gonna see it through.

(The guys are leaving)

Leonard: I guess, technically, **that was my fault.**

Translation:

Leonard: 好吧，如果你们想走就走吧，我要坚持到底。

（大家都准备离开）

Leonard: **其实本来就不该带你们来。**

Literal translation: I shouldn't have brought you here.

(TTBT: S02E13)

Example 10:

Sheldon: He didn't respond my e-mails, his phone number is unlisted. Tell me what my other option was.

Leonard: You could have waited until morning.... **I know, look who I'm talking to.**

Translation:

Sheldon: 他没回我邮件，我又不知道他的电话，那我还能怎么办。

Leonard: 你可以等到早上啊。.....对，对于你是不可能的。

Literal translation: You could have waited until morning.....oh, right, it's impossible for you.

(TTBT: S02E23)

In example 9, Leonard said that it was his fault but did not display what his fault was. If the translators translate it directly through a literal approach, it will not be very clear to the target audiences and will be inefficient for communication. The subtext of Leonard was that it was his fault for bringing the other four people there in the first place. Thus, the translators offer the entire meaning and tell the target audiences what is going on with the free translation. These adaptive selections help to reach functional communication.

In example 10, Sheldon was in urgent need of meeting Mr. President of the school, but he could not find him anyway. Therefore, he directly went to Mr. President's house at 3 a.m., which was crazy. The original text means "看,我在跟谁谈话". But it seems to be meaningless if it is translated literally. He was talking to Sheldon, and there was no need to ask

whom he was talking to. Hence, we believe that Leonard has other meanings. Leonard knows Sheldon very well and this is Sheldon who is quirky in his eyes and all his crazy behavior is understandable and predictable in Leonard's eyes. According to these above factors, the translators dig out Leonard's purposes and adopt the free translation approach to translating the meaning as "yes, it's impossible for you".

B. Inappropriate Selection

Dialect can be seen as the type of language that circulates in particular groups and has distinct regional characteristics. There are many dialect regions in China. The audiences of the region may have a common feeling without obstacles to understanding the translated subtitle with the dialect of the region where they come from. However, certain dialects are not universal, and they can cause dyslexia for people from other areas. There are some Chinese dialect words found in the subtitle translation of TBBT. But these uses of Chinese dialects are inappropriate, which can be seen as deficiencies.

Example 11:

Sheldon: But the truth is, Amy is just as **challenging**.

Penny: Just as challenging.

Penny: As you.

Translation:

Sheldon: 但事实上, 艾米也一样**龟毛**。

Literal translation: But the truth is, Amy is just as *Gui Mao* as you.

Penny: 一样**龟毛**。

Penny: 跟你一样。

(TBBT: S10E05)

Example 12:

Amy: I can't believe I ditched work for Disneyland.

Bernadette: What did you tell your boss?

Amy: Oh, I was very clever, **I did it in stages**.

Translation:

Amy: 真不敢相信, 我居然翘班去迪士尼。

Bernadette: 你怎么跟老板说的。

Amy: 我相当聪明, 一步一步**铺好喂**。

Literal translation: I was very clever. One step by one step *Pu Gen*.

(TBBT: S06E18)

In example 11, after Sheldon had a disagreement with Amy, people accused him of being difficult to live with. "龟毛" (*Gui Mao*) is a dialect of Minnan, Fujian province, China which has no common sense at all to people who speak Mandarin. It has three meanings. One is that someone's behavior is different from that of ordinary people, and it makes other people crazy; the second refers to that someone flinches from doing something; the third one means that somebody is particular in something. Even though it has something like the word "challenging" in this context, there will be a huge obstacle in understanding for most of the audiences. Furthermore, "龟毛" (*Gui Mao*) sometimes is used as a dirty word. Considering Sheldon is a rigid but famous scientist, it is out of his habit to use the word. This abuse of Chinese in Minnan dialect shows that the translators neglect the factor of the character's personality when doing the translation. Therefore, it is improper to use the dialect "龟毛" (*Gui Mao*) to translate the standard word "challenging".

In example 12, the context of the dialogue is easy to understand, and it is not necessary to use any dialect in the translation. In addition, "喂" (*Gen*) is a dialect in Tianjin, which means something is funny, and "铺喂" (*Pu Gen*) is only used in traditional cross talk, which means "to pave the way for the laughing point". The use of this dialect is an irrational choice.

C. Discussion

The analysis shows that the translators have adopted various translation techniques which include the applications of buzzwords, Chinese idioms, annotations, and free translation to implement "adaptive selection" in the linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions, resulting in the translation versions that can be seen as successful. In order to achieve a high quality of translation, the translators have paid lots of attention to linguistic, cultural, and communicative distentions and selected the optimal translation techniques.

Used in the translation process, buzzwords can take advantage of their enhanced expressions, resulting in the transmission of the information, and, at the same time, can achieve a certain sense of humor and approachability. However, in translation, a translator should also pay attention to the use of buzzwords in an effort to reach a balance so as not to go overboard.

It also finds that there are some inappropriate selections of translation techniques made by the *fansub groups* as the abuse of Chinese dialects can be identified in the subtitle translation of TBBT. The abuse of Chinese dialects can set up obstacles for audiences who do not know the dialects in understanding the translation. Unless the plot requires the application of the dialects to achieve certain effects, we should use the dialects carefully in the translation.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study presents an analysis of the American sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* from the perspective of Eco-translatology. To make translation more accurate and efficient, translators select various and flexible approaches to make the translation more adaptable. In the translation process of *The Big Bang Theory*'s subtitles, the translation techniques such as the applications of buzzwords, Chinese idioms, annotations, and free translation are adopted based on the three-dimensional transformation. Through adaptive selections, most of the translated versions successfully overcome language barriers, bridge cultural differences, and help the target audiences to appreciate the sitcom better. However, there is indeed some inappropriate selection made by the *fansub groups* shown in this study. The abuse of Chinese dialects fails to make the translation version meet the aim of bridging the language barrier. From the discussion above, we can see that Eco-translatology enjoys a high degree of explanatory power in subtitle translation.

In terms of limitation, this study does not talk about the translator's adaptation to the "eco-environment" and the examples are selected under the framework of "three dimensions" as planned. Although there are many limitations in this paper, it is still hoped that the present research can offer a reference for subtitle translation of American TV dramas on the internet and supplement a new perspective on subtitle translation studies. Moreover, more attention and valuable studies on Eco-translatology are expected to explore its further development.

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Scaffolding Instruction in Virtual Language Learning

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Abstract—In the digital age, language learning by way of Internet technology has been popular among learners and the traditional classroom teaching is being replaced by virtual learning due to the pandemic. The upcoming technologies presenting a number of challenges for language teachers are changing teaching and learning environment. The models of virtual language learning require learners to be more cooperative to construct their own learning pace. A new scaffolding instruction is booming in terms of language education to promote linguistic and academic development. Different from the traditional classroom education, it is necessary for instructors to provide scaffolds for the students to enter the situation, set up a support and explore the differences with independence. The effect of good scaffolding instruction can optimize the virtual language learning in such aspects as cooperative learning and quality control and facilitate the learners' development on critical thinking with the ultimate purpose of independent learning.

Index Terms—scaffolding instruction, virtual language learning, cooperative learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, delivering teaching through Internet technology has become a fashion, making the language learning engaging and fulfilling online. The traditional classroom teaching is being replaced by virtual learning due to the pandemic and the upcoming technologies are changing teaching and learning environment. However, when we look from the perspective of learning theory, it is desirable to note that the virtual language learning models require learners to be more cooperative to construct their own learning pace. This means there is an opportunity for instructors to construct a cooperative and learner-centred virtual learning environment.

In traditional classroom, information technology serves as a tool to assist and control language learning in a formal learning environment. In an informal learning environment, similar to virtual classroom, how to keep balance between facilitating learning and allowing learners to be independent will be an important topic to be discussed. Also, more importantly, the teaching strategy to be applied in virtual language learning should appeal to the learners' academic, emotional, and cognitive needs since the instructors are no longer dominating the learning process. There is an urgent need to adapt to this situation. In this paper, it is essential for teachers to adopt a new model of scaffolding to support virtual language learners pedagogically to achieve their potential, develop language knowledge deeply and also engage in academic activities actively.

II. SCAFFOLDING INSTRUCTION AS A NEW TEACHING STRATEGY

Language education is not only a matter of cognitive development but also an experience based on social development. Thus, classroom learning consists of the cognitive and the social process, which generally involves an interaction or an engagement with other language learners in a virtual environment. Many of these changes pose challenges to language instructors. The teaching strategies in a more user-centred way directly satisfy learners' needs and also the learning process appeals to the emotional needs of language learners, who feel isolated compared with face-to-face communication. In addition, the teaching strategy in virtual learning environment must meet the cognitive needs of learners by providing a learning environment that may relate to different learning styles and generally be more engaging. The application of scaffolding instruction as a new teaching strategy in virtual language learning environment raises issues about cooperation learning, quality control and how to facilitate the language development based on critical thinking with the ultimate purpose of independent learning.

A. Scaffolding Instruction in the Traditional Language Teaching

In his sociocultural theory, Lev Vygotsky defines his concept of "ZPD" as "The zone of proximal development", the

distance between what children can do by themselves and the next learning objective that they can achieve with competent assistance" (Vygotsky, 1978). Based on the concept, Bruner (1983) originated "scaffolding" as a teaching strategy, which refers to the more knowledgeable one provides scaffolds or supports to facilitate the other's learning process. In language learning, the scaffolding instruction serves as the role of teachers and others in supporting the learners to move forward the learning development to the next stage or level. According to Ruiz (2000), the scaffolding process is temporary. When the learner's competence reaches the next level, the scaffolds will be withdrawn and reduced. Therefore, new supports or scaffolds will be constructed as learners' abilities and competences increase during the next learning process. The role of the scaffolding instruction turns out to be supportive and the purpose of the scaffolding instruction aims on language learners' independent learning.

In classroom educational setting, such scaffolds as models, cues, prompts, hints, partial solutions, think-aloud modeling and direct instruction scaffolds may be adopted by instructors (Rubin, 1975). Language instructors make full use of the models of scaffolding to aid language learning and practising. In virtual learning process, a Scaffolding as a Teaching Strategy may be applied as the tools to prompt the students to complete the next step of the task in learning a language. Questions raised by instructors may also be used as scaffolds to help students solve a problem or fulfil a more difficult task. With the right response from the learners, language instructors may move forward with more complicated tasks for them to practise language with fluency and accuracy. If the learners fail to respond to this type of questioning scaffold, teachers may adopt the new scaffolding of vocal hints to suggest a new solution to the problem. Teachers should proceed with a more intrusive verbal prompt to remind the student that there is a rule. When the learners can complete the task without the instructors' vocal hints or develop his or her own language ability to deal with the problem, it is the high time that the teachers remove the scaffolding from language education classroom for them to solve the problem independently or proceed to the next advanced learning process with new scaffolding strategies.

A variety of factors such as the classroom setting, the teacher's facial expression, body language and even peers' eyesight contribute to the language production and application in the traditional language instruction. The verbal and non-verbal communication serves as a scaffolding teaching strategy in language input and output, which benefits the learners in developing their language competence and performance. Also, Scaffolding Instruction can play a great role in helping English beginners learn language points, grammar rules, and special cases with real-time response. The traditional classroom teaching of grammar is to directly present the knowledge of grammar rules to students, and students belong to passive acceptance of grammar knowledge. It is easy for students to forget or feel confused with the instant input. It is uncertain for instructors to monitor whether language learners memorize or understand grammar knowledge deeply. Consequently, it will take a lot of time for both teachers and students to strengthen the mastery of grammar knowledge, which triggers a negative learning attitude for learners. If the questions can not be solved in time, it is more likely to influence the learning process of grammar knowledge. Thus, the whole language learning and teaching process is passive and negative with more energy, time and efforts in the traditional models of language learning.

If we adopt the new model of Scaffolding Instruction in language teaching, we do not directly put the grammar rules on the table. First of all, teachers help students recall the grammar knowledge they have learned before and then move on to the new rules by reviewing the former knowledge they have mastered. For example, when learning the past tense, the students are required to talk about what they were doing yesterday or last week. When students do not formally learn the past continuous tense, they use their existing knowledge to express what is going on in the past. Students may not produce the grammatically correct answer, which is the need for teachers to provide support to students, such as reminding students of the wrong parts and guiding them to change their sentence patterns. It can also be practicable for students to provide supports for each other to answer questions and correct their expressions in a cooperative mode. After students have roughly mastered how to express what is happening at a specific time in the past in this new environment, it is natural for teachers to formally introduce new grammar. With the supportive learning evolving into independent learning, the scaffolding model disappears and continues to play a new role in the more advanced process of language instruction so that students will better learn new knowledge and achieve better learning results with the help of the previously provided support. During this instruction process, the knowledge learned before as a scaffolding model assist the presentation of the new grammar. Besides, both the teacher's support and the peer learners' cooperation work as the scaffolding instruction for the learners to reach the new stage of independent language learning.

B. Scaffolding Instruction in Virtual Language Learning

Virtual language learning is different from the above traditional classroom education, where educators and learners can interact with each other face to face. Similar to the process of traditional language learning, it is still necessary to provide scaffolds for the students to engage in cooperative learning in virtual language setting. In this type of online environment, students help each other in small groups but they still need some assistance. Even though it is helpful for instructors to utilize the scaffolding strategy to engage students in research work and online learning, learners may have more initiatives in cooperative learning. They are free to practise language and complete the language tasks in group work or pair work. In this context, the scaffolding of cooperation prompts organized and focused language learning for facilitating students' social-cultural cognition. Thus, it is assumed that the organizations and focuses are the unique components of scaffolding in this virtual classroom. The teachers are responsible for providing guidance and instructions in need but the learners themselves produce the final structure and accuracy through their independent

research. In a chapter on “Scaffolding for Success”, Jamie McKenzie (1999) provides a visual image analogy of how scaffolding works, “The workers cleaning the face of the Washington Monument do not confuse the scaffolding with the monument itself. The scaffolding is secondary. The building is primary.” Through scaffolding teaching, with the help of teachers, language learners can eliminate the difference, which exists in “the nearest development area” of the Scaffolding Instruction. In effect, the essence of scaffolding is to use the conceptual framework of basic knowledge as a scaffold in the learning process. The basic links of scaffolding teaching in virtual language learning can be divided into the following three aspects:

1) Enter the situation

Instructors guide learners into a certain situation for the problems and provide necessary tools to solve problems by introducing the preceding materials to remind them of the knowledge they are familiar with in previous language learning. This process may be questions, hints, videos or resources they search ahead of the class. The preparation step of the language materials may interest them and also be easy for them to comprehend in virtual class.

2) Set up a support

This is the second step in which teachers guide students to solve the language problems by exploring into the situations. Firstly, teachers should help set goals and provide directions for learners to figure out the learning schedule. Under the guidance of the teachers, the learners will not be distracted or confused with the increasing complexity of the problems. Secondly, teachers should focus on the current learning content and provide students with the conceptual framework needed, which should be placed in the “Recent Development Zone” of learners. If the conceptual framework is beyond the learners, it is meaningless for them to explore into the problems. Thus, the learners’ former language competence matters in the second step. Thirdly, teachers can guide the exploration of problem situations by making presentations, providing the prototypes of problem-solving and providing feedback for students during the process of problem-solving. Above all, the guidance of teachers should be gradually reduced with the enhancement of students’ ability to independent problem-solving.

3) Explore with independence

At this stage, students decide their own problems and directions, choose their own methods and explore independently. At this time, different students may explore different problems in virtual environments and they may make use of different language materials to achieve their learning objectives. It does not mean that teachers lose control of the learners. Instead, teachers need to continue to provide support for students, such as reminding students of the wrong parts and guiding them to change their learning directions or plans by monitoring and controlling the language assessment by providing the correct example. It can also be advocated that students provide supports for each other to answer questions and correct their expressions in a virtual cooperative mode. After learners have roughly mastered how to deal with the learning process smoothly and solve the problems successfully in this new environment, they will be active to go ahead with the next learning schedule. The Scaffolding Instruction will repeat from the first step simultaneously to the next advanced learning task.

To sum up, Scaffolding Instruction in a virtual language learning environment should provide a conceptual framework for learners to construct their understanding of knowledge. The concepts in this framework are needed to develop learners’ further understanding of problems. Therefore, complex learning tasks should be decomposed in advance into entering into the situation with their prior knowledge, setting up supports by decreasing the complexity of problems and guiding them to exploring into the tasks with independence in order to gradually deepen learners’ language understanding.

III. THE APPLICATION OF SCAFFOLDING INSTRUCTION IN VIRTUAL LANGUAGE LEARNING

The application of scaffolding instruction in virtual language learning differs from the traditional instruction in classroom. In virtual language teaching, it is hard to make a lot of cooperation between teacher-student or peers due to the different space. Also, much quality control appears to be more essential since it is desirable for the teachers to assess the achievements in learning a language. What’s more, language learners even ignore the significance of critical thinking in virtual learning environment. According to a research, Scaffolding Instruction is the effective approach to the dilemma with a lot of benefits. One of the primary benefits of scaffolding instruction in virtual language learning is that it engages the learner into the learning environment. They are not separated from the physical distance, which does not involve listening to information passively but prompting the learners to build on their new knowledge based on the prior research and cooperation. Also, this application of scaffolding instruction can provide a positive and effective assistance for those students who have low self-discipline and slow learning abilities, and can produce an accurate feedback for them to improve and speed their learning pace. Besides, the application of scaffolding instruction in virtual setting motivates the student to learn language in correspondence with their own schedule. What’s more, this type of instruction can minimize the level of frustration to satisfy their special needs if the learners refuse to participate in cooperative learning in virtual learning setting.

A. *Scaffolding Instruction in Cooperative Learning*

In virtual language learning environment, scaffolding instruction provides a variety of activities and tasks to assist verbal and non-verbal communication: 1) to motivate the learners’ interest; 2) to simplify the task to make it more

achievable; 3) to provide some direction to focus on the goal; 4) to indicate clearly the difference between learners' work and desirable objectives; 5) reduce frustration and boredom in language learning; 6) to guide and clearly instruct the completion of the activity to be performed (Bransford, 1999). Also, Rogoff (1995) summarizes six characteristics of scaffolding instruction as models, cues, prompts, hints, partial solutions, think-aloud modeling and direct instruction (Gibbons, 2002). In applying the six rules in language instruction, the scaffolds can be decreased or removed gradually when the learners develop their own language ability into be independent learners. In the next stage of learning, the instructors provide scaffolding by engaging the learners into virtual cooperative learning. Learners develop their language learning by peer-to-peer communication in small groups while the instructors' support happens only when necessary. Virtual cooperative learning provides a space for self-regulating and self-monitoring, which both facilitate the virtual learning effects.

In virtual learning environment, the key to successful cooperative learning depends on the instructors' clear direction to reduce their confusion and anticipate problems they may encounter in virtual environment. Scaffolds for cooperative learners must meet their expectation to complete the language tasks and help understand the learning purpose. The scaffolding instruction also provides support and clarity in cooperative language learning but the learners construct the learning process by group work. The scaffolding is secondary but the learning process is primary (Moll, 1990). When learners achieve the language competence, scaffolds must be removed step by step.

B. Scaffolding Instruction in Quality Control

In scaffolding instruction, educators may point out worthy sources to reduce confusion, frustration and time. The purposes of the scaffolding in virtual learning are to reduce learners' uncertainty, surprise and disappointment to eliminate difficulties in language and to motivate learning process. Pierce (1995) describes six roles of scaffolding instruction with two related to quality control. In language learning, scaffolding helps learners focus on tasks by providing structures and pathways for them to make decisions about which path to choose or what things to explore.

In virtual learning environment, learners can arrange their schedule and decide when to complete the designated task but they cannot wander off the path or ignore the directions. According to Donato (1994), instructors constantly monitor the learning process by distance control. Since expectations are clarified for the beginning of the learning activity, the assessment and feedback are displayed to the learners online, which boost learning process and help adjust the learning quality and efficiency.

The basis for all learning is quality control. The development of acquiring knowledge and learning ability is promoted by social interaction, which boosts the production of language. Consciousness, the notions of self and identity, physical skills and mental abilities originate in social interaction among instructors, learners, parents and children. It is supposed that human learning precedes a social nature when children grow into the intellectual life. (Vygotsky, 1978) Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice, on two levels, that is, the social level and the psychological level. The social level is the inter-psychological development for the language learners to control their learning process; while the psychological level motivates the learners to be more confident in terms of quality control, which turns out to be more intra-psychological. Both the social and psychological functions contribute to the language learning activities and facilitate quality control in virtual learning setting.

C. Scaffolding Instruction in Critical Thinking

The two different aspects of scaffolding instruction in critical thinking are the cultural function and the corresponding mental function. In the process of critical thinking, internalization is defined as a process of transformation, involving appropriation and reconstruction. It is comprehensible that language knowledge and learning ability derives from the learners' cultural activity, and consequently all learning is co-constructed in real life, and nothing is ever gained out of the society. For mental function, there is a role of applying scaffolding instruction in critical thinking, but more problems arise from the virtual language learning environment.

In peer-to-peer learning, scaffolding instruction tends to engage students more than formal instruction by a person in authority. For example, Second Life and other virtual reality multiplayer "games" are currently being explored by teachers as possible learning environments. Facebook provides an excellent space for collaborative group work between students. The popularity of Twitter, Blogs and Wikis provide a venue for self-publishing which, in turn, results in the sense of responsibility for producing information and acquiring knowledge aside from the mass media. This is also the new scaffolding resource in cultural and mental level, which leads to a specific learning of critical thinking in virtual language instruction. Therefore, Ruiz (2000) concludes that scaffolding instruction can help learners feel that their work is valued and can prepare them to be active contributors to a community of practice. Self-publication can also be used to encourage group or self-reflection. However, not all students are comfortable with self-publication. They may feel self-conscious about stating their opinion or fear of criticizing others. However, the setting up, monitoring and managing of these tools can be extremely time-consuming, and the constant evolution of these applications is in itself demanding.

In effect, individualized scaffold instruction is beneficial to language learners but it is the biggest disadvantage for the teacher since it is time-consuming to develop the supports and assistant lessons to meet the needs of each individual. Thus, it would be challenging for the instructors to design and implement the individualized scaffolds in a virtual classroom with a large number of students. For another, if the instructors are not properly trained, they may not apply

the appropriate scaffolding instruction and therefore they may not bring the scaffolding strategy into full play. Also, it is required that the instructors dispense with the authority over the learners to control and monitor the virtual classroom and allow them to make errors when necessary. It is hard for them to give up the traditional teaching models to adopt the new scaffolding instruction in virtual settings.

IV. CONCLUSION

As mentioned above, Scaffolding Instruction is a teaching model that helps learners understand specific knowledge and meaning by providing a set of appropriate conceptual framework. With the help of this conceptual framework, learners can explore and solve new problems independently and construct meaning independently. In virtual language learning, the autonomy in this framework is needed to develop learners' further understanding of problems in cooperative learning, quality control and critical thinking. That is, the framework should be established according to the "nearest development area" of their intelligence, so their intelligence can be continuously promoted from one level to another through the supporting role of this scaffold. The scaffolding strategy makes language teaching and learning proceed with the development of the independence. Thus, the process of virtual language learning turns out to be more learner-centered and competence-focused.

In conclusion, even if the use of scaffolding as a teaching strategy involves a lot of challenges to language instructors, the positive impact of scaffolding instruction on virtual language learning should not be ignored. The effect of good teaching, ahead of development, can optimize the virtual language learning. A number of scaffolding strategies and tools can be applied to provide rigorous, deep, and responsible education for students who need to develop their ability to learn a language conceptually, academically and linguistically. However, these technologies pose new challenges for the educators and raise issues about privacy and how to integrate them into the formal learning environment. They also set a benchmark that students use to judge the traditional learning environment. For virtual language learning, there will be still a long way to go.

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Unveiling Indonesian Pre-Service Teachers' Perceived Competencies and Readiness for Online English Language Teaching: A Mixed Methods Study

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Abstract—There has been a great deal of research into teacher readiness for online language teaching conducted in many parts of the world. However, scarce inquiry on this topic has been published in the Indonesian context. The purpose of this study was twofold: (1) to investigate Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers' perceptions of their technological, pedagogical, and evaluation skills in online language teaching, and (2) to explore their perceptions of online English language teaching. The study employed a mixed methods research approach. The quantitative data were collected using a questionnaire from 92 pre-service teachers majoring in English Education at a state Islamic institute in Jambi province and the qualitative data were collected through WhatsApp messenger from six of the participants. The data obtained through the questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive statistics and the qualitative data were analyzed using content analysis. The results showed that the participants had positive perceptions of their technological, pedagogical, and evaluation skills in online English language teaching. However, the qualitative data demonstrated that the participants had a strong inclination toward classroom face-to-face teaching rather than online teaching for a number of reasons, indicating that they were not ready for online English language teaching. Some practical suggestions for the EFL teacher training programs in Indonesian tertiary education institutions are given.

Index Terms—pre-service teachers, perceived competencies, readiness, online English language teaching, the Indonesian context

I. INTRODUCTION

The recent worldwide outbreak of Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19) means unprecedented changes in many aspects of life, including education. The need for social distancing has triggered educational institutions to change the basic way they work. Many schools, colleges, and universities have abruptly adopted online teaching in place of face-to-face classroom teaching. This sudden shift may cause ineptness for many teachers since they are not used to this modality of teaching. In Lamie's (2005) educational innovation classifications, this imposed shift constitutes a power-coercive unintentional innovation, a kind with one of the lowest possibilities of being successful. Coupled with the proliferation of the internet and computers, nevertheless, trends in online teaching and learning will likely continue. Relevant research highlights the demands and shortcomings of online teaching and learning. According to Koehler and Mishra (2005), online teaching entails an integrated knowledge of content, technology, and pedagogy beyond that anticipated by teachers who teach only face-to-face courses. Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, and Kim (2016) argued that online learning may be less effective than face-to-face classroom learning because students are less engaged. Although educators seem to recognize the prominence of ICT in schools, they continue to encounter problems during the process of embracing the technologies (Balanskat, Blamire, & Kefala, 2006). Many teachers do not know how to incorporate educational technology into their curriculum (Townsend, 2017) and have problems in finding suitable activities that can stimulate student interest and in marking student assignments (Todd, 2020).

Since online teaching demands different roles of the teacher, it inevitably prompts the need for new teaching approaches and competencies (Hampel & Stickler, 2005; Ko, & Rossen, 2017; Wray, Lowenthal, Bates, & Stevens, 2008). Online language teaching competencies are crucial since the focus is on instructional time and space, online management techniques, and the ability to involve learners through online communication (Easton, 2003) and, particularly at the lower level, there is a 'need to focus on the form of interaction as well as the content' (Hampel & Stickler, 2005, p. 312). The teacher is expected to become a facilitator (Frese, 2006; Jaffee, 2003) and is required to

have discussion and learning activity management skills to engage learners and ensure they are interacting adequately with the content (Frese, 2006). Thus, to engage effectively and critically in technology-associated teaching issues, it is essential to make clear the key competencies of language teachers (Chapelle & Hegelheimer, 2004).

Many studies have been conducted on the issue of teachers' readiness for online teaching. However, very few have investigated the readiness of pre-service teachers to teach online language teaching. Since pre-service teachers are prepared to face the reality of teaching in near future, understanding their readiness is important to identify directions that could increase the likelihood of successful online teaching. Moreover, the findings of this study could be used to put recommendations forward to teacher education institutions for better instruction. Therefore, the following research questions guide the present study: 1) What are Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers' perceptions of their technological, pedagogical, and evaluation competencies in online English language teaching? and 2) What are their perceptions of online English language teaching?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Online Teaching Competencies*

Researchers have attempted to define the competencies required for online teaching. Williams (2003) proposed a framework consisting of four general competencies; they are (1) communication and interaction, (2) management and administration, (3) technology, and (4) learning and instruction. The communication and interaction competencies consist of several general competencies such as collaboration/teamwork skills, interpersonal communicative skills, English proficiency, questioning skills, negotiation skills, etc. The management and administration competencies include, among others: organizational, planning, consulting, and personal organization skills, and knowledge of support services. The technological competencies include knowledge of basic technology, technology access, and multimedia and software skills. Lastly, the learning and instruction competencies consist of knowledge of the distance learning field and some other competencies such as feedback, facilitation (discussion), presentation, evaluation, and needs assessment skills (p. 51).

Concerning language courses, Hampel and Stickler (2005) identified seven key competencies that range from a lower level to higher-level skills a teacher should have. These include computer literacy, the ability to use specific software applications, understanding of the possibilities and constraints of specific applications, online socialization, communicative competence, creativity and choice, the ability to develop an individual teaching style, make the most of the media and materials, build a connection with the students, and use the resources creatively to foster active and communicative language learning. Compton (2009) proposed a framework that consists of three major sets of online teaching skills: a) technological; b) pedagogical; and c) evaluation. The technological skills are related to the knowledge and ability to handle hardware and software issues. The pedagogical skills have to do with the knowledge and ability to carry out and facilitate teaching and learning activities. Lastly, the evaluation skills refer to the analytical ability to assess the tasks and overall course and make necessary modifications to ensure language learning objectives are met. All these skills are organized into three levels of expertise: novice, proficient, and expert. According to Compton (2009), these levels are not absolute but rather a continuum of expertise.

B. *Previous Studies*

To date, many studies have been done to investigate teachers' readiness for online teaching. Downing and Dymont (2013), for example, conducted a study on teacher educators' readiness, preparation for, and perceptions of preparing pre-service teachers in an entirely online setting. The results revealed that the teachers regarded online teaching time-consuming, and those new to online teaching felt a lack of readiness to teach online and needed technical and pedagogical support as well as time-management strategies. Lichoro (2015) explored the experiences of Iowa Community College faculty members who shifted from the face-to-face classroom to online teaching. The findings showed that making the transition from face-face teaching to online instruction experience is considerably time-consuming and changes the faculty's role and teaching responsibilities. Most of the participants did not feel adequately ready for teaching online. Gay (2016) assessed online teacher e-learning readiness before, during, and after course delivery. The results indicated that online teachers urgently needed online help desk services. In a study with elementary and secondary teachers who were enrolled in the Pangasinan State University, Ventayan (2018) found that the teachers had a positive attitude and the majority of the respondents were ready for online teaching. Grimshaw, Cardoso, and Collins (2017) found that the majority of language teachers were open to engaging their students in mobile-assisted language learning, but they still worried about the drawback of the style of learning.

Dashtestani (2013) explored Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward the implementation of mobile-assisted language learning. The result demonstrated that although the teachers had positive attitudes toward the use of mobile phones for language learning and teaching, they faced a number of constraints such as low-speed internet connection, and students may not use their mobile phones for academic purposes. Todd (2020) investigated the perceptions of 52 English language teachers of the alteration from the classroom to online teaching at one Thai university. The findings showed that in the beginning, teachers rated many of the problems as serious, but they quickly found solutions. However, problems remained with identifying suitable stimulating activities and marking student assignments. Among the

benefits of online teaching mentioned by the participants were flexibility, independence, saving travel expenses, etc. On the other hand, the participants found difficulties in attaining some English language objectives and in evaluating student reactions.

Perifanou, Economides, and Tzafilkou (2021) investigated Greek teachers' perceptions of their digital skills for performing their teaching and professional duties during the Covid-19 pandemic. The findings showed that the teachers generally used digital tools for many educational purposes, including finding, evaluating, and developing resources, teaching, self-study, assessing students, and interacting as well as communicating with their students. On the other hand, they seldom used digital tools for some other teaching activities such as giving feedback and doing final evaluations of the students.

Although abundant studies related to online teaching have been undertaken around the world, scant research on this issue has been published in the Indonesian context (Hadiyanto, Mukminin, Makmur, Hidayat, & Failasofah, 2013; Champa, Rochsantiningsih, & Kristiana, 2019). Each of these studies had a different focus from the present study. Hadiyanto et al. (2013) examined the readiness of 47 English lecturers for internet use in English teaching and learning at the university level. Champa et al. (2019) investigated the factors of teachers' readiness to integrate ICT into their teaching. This gives the present study significant importance as it attempted to fill the gaps. It investigated the perceptions of Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers in terms of their technological, pedagogical, and evaluation competencies and explored their perceptions of online English language teaching.

III. METHOD

A. Research Design

To answer the research questions, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed in the present study. According to Ivankova, Creswell, and Stick (2006), when used in combination, the quantitative and qualitative methods enhance each other and allow the researcher to exploit the strengths of each and embark on a vigorous analysis of the data for more meaningful findings.

B. Participants

This study involved 92 pre-service teachers majoring in English Education at a state Islamic institute in Jambi province, Indonesia. The participants comprised 20 males and 72 females and were in the fourth or final year of their study. All 92 participants completed the questionnaire in the quantitative phase and 6 of them were selected for the qualitative phase of the study.

C. Research Instruments

In the quantitative part of the study, a questionnaire was used to collect the data on the pre-service teachers' perceptions of online language teaching competencies. The questionnaire was developed and adapted based on a framework for online language teaching skills proposed by Compton (2009). It consisted of 30 items focusing on three major sets of online language teaching competencies: technological skills, pedagogical skills, and evaluation skills. The technological skill section consists of 10 items focusing on teachers' knowledge and skills of technology in online language teaching. The pedagogical skill section comprises 14 items exploring teachers' knowledge and skills of pedagogy of online language teaching. The last section, evaluation, focuses on teachers' knowledge and ability in evaluating online language teaching. The respondents were asked to rate their answers on a five-point scale from 'very poor' to 'very good'. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured and found very high, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .97. The questionnaire was validated by three experts in the field of English language teaching. All of the validators have doctoral degrees in English language teaching. Before being used for the data collection, the questionnaire was tried out to two pre-service teachers to collect feedback about the wording of the questionnaire. According to Dörnyei (2010), a try-out of a questionnaire allows the researcher "to collect feedback about how the instrument works and whether it performs the job it has been designed for" (p. 53). The construct validity of the questionnaire was also established. The determination of the adequacy of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed through the analysis of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure and Bartlett's test. If the result of Bartlett's test is < 0.05 , factor analysis can be used. The KMO statistics range from 0 to 1, with values closer to 1 denoting greater adequacy of the factor analysis ($KMO \geq 0.6$ low adequacy, $KMO \geq 0.7$ medium adequacy, $KMO \geq 0.8$ high adequacy, $KMO \geq 0.9$ very high adequacy). The analysis showed that Bartlett's test score of the questionnaire was 0.00 with a KMO score of 0.85.

In the qualitative part, the data were collected using Whatsapp messenger. The 6 participants were asked several questions regarding their perceptions of online language teaching.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaire was distributed online using Microsoft forms. Before the administration of the questionnaire, the participants were informed that the outcomes of the study would provide a better understanding of their preparedness to teach English language courses online. They were requested to complete the questionnaire as honestly as they could. The participants were also informed that their identities would be kept confidential and anonymous. The students who

were chosen for the qualitative phase were contacted if they agreed to participate. To avoid miscommunication, both the questionnaire and interview questions were written in *Bahasa Indonesia*.

The questionnaire data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, in which the percentages of students' responses were calculated. The interview results were analyzed using content analysis.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Perceptions of Technological, Pedagogical, and Evaluation Skills

Table 1 presents the percentages of participants' responses related to their technological skills in online language teaching. As seen in the table, most of the responses congregate in the 'OK' and 'Good' categories of the scale. Specifically, there were 6 out of 10 items in the 'OK' category that were chosen by more than 40% of the participants, and 3 items were chosen by more than 40% of the participants in the 'Good' category. The first three skills rated the most by the participants in the 'OK' category include: 'understanding of the constraints and possibilities of different software' (51.09%), 'ability to deal with constraints and possibilities of different software' (51.09%), ability to identify features of different software' (46.74%), and 'creativity in using and adapting for online language learning tasks' (45.65%). In the 'Good' category, the skills include: 'ability to use a range of software' (43.48 %), 'ability to choose suitable technology to match online language learning task' (43.48%), and 'creativity in using and adapting for online language learning tasks' (41.30%). On the contrary, there were two skills rated by more than 40% in the 'Poor' category of the scale. They were: 'ability to create basic Web pages' (40.22%), and 'ability to construct interactive Web pages' (40.22%).

TABLE 1
PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR TECHNOLOGICAL SKILLS

Skills	Very poor (%)	Poor (%)	OK (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)
Your ability to use a range of software	0	7.61	42.39	43.48	6.52
Your ability to identify features of different software	0	18.48	46.74	31.52	3.26
Your understanding of the constraints and possibilities of different software	2.17	22.83	51.09	21.74	2.17
Your ability to choose suitable technology to match online language learning tasks	0	9.78	35.87	43.48	10.87
Your ability to deal with constraints and possibilities of different software	2.17	13.79	51.09	26.09	3.26
Your ability to create basic Web pages	14.13	40.22	32.61	11.96	1.09
Your ability to troubleshoot basic browser problems	7.61	34.78	38.04	17.39	2.17
Your creativity in using and adapting for online language learning tasks	1.09	3.26	45.65	41.30	8.70
Your ability to construct interactive Web pages	8.70	40.22	44.57	5.43	1.09
Your knowledge of basic programming language	10.87	34.78	38.04	15.22	1.09

Regarding pedagogical skills, it is evident that the majority of the participants had positive perceptions. As shown in Table 2 below, the participants' responses also clustered in the 'OK' and 'Good' categories of the scale. Specifically, there were 13 out of 14 items that were chosen by more than 40% of the participants in the 'OK' category and one item in the 'Good' category. The first six highest-rated items in the 'OK' category were:

- ability to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction (54.35%)
- ability to apply language learning theories for online language learning (50.00%)
- creativity in using and adapting materials to create new online language materials and tasks to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction (48.91%)
- knowledge of strategies for online language assessment (47.83%)
- creativity in facilitating online socialization and community building (47.83%)
- ability to do an intuitive and integrated assessment of language learning (47.83%)

TABLE 2
PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR PEDAGOGICAL SKILLS

Skills	Very poor (%)	Poor (%)	OK (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)
Your knowledge of strategies for online community building and socialization	7.61	18.48	43.48	25.00	5.43
Your knowledge of strategies to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction	6.52	22.83	39.13	27.17	4.35
Your knowledge of language learning theories for online language learning	1.09	11.96	45.65	34.78	6.52
Your knowledge of curriculum design framework for online language learning	5.43	21.74	41.30	28.26	3.26
Your knowledge of strategies for online language assessment	1.09	17.39	47.83	29.35	4.35
Your ability to foster online community and socialization	2.17	20.65	43.48	28.26	5.43
Your ability to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction	5.43	15.22	54.35	23.91	1.09
Your ability to choose suitable materials to match online language learning tasks	1.09	8.70	41.30	40.22	8.70
Your ability to apply language learning theories for online language learning	2.17	10.87	50.00	31.52	5.43
Your ability to apply curriculum design framework for online language learning	1.09	23.91	45.65	26.09	3.26
Your ability to assess language learning using different assessment methods	5.43	18.48	42.39	31.52	2.17
Your creativity in using and adapting materials to create new online language materials and tasks to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction	2.17	19.57	48.91	28.26	1.09
Your creativity in facilitating online socialization and community building	0	22.83	47.83	28.26	1.09
Your ability to do an intuitive and integrated assessment of language learning	3.26	22.83	47.83	25.00	1.09

Like in the two skills above, the majority of the participants' responses as regards their evaluation skills also clustered in the 'OK' and 'Good' categories of the scale. In the 'OK' category, all six items were chosen by more than 40% of the participants (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR EVALUATION SKILLS

Skills	Very poor (%)	Poor (%)	OK (%)	Good (%)	Very good (%)
Your basic knowledge of task evaluation	1.09	8.70	51.09	31.52	7.61
Your basic knowledge of course evaluation	2.17	22.83	44.57	28.26	2.17
Your ability to evaluate online language learning tasks based on one or more frameworks and to modify tasks accordingly	1.09	21.74	48.91	26.09	2.17
Your ability to evaluate online language courses based on one or more frameworks and to modify components accordingly	1.09	29.35	43.48	21.74	4.35
Your ability to do an intuitive and integrative evaluation of online language learning tasks based on one or more frameworks	1.09	27.17	45.65	23.91	2.17
Your ability to do an intuitive and integrated formative evaluation of online language courses	2.17	26.09	43.48	22.83	5.43

B. Perceptions of Online English Language Teaching

In the qualitative phase of the study, the participants were asked several questions to explore their perceptions of online English language teaching. The first question asked was which mode of teaching the participants would choose between classroom face-to-face teaching and online teaching. The results revealed that all the respondents preferred classroom face-to-face teaching to online teaching. When asked the reasons for the choice, R1 and R2 commented that with the classroom teaching, the teacher could explain the lesson more freely and the teaching and learning process could be more focused. R1 said:

Karena kalau mengajar di ruang kelas lebih leluasa untuk menjelaskan dan siswa bisa lebih faham dan fokus dalam mendengarkan materi dan juga bisa langsung mempraktekkan apa yg dipelajari. Sedangkan online, selain waktu yg terbatas.. dan signal yg kadang memburuk.. juga siswa sulit untuk mengerti karena kalau di online susah untuk menjelaskan materi secara spesifik.

(It is because classroom teaching allows the teacher to freely explain the lesson and the students could understand more and are concentrated to listen to the teacher talk, and they can also practice what they have just learned. Meanwhile, in online teaching, time is limited.. the network is sometimes bad.. Also, the students can hardly understand because the teacher cannot explain the lesson specifically).

For R3 and R5, classroom teaching is preferable because it allows direct interaction between the teacher and students. R3 commented, '*Karena dengan belajar di ruang kelas kita bisa berinteraksi langsung dengan siswa, kita juga bisa tau kemampuan siswa yang sebenarnya, dan siswa jadi lebih mudah mengerti saat belajar secara langsung di kelas*' (Because by learning in the classroom, we can interact person to person with the students, we can also know the true ability of the students, and the students can understand more easily through classroom learning). R5 added, '*... juga mempermudah guru dalam menyampaikan materi-materi pembelajaran dgn penggunaan media pembelajaran*' (...also, it is easier for the teacher to deliver learning materials using learning media).

For R4, classroom teaching is preferable because 'the teacher can easily control the students and apply preferred teaching strategies.' A similar comment was expressed by R6, saying, '*Lebih mudah menyampaikan materi... lebih mudah mengontrol siswa*' (It is easier to deliver the materials... it is easier to control the students).

The second interview question asked what constraints the respondents would face in online teaching. Almost all respondents agreed that a bad network is a major constraint they would find. Besides, some respondents believed that with online teaching it is difficult for the teacher to control the students and explain the materials in detail. R5 said:

Pada sistem belajar online ini akan sulit pemantauan siswa dan controlling saat proses belajar. Materi yang di sampaikan pun tidak bisa maksimal... sehingga murid akan sulit memahami materi pembelajaran dan biasanya akan sulit juga bagi siswa untuk mengerjakan tugas yg diberikan.

(In online teaching, it is difficult to monitor and control the students during the learning process. Also, the materials delivered are not maximal... so that it is difficult for students to understand the learning materials and usually it is also difficult for the students to do the tasks given).

Agreeing with R5's comments, R6 added that with online teaching it is difficult for the teacher to evaluate teaching and learning achievement and students' involvement, motoric skills, and attitudes. She said, '*... sulit mengevaluasi hasil KBM, sulitnya memberikan penilaian kepada siswa, seperti penilaian keaktifan, motorik, serta sikap*' (...difficult to evaluate teaching and learning attainment, and it is difficult to assess students' involvement, motoric skills, and attitudes). R3 related the constraints to unsupportive networks and surroundings. She said, '*...jaringan yang bisa saja kurang stabil, dan fokus yang bisa saja terganggu dengan keadaan sekitar*' (The network could be unstable, and the concentration could be bothered by the surrounding situation).

The third question was 'If you will have to teach online, what skills do you need to improve?' To this question, R2 responded that she needs to improve her knowledge of effective methods or strategies for online teaching. She said, '*[Saya perlu meningkatkan] skills dalam menentukan kesesuaian metode atau strategi yang digunakan saat mengajar online yang mudah dipahami oleh pelajar*' ([I need to improve my] skills in deciding methods or strategies suitable for online teaching that can make students understand easily). R4 needs to improve her teaching and learning management skills and online teaching strategies. She commented, '*Skill yang harus ditingkatkan berupa soft skill pengelolaan pembelajaran yang dapat menarik perhatian siswa baik berupa video dan animasi selain itu juga meningkatkan strategi pembelajaran maya seperti pembelajaran kelas nyata*' (The skills that need to improve are soft skills such as the teaching and learning management that can attract student attention either in forms of video or animation, and online learning strategies that resemble real classroom learning strategies). R5 and R6 agreed on improving skills on how to use technology for online teaching. In a different vein, R1 and R3 said that they need to improve their speaking skills. R1 said, '*Menurut saya yang harus di tingkat kan ialah.. di speaking skill. Karena ketika belajar online.. siswa lebih meminta dan mengharapkan pengajarnya untuk lebih menjelaskan secara detail/rinci tentang materi yg akan di pelajari, dan juga ketika berbicara/mengajar harus jelas apa yg disampaikan*' (In my opinion, the skill that needs to be improved is speaking skill. This is because when learning online, the students expect their teacher to explain the lesson in detail, and also the teacher has to be clear when speaking/delivering the materials).

V. DISCUSSION

The purposes of this study were to examine Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers' perceptions of their competencies for online language teaching and their perceptions of online language teaching. An important finding from the present study is that the majority of the participants had positive perceptions of their online language teaching competencies. As for the technological competencies, seven were rated 'OK' by more than 40% of the participants, and three were rated 'Good'. These results somewhat contradict the results achieved in Champa et al.'s (2019) study, in which the teachers are beginner users in their competence level to use ICT in their teaching. Technological skills are related to the technical competencies of the teacher (Varvel, 2007). These include knowledge about how to use the software, synchronous and asynchronous tools, operating systems, learning systems and tools, and Web browsers, and how to implement security updates, the ability to troubleshoot technology issues, and the ability to assist learners effectively (Varvel, 2007; Darabi, Sikorski, & Harvey, 2006), and the ability to create instructional websites and interactive learning environments (Young, 1997). The literature has highlighted that technological competencies have a strong impact on teacher readiness for online teaching. Findings of previous research demonstrated that the more familiar the teachers are with technology, such as a computer, internet, and media tools, the readier they are for teaching in an online environment.

On the contrary, there were two items in the technological aspects that were rated 'Poor' by more than 40% of the participants. The items were 'ability to construct interactive Web pages' (44.07%) and 'ability to create basic Web

pages' (40.68%). In Compton's (2009) online teaching skill framework, these two skills are at the 'expert' and 'proficient' levels respectively. The literature has highlighted that teachers' knowledge of innovation such as web technology is an essential factor in embracing new technology (Krishnakumar & Rajesh, 2011). Chapelle and Hegelheimer (2004) asserted that all 21st-century language teachers should be able to fix basic browser problems since almost all information will be retrieved through a browser boundary and have the expertise to create basic as well as interactive web pages.

Concerning the pedagogical aspects, among the highest-rated skills in the 'OK' and 'Good' categories by the participants were 'ability to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction' and 'creativity in using and adapting materials to create new online language materials and tasks to facilitate communicative competence and online interaction'. Goodyear, Salmon, Spector, Steeples, and Tickner (2001) emphasized the importance of teacher-student interaction and interpersonal communication in online courses. Teachers must be able to moderate, get involved in, and advance discussions to encourage student participation (Darabi et al., 2006) and they should employ various active, engaging, and effective communication techniques and formulate effective responses (Varvel, 2007).

A vast majority of the participants also rated their 'knowledge and ability to apply curriculum design framework for online language learning' as 'OK' and 'Good'. The knowledge and ability to apply the curriculum framework are important since learning a language online is different from learning a language in a traditional face-to-face context (Compton, 2009). This process entails planning instruction with course objectives, instructional strategies, activities, and assessments that are in line with the objectives (Varvel, 2007).

The results also showed that the participants had positive perceptions of their evaluation skills, in which the majority of the participants' responses also congregated in the 'OK' and 'Good' categories of the scale for all the six evaluation skills listed in the questionnaire. These results somewhat contradict the results achieved in Todd's (2020) study, in which the participants had problems with marking student assignments. According to Compton (2009), knowledge of online language learning tasks, software, and course evaluation is essential for online language teachers because a creative teacher would not be successful if "the learning tasks do not lead to the desired outcomes" (p. 85).

Despite the participants' positive perceptions of their competencies for online language teaching, the qualitative data showed that all the participants expressed their reluctance to teach online for a number of reasons such as unstable internet network, difficulties in delivering the materials, controlling and monitoring the students, as well as evaluating the learning process. Some of these perceived constraints were also revealed in several previous studies in different contexts of study (Todd, 2020; Dashtestani, 2013).

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was twofold: (1) to investigate Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers' perceptions of their technological, pedagogical, and evaluation skills in online language teaching, and (2) to explore their perceptions of online English language teaching. The results showed that the participants had positive perceptions of their online language teaching skills either in terms of technological, pedagogical, or evaluation competencies. The qualitative data however revealed that the participants would choose the face-to-face teaching rather than the online teaching format for a number of technical and classroom management issues.

Since the present study is rather narrow in scope, it is not likely to draw any perceptible conclusion for the field. However, the study has provided sufficient evidence to make several recommendations for further action. The EFL teacher training programs in Indonesian tertiary education institutions should provide training for pre-service teachers on online teaching, especially on pedagogical and evaluation skills. Besides training, pre-service teachers should be provided with first-hand experience of online language teaching, for example through the field teaching practice program, which is conducted online in place of face-to-face classroom teaching practice.

As with any research, the present study has some limitations. The first limitation is that the data were collected from only a small number of pre-service teachers doing the English major at an institution of higher education in Indonesia. The inclusion of more institutions from different geographical areas could increase the generalizability of the findings. Secondly, the data were collected only based on the participants' perceptions which were collected from pre-service teachers who had never had an experience of teaching English online. Collecting the data from the teachers who have already been involved in online language teaching could give more realistic results.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present study provides an understanding of Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers' perceptions of their technological, pedagogical, and evaluation skills in online language teaching, and their perceptions of online English language teaching. It is recommended that educational researchers continue researching issues related to this field. It would be particularly useful if future research considers the limitation of the present study. Future research should involve a larger number of participants and include in-service teachers who have already had experiences in online English language teaching to allow more generalizable findings.

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Letters of Childhood and Youth: Characteristics and Theory

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Abstract—The letter is a cultural and social phenomenon that is used to defy space and time that separate friends. Today, we use telephone, e-mail, fax, and many other means in order to communicate with our friends. But before the electronic age, letters were the main medium of communication for friends who were separated for whatever reasons. While being used as a way of communication in the past, today we read letters as texts for their cultural, historical, literary, and social values. This way of communication requires some attention for it will give us as readers a picture of social and cultural life of the period in question. Also it will provide researchers a solid background to explore the beginning of those great writers.

Index Terms—letters, childhood, communication, cultural, postmodern

I. INTRODUCTION

Letters of childhood and youth have some general characteristics. These characteristics might be found in other types of letters, but they are clearly noticeable in children's letters. One of these characteristics is spontaneity. The spontaneity in children's letters is due to the freedom that children find in the letterform, and the innocence they tend naturally to have. Their innocence leads them to write what they have in mind. Thus, writing letters at early age tells us about the development of children's literacy. We find grammatical and spelling mistakes. These mistakes show us what we are to expect from our children. If these and the like characteristics are clearly noticeable in children's writing to each other, then is it going to be the same characteristics when a child writes to an adult? And is there any difference when an adult writes a letter to a child? I will try to answer such questions, discuss the main characteristics of letters of childhood and youth, and theorize these letters in the light of postmodernism.

Decker (1998) argues, "to readers outside the epistolary exchange it [letter] becomes a document to be read for its various levels of biographical, historical, and literary interest" (p. 24-5). But because there is a great number of letters, we have to classify them. However, there is no way to classify letters on the basis of forms or structures because letters do not have specific forms. They might be classified on the basis of either the correspondents' type or the content of letters.

Writing letters is a genre that includes sub-genres, such as letters of childhood and youth, letters of business, letters of daily life and work, etc. Each sub-genre has its message, subject, and audience (reader). However, these sub-genres might intersect with each other. For example, we may find a letter of childhood with a daily life subject. What makes us determine, for example, that a letter is one of childhood and youth is that it is sent to a child or youth and/or written by a child or a youth. Selected letters by Emily Dickinson, John Keats, Margaret Fuller, Margaret M. Davidson, Susan Hale, and Celia Thaxter will be the focus of my discussion. The idea behind choosing this type of letters is that they reflect and represent the early beginning of a writer in the realm of literary writing. They show the importance of childhood in the life of a writer. In addition, the letters written by adult people, in case of Keats and Thaxter, to children show how they were aware of the world of childhood, and accordingly managed to deal with children's interests and tendencies.

II. DISCUSSION

The letter, a social contract of sorts, represents in its seemingly happy message the acceptance of responsibility and obligation between two human beings and with a larger society. It depends on reticence. Through what it withholds it creates an idealized image of a woman's life. It is a fiction. (Beauchamp, 1985, p. 40)

Usually subjects of children's interests discussed in letters of childhood are about school, learning, friends, homesickness, health, and things of mutual interest. When a child is separated from his/her friend(s), the first thing s/he thinks about is how to keep in touch with friends. Letters in general including those of children and youth are written to bridge the geographic spaces that separate people prior to the electronic age. Indeed, letters give friends a chance to know what is going on with the sender. Though the reason of probably all letters is the separation of friends, yet the idea of separation is embodied in the letters of children and youth in a clear and frank way. Going to or leaving a school caused separating Emily Dickinson from her brother and her friend Abiah Root. Austin was sent away to school. Emily herself left school many times for reasons of health. Some of her friends were girls sent to Amherst from other towns, particularly Jane Humphery and Abiah Root. Emily's earliest letters were written to her brother and to these two schoolgirls. Though she wrote these letters while being a child, yet these early letters showed how her mind and ability

to write were developing rapidly. Her letters even in early stage serve as experiments in literary style through which she can develop her literary status later in poems and letters. In her early letters, she finds a way to express her opinions to others. At the same time, she finds no constraints in the letterform that limit her ability of writing. She can write whatever she wants in whatever expressive way she thinks.

Going to school also gives Margaret Fuller a chance to write to her father. She writes to him about school and her teachers. Also, Susan Hale (1918) writes about school, "I am now fairly launched on the sea of education, or school" (p. 4). Such a statement shows us the literary ability that Hale as a child has. A reader will appreciate the use of "sea" in the previous sentence. It is right that education is some sort of sea with different depths, levels, kinds of valuable things, etc. Even John Keats wrote to his sister Fanny recommending Miss Taylor's essays in Rhyme for her to read. Hence, we see that the frequent subject of this genre is about learning and teaching —things relevant to children's interests. It is rarely to find a child's letter without reference to school, and learning. Since children are connected to some extent with school, then generally what separates friendly children is either leaving school or going to school. This separation causes the loss of the addressee.

The loss of a friend is a powerful force that pushes a correspondent to send a letter. The concept of loss develops in Dickinson's mind to become a complete and never-to-meet-again loss, i. e. death. Death becomes her main poetic theme. Losing a friend was a great loss to her. She writes to her brother, "We miss you very much indeed you cannot think how odd it seems without you there was always such a Hurrah wherever you was I miss My bedfellow very much" (Dickinson, 1958, L(etter) 1). She puts much emphasis on losing a relative or a friend. In her letter to Jane Humphery, she writes, "I miss you more and more every day, in my study in play at home indeed everywhere I miss my beloved Jane" (Dickinson, 1958, L 3). Also, her correspondence with Abiah shows how she misses her. Fuller (1988) expresses her loss of her father in counting the months: "And it is January, my dear sir, How the winter has flown. You have been gone two months." These are just examples. Indeed, the loss of a friend is what causes others to write in order to create a sort of epistolary dialogue with their addressees. Children who write letters realize such a loss because they are not used to such a loss of friends.

Space and time separate people from each other. Hence, they miss each other. Nowadays, we use telephone, e-mail and fax in order to overcome and defy space and time that separate us from our friends. But in the 19th c., letters were the medium of communication. The writers were aware of the geographical spaces that separate them from their friends and the long time their letters need to reach their readers. Their awareness is represented in the words that were used frequently in their letters, such as "write soon," "now," "here," "there," etc. The awareness of separation is accompanied by a sense of innocence in children's letters. A reader finds a lot of references to place and time in children's letters. Children use their correspondence in order to narrow the distance that is caused by geographical space that separates them from their friends.

Children are able to create an epistolary correspondence that keeps them in touch with their friends. Letters become a way of dialogue between correspondents. They request information and news, tell and comment on some other information. But we may need to know the other side of each correspondence in order to put each letter in its context. Sometimes a letter is an answer of a request or a question posed by the other side of the correspondence. There are other possibilities for writing a letter. This is why we describe this genre as multiauthorial, in the sense; the text is not a writerly text where one author controls everything. Children's letters contain a lot of information, and a reader may get lost if s/he has no clue to follow in both correspondents' letters. In other words, letters as genre are readerly texts. What the sender does is what s/he expects the addressee to share. Hence, codes might be used. Questions and requests are to be answered by the addressee. These ideas work with reader response theory where the reader is the one who can determine the meaning of the text. As an example, let us have the following excerpt where Dickinson (1958) writes to Abiah, a friend of the same age,

I am not unconcerned Dear A. upon the all important subject, to which you have so frequently & so affectionately called my attention in your letters. But I feel that I have not yet made my peace with God. I am still a s(tran)ger —to the delightful emotions which fill your heart. [L(etter) 13]

In the above quotation, Dickinson writes as if she were talking with Abiah telling her own standpoint towards the issue of belief in God. She uses "you" and "your" as if she were talking to Abiah in person. On the other hand, she affirms her subjectivity through using the pronoun "I" four times and the pronoun "my" twice in the previous short excerpt. This emphasis on her subjectivity shows how a young girl insists on conveying her opinion to others, particularly when they are of the same age. One finds it easier to express him/herself freely and easily when s/he talks to someone of the same age. On the other hand, if we look at Fuller's letter to her father, we find that she affirms her opinion by using the first-person pronoun many times. She writes, "I am sorry my dear sir you write to me seldom. Has your affection decreased? I fear it has; I have often pained you but I hope you still love me . . ." (Fuller, 1988). These are examples. Indeed, letters of children are full of singular first-person pronoun. The best way to express one's own opinion is to use this pronoun.

Children create their epistolary dialogue in order to express themselves to other friends. To create this self-expressive dialogue, a writer keeps reminding the addressee to write back as soon as s/he can. The addresser may pose some questions, e.g. Dickinson (1958) writes to Jane, "How do you get along in Latin" (L 3). This question shows us how children are curious about learning different skills. In another occasion, she asks her brother, "Do you know of any

nation about to besiege South Hadley" (L 16)? Such a question pops up not out of ignorance but out of trying to engage her addressee in an epistolary dialogue. It is a childlike way to get others involved in what is going on. At that time both correspondents know what is going on between them, but we, as readers of another era, need margins and notes in order to understand some phrases and ideas. For the previous quotation, we need notes about the war and the besiege she refers to in her letter. When names are mentioned in a letter, we need notes to know these people. For example, in her 1848 letter to Alexander Hale, Susan refers to Fullum, but she did not tell that he was a servant. Thus, we need to put these letters in their cultural, historical, and social context in order to decode them because these letters are read now not for the purpose of communication but for their aesthetic and literary values.

In the past, these letters were used mainly for the purpose of communication between a writer and a particular audience (reader). For example, Davidson (1851) tries to create a way of epistolary communication when she writes to a female friend, "I will endeavour to answer your question about Mrs. Hemans" (p. 63). Keats (1925), on the other hand, asks his sister, "Do write me a Letter directed to *Inverness*. Scotland." Thaxter (1895) also engages her reader in a semi-dialogue through posing questions such as: "Wasn't that cruel? Think of little Anson exposed to such a dreadful storm!" (p. 18). Raising questions and requesting a lot of information at the same time are a childlike issue because it is the child who tries to explore and learn about everything at once. The adult, by contrast, asks questions but within his/her limits and focus. In other words, the child is not aware of his/her shortcomings as far as information is concerned. So s/he asks about and for whatever s/he wants to know and to have. And this is what is found in children's letters. I think that both Keats and Thaxter are successful when they put in their letters what children wanted to hear; both relate narratives and pose questions in order to engage their addressees in an epistolary dialogue. This is what a reader expects when an adult writes a letter to a child.

A child needs to hear some stories mixed with questions to get him/her engaged in the narrative in question. Thaxter tells a narrative of a family's disaster. Keats relates his journeys to Liverpool and Oxford. These writers have put in their letters to children what children as readers expect to find in these letters. Adult writers usually think in their audience. The audience affects the content and subject choice of the letter. A letter reflects a writer's position and opinions and at the same time should be of great interest and amusement to the reader. This is what happens when Keats writes a letter to Fanny. His letter reflects his interest in poetry for he inserts a ballad and a song in his letter. At the same time, he tries to amuse Fanny through relating his journey to her and filling his letter with a variety of genres: a narrative, a ballad, and a song. Decker (1998) quotes from Adams, "They [letters] are written only on the chance that they may give you [as an original reader] half an hour's amusement" (p. 18). As I mentioned above, Keats (1925) in the 1817 letter wants to "adapt my Scribblings to your pleasure." To children, stories are a kind of amusement. Keats uses the method of narrative to tell his sister his story. Thaxter also relates a narrative of a travelling family in a letter to Nanny Hoxie. A narrative usually contains a plot, characters, a beginning, middle, and an end. This is a good teaching method to present other genres to children. Adult writers might also suggest things in their letters to children like reading a book or doing something. For example, Keats recommends reading a rhyme book to his sister.

By comparison, when a child writes a letter to an adult, the child tends to comfort the adult and tells him/her that everything is going on well. Also the letter usually reflects the strength of relation between the correspondents. Margaret Fuller writes to her father about what has happened to her. Her letters show her strong relation with her father; many times she calls him, "my dear father." Her relation with her father is strong enough that she dares to ask him to "bring me home a complete case of jewels or something equal to it . . ." and to tell him her inner feeling, "I am sorry my dear sir you write to me so seldom. Has your affection decreased?" (Fuller, 1988).

Though the children use the letters as a medium of communication to express themselves and convey their opinions to their addressees, yet these children become aware of the limits and shortcomings of this way of communication. So we see them insist in their letters on meeting their addressees and exchanging news in person. Insisting on meeting is a clear characteristic in children's letters. Dickinson (1958) writes to Jane, "I want to see you very much for I have got a great deal to tell you about school matters" (L 3). When one reads such a sentence, s/he feels that neither paper nor ink can fit what she wants to talk about. Fuller (1988) writes, "I have a thousand things to say but neither time or paper to say them in." However, Davidson (1851) realizes the limits of using letters as a communicative way: "You say the effects of conveying feelings from the heart and recording them upon papers seems to deprive them of half this warmth and ardour" (p. 63). Thus, she pleads, "Oh how I long to have you here and tell you all the little things in person" (p. 85). Meeting in person is something great for children because they get used to it. On the contrary, adults get used to separation and travel. Hence, their insistence on meeting is less than that of children.

I talked about separation of a friend and the need of meeting but what about leaving home where one has lived his/her early life? When a child goes for the first time out of home, the main thing to think of will become home. For children, home becomes a symbol of the early life, of the past to which the child belongs. Dickinson (1958) writes to Abiah, "I was very homesick for a few days & it seems to me I could not live here" (L 18). Davidson (1851) does "long to revisit the home of my infancy, and the friends of my earliest remembrance" (p. 64), and on the same page and in the same letter, she adds, "yet with all these advantages, it [New York] can never possess half the charms of my dear old home." For her, home could not be compared with any other place. It is the home that does "possess" "the charms." Indeed, letters enhance children's ability to express themselves in writing towards issues in question. Due to their innocent childhood, children tend to feel free to express themselves and say whatever they want to say. There is no

doubt that any writer will embody ever unconsciously his/her inner feelings and attitudes towards things of personal interests, yet children write without any reservations. At the early age, one writes spontaneously and feels free from any barriers and restrictions. But whenever one gets old, s/he starts to pay attention to what is written. Thus, a part of truth may be disclosed out of reticence. Following the children's literary development helps us to understand their writings when they get older because at the early stage, they write without reservation and reticence. Indeed, a lot of information is usually found in one's early writings.

Letters of children are informative. A lot of information is put on the page and sometimes in the same paragraph. There are a lot of questions posed in letters. Having fragments of ideas, information, and questions --and in some cases drawings, as it is the case with Hale's letters-- put together raises the issue of theorizing such letters in the light of postmodern theory. For example, Dickinson (1958) writes to her brother,

We are all very well and hope you are the same-- we have very pleasant weather now Mr Whipple has come and we expect Miss Humphrey tomorrow --Aunt Montague--has been saying you would cry before the week was out Cousin Zebina had a fit the other day and bit his tongue into --as you say it is a rainy day . . . (L 1).

Dickinson (1958) here writes whatever idea comes through her mind. It is the way children think and use to do. At a sudden, changes and mixing ideas may happen. The younger the child is the better what comes in mind is expressed spontaneously and freely. At ten, Fuller (1988) writes to her father,

You will let me read Zeluco? will you not and no conditions. Have you been to the theatre this winter? Have they any oratorios at Washington? --I am writing a new tale called the young satirist. You must expect the remainder of this page to be filled with a series of unconnected intelligence.

A lot of information and ideas are put together. We do not expect this way of writing from an adult. However, the addressees are supposed to be familiar with shifting from one topic into another as long as the sender is a child. What is written does usually have something to do with the reader's interests and expectations. Dickinson (1958) writes to Austin, "the chicken grow very fast" (L 1), and she tells Abiah about "how I have spent the time here [at school]" (L 13).

Children's letters tell us not only about what is going on between the correspondents but also about how they start writing. For example, Dickinson's writings even in the early stages promise a great writer. There is a sense of fluent, simple and expressive style in her early letters. See how she expresses her loss of Abiah in a poetic way,

Slowly, very slowly, I came to the conclusion that you had forgotten me, & I tried hard to forget you, but your image still haunts me, and tantalizes me with fond recollections . . . tell me what had sealed your lips toward me? Did my letter never reach you, or did you coolly decide to love me, & write to me no more? . . . but if you dont want to be my friend any longer, say so, & I'll try *once* more to blot you from my memory. (Dickinson, 1958, L 26)

She uses "slowly" as if there is a movement, then "image" and "haunts" as if the situation is not real; there is some sort of apparition. She personifies the past memory as something tantalizing. Creating such an image in her writing reflects her early literary tendency. She does not want this image. She wants a real thing: "I long to see you [Abiah] once more, to clasp you in my arms & to tell you of many things which have transpired since we parted" (L 13). Above all, Dickinson tries to find an excuse for Abiah as a trial to convince her to write back. Dickinson is creating a dialogue with her own conscience; she is talking on behalf of Abiah as if Abiah had forgotten to keep the contact with her. Everything goes through her imagination. It is through imagination that a writer can create a literary work.

In addition to reflecting an earlier literary development, letter writing tells us of the writer's psychological side. Understanding the writer's psychology at early age will give us as readers a chance to know the factors that affect his/her life and that have something to do with his/her future literary themes and interests. For example, Dickinson's writings show how she loves solitude. She writes to her brother, "Almost all the girls went & I enjoyed the solitude finely" (Dickinson, 1958, L 16). Davidson (1851), by contrast, is social; she hates to be alone: "I will only say, one does not like to be alone" (p. 66). But it is her weak lungs that deny her "the free enjoyment of nature" (p. 84). Thus, it is through the surviving letters that we learn about writers' tendencies that affect their literary future.

Besides learning about a writer's interest and psychology from his/her early writings, children's letters are taken as autobiographical documents in the sense that they describe what has happened to the writers in each situation. Hale (1918) writes, "I began this afternoon to take drawing lessons" (p. 1). Fuller (1988) writes, "I attend a school which is kept by Aunt Abigail." Of course, we learn when Hale starts drawing lessons, and the person who taught Fuller from the date of the letters that include these quotations. Having autobiographies in the form of letters gives us a chance to study the psychological and social background of the writer's era. This kind of study helps us to reconstruct the past by looking at each writer's writings and trying to theorize them. For example, if the writer is a female, then we can look at her early writings from a feminist point of view and try to learn how she resists the male domination from the very beginning.

III. CONCLUSION

In a nutshell, we read letters of childhood and youth as printed texts. Hence, reading these letters requires, as Decker (1998) points out, "acts of imagination and empathy" (p. 4). He adds that these letters reveal and express "a sense of

space and time different from our own" (p. 4). As an unintended audience, we are to place these letters in their context in order to understand and explore them. We have to realize that these letters are multiauthorial. Even when correspondents are children, there are many phrases and words that need some margins and notes in order to be understood by the contemporary reader. These letters are different in their cultural, historical, and social context from ours.

Letters of childhood and youth represent a sub-genre that has its clearly noticeable characteristics. Such a sub-genre is related to children's interests and tendencies. It deals with childlike subjects such as school, learning, homesickness, health, etc. In children's letters, one finds spontaneity that is clearly noticed. Children become free to express themselves in whatever way they like because there is no specific letter form that limits and restraints the way of their writings. Their letters reflect their opinions, show their literary development, and help us to understand the writers and study them culturally, historically, and socially. However, we find in children's letters a lot of questions and a variety of information. Since each letter contains fragments of ideas, information, different genres, etc., then we can look at these letters from a postmodern point of view. Children can express themselves in letters because there are no boundaries that limit their ability of writing.

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Exploring Indonesian EFL Writing Students' Differences in Motivation: A Language Learning Journey to Success

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Abstract—Every language learner has various dreams and purposes in learning a language. Different motivations are also commonly found among EFL learners. This study reveals the motivations of 33 English language learners from Indonesia. They were all writing students of an English Language Education Program (ELEP) in a private university in Central Java, Indonesia. The classes they attended were Procedural Writing (14 students from the 2020 class year), Research Report Writing (10 students from the 2017 class year), and Research Proposal (9 students from the 2018 class year). Data were derived through questionnaires and interviews. The first finding was that 87.88% of the respondents were intrinsically motivated. However, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation might be a big drive leading to students' success. The second discovery was that 81.82% of the students were instrumentally rather than integratively motivated. Instrumental motivation could also be a big initiative for students to learn a language. Next, students' ideals or dreams became the motivating factor that most students had. The last outcome was that students' habit of delaying doing assignments, having too many assignments, and being lazy were the three major demotivating factors. This study will hopefully be useful for writing lecturers to give them more insights into and a better understanding of their students' motivational backgrounds.

Index Terms—motivations, language learning, success

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1985, Kachru proposed a model of the three circles of English. They are the inner circle, outer circle, and expanding circle (Valpa, 2020). Living in the expanding circle in which English is not the first nor the second language, many learners in Indonesia lack exposure to this international language. The case is different from the counterparts living in the inner or outer circle. They get a lot of exposure and inputs every day. The expanding circle included more than 750 million speakers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in 1997. This number is far from the speakers of the inner and outer circles, that is, 375 million people each (UKessays, 2018). There is a gap between the ideal, dreamed situation and the reality for the learners in the expanding circle. It is many people's dream to be able to have good competence in English. However, in reality, many things become obstacles for English language learners. One of the problems is motivation.

Motivation is a never-ending topic to be discussed and researched. Numerous studies have been done to explore the sources and factors influencing motivation, causes of loss of motivation, types of motivation, and many other aspects related to this continuous topic under discussion. Much attention has also been given to learners' motivation in second or foreign language learning. Various topics related to language learning motivation have been explored.

Many researchers have also connected motivation to the idea of self-concepts like self-image, self-confidence, self-esteem, and some other related notions. There are many great experts in the study of motivation, namely Ellis, Deci and Ryan, Gardner, and Dörnyei, all of whose theories complement one another. Ellis, one of the leading figures in the study of motivation, mentioned that motivation is the extent to which language learners strive to acquire a second or foreign language. Motivation results from the learners' need or desire to learn the language (Ellis, 1994, in Mahadi & Jafari, 2012).

Other great figures in motivation are Deci and Ryan. They were the founding fathers of SDT (the Self-Determination Theory). They mentioned that SDT is an approach dealing with human motivation and personality. This theory uses traditional empirical methods. Besides that, this theory employs an "organismic meta-theory". It emphasizes the importance of people's intrinsic resources. These resources grow for human personality development and the behavior's self-regulation (Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997, in Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68). Thus, it is very close to the investigation of human fundamental growth and natural psychological needs. These needs become the base for self-motivation, integration of personality, also for the situations that support positive processes.

Another famous figure, Gardner (2001), as cited in Lai (2013), stated that basically, motivation includes three aspects. They are an effort to learn the language, desire to reach a goal, and positive effect to enjoy the language learning tasks. Dörnyei (1994) asserted that motivation is one of the main determining factors in SLA or FLA (second or foreign language learning). In the last three decades, there has been a lot of research investigating the nature and role of

motivation in the process of second language learning. Motivation, as mentioned by Dörnyei (1994), grows uniquely and dynamically. Motivation is essential to gain success in areas where prolonged learning takes place.

Dörnyei (1998, in Nikoopour, Salimian, Salimian, & Farsani, 2012), emphasized further the importance of motivation. He stated that not only does motivation act as a trigger to initiate language learning, but it can also compensate for some learners' weaknesses like a lack of aptitude. Dörnyei (1994) also added that motivation is one of the main determining factors for the success and achievement of second or foreign language learning.

Motivation is indeed a never-ending topic that is always interesting to be discussed and explored. It is one of the determining factors of the success of second and foreign language learners. Without motivation, language learning may not be successful. Looking at the need to research this area, the researcher thus initiated this study. This study focuses on the motivation that EFL learners in Indonesia, which is positioned in the expanding circle, have in terms of writing. Since the researcher was teaching several kinds of writing classes, this research was thus conducted in three different writing courses that the researcher taught in Semester II of the 2020-2021 academic year.

Three research questions are addressed in this study: (1) *What kind of motivation do these writing students have?* (2) *What are the reasons behind their motivations?* And (3) *Are there any factors that demotivate these students?* The participants of this study were thirty-three students of different writing classes: Procedural Writing, Proposal Writing, and Thesis Report Writing. The purpose of this study is thus to describe those EFL writing learners' motivation in their language-learning journey. This study will hopefully be useful to give insights for writing lecturers about different students' motivations. Other than that, this study is hopefully useful for research in the area of SLA, in which motivation is learned as one of the individual learner differences.

A. *What Is Motivation?*

"Motivation" comes from the Latin word, *movere*. It means "to move" (Sabet, Tahriri, & Haghi, 2014, citing from Hindi & Boscolo, 2007). In terms of writing, for example, when we say that writers are motivated to write, it means they are motivated to write. Furthermore, these writers try hard through their writing to stimulate the readers or audience. Previous research depicted a significant connection between motivation and students' performance. Sabet, Tahriri, and Haghi (2014) also claimed that writing is a multifaceted activity. It necessitates methodical attention to the motivational conditions (Bruning & Horn, 2000).

Tulgar (2018) also pointed out that for language learning success, there are two important keys. The first one is the significance of having the desire to learn a new language. The second is keeping a positive attitude towards the target language. Citing from Gardner (1985), Tulgar (2018) further explained that motivation is the combination of efforts and desire to achieve language-learning goals. Besides that, there should be a positive attitude toward language learning. Considering the process of language learning from the beginning to the end, Dörnyei (1998, in Tulgar, 2018), defined language-learning motivation as the primary push to start L2 learning. Later on, the motivation will become a powerful force to support the long and arduous learning process. Dörnyei (1998, in Sabet, Tahriri, & Haghi, 2014), further explained that even individuals with remarkable abilities will not be able to accomplish the long-term goals of language learning if they do not have sufficient motivation. This is one of the primary dynamics in language learning success. In foreign language classrooms, there are some effective ways to increase students' motivation. Building up group cohesiveness and having good learning experiences are two of them. The effects of group harmony can be particularly strong in language classes (Dörnyei, 1997, p. 485, in Ning & Hornby, 2014).

B. *The Elements of Motivation*

Gardner (1985 & 2010), in Wallace and Leong (2020), revealed that three aspects are found in learning motivation. These include the need to attain a learning goal, the attitude sustained in pursuing the goal, and the efforts put forth in realizing it. Highly motivated learners will generally depict a resilient need and a positive attitude to reach their desired learning goals. They will make an effort to achieve their goals. On the other hand, low-motivated learners possess a lack of need to learn. They also demonstrate negative attitudes toward the material. Furthermore, they display little effort in accomplishing their goals.

Wallace and Leong (2020) further claimed that the following elements are needed to stay motivated: an effort, a positive attitude, a desire, and a goal. If one of these components is absent, it may depict a lack of motivation. If a learner strives to be a proficient language user but does not make a concerted effort, the learner will not be able to achieve one's goal. Therefore, the learner can be classified as being unmotivated.

C. *The Types of Motivation*

Therefore, it is obvious that language learners are affected by internal and external motivational factors. Some of the internal factors may be interested in the topic being studied, its supposed value, and students' attitudes toward the material. External factors which influence students' motivation are the social support for learning that is given by parents, teachers, and peers, and their opinions of the formal learning context (Williams & Burden, 1997, in Wallace & Leong, 2020). Internal traits are frequently displayed as separate constructs that affect motivation. Thus, they are deemed intertwined with the learner's learning context (Waninge, Dörnyei, & de Bot, 2014).

In language learning, the theories of motivation came to light as a field of socio-educational research between 1960 and 1990. Gardner (1985, in Bower, 2019), defined integrative motive, which consists of three variables. These

variables include *integrativeness*, *attitudes* towards the learning situation, and the last one is *motivation*. Gardner claimed that a motivated learner will show 'efforts, desires, and affect' (Gardner, 2001, p. 13). *Affect* refers to a positive emotional outcome, like interest, pleasure, or enjoyment. Still, regarding intrinsic motivation, Bower (2019) believed that positive aspects drive intrinsic motivation. This is considered to be more influential in supporting efforts than extrinsic motivation. External and instrumental rewards like the need to pass an examination, for instance, create extrinsic motivation.

Gardner also proposed the idea that to learn a second language, a learner needs to be attracted to the target language culture and to the people who speak the language (Gardner 2001; Gardner & Lambert, 1972, in Bower, 2019). Ning and Hornby (2014) further stated that intrinsic motivation is the most self-determined and autonomous. It involves doing an activity due to the pleasure and satisfaction of the activity rather than because of rewards from external factors. EFL intrinsic motivation also involves the contentment of learning English for its own sake rather than because of the outcomes or results (Ning & Hornby (2014), citing from Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001; Noels et al., 2000; Slavin, 2000; Sears & Pai, 2013).

D. SDT (Self-Determination Theory)

Regarding language learning motives, Wallace and Leong (2020) asserted that these motives can also be categorized based on the *self-determination theory* (Ryan & Deci, 2020). This implies that learning motivation may be spurred by intrinsic or extrinsic motives. Learners who study for extrinsic reasons seek rewards, for instance, getting a good test score, receiving a reward from their parents, or avoiding punishment like scoring poorly on a test and getting scolded by their parents.

On the other hand, learners who are intrinsically motivated want to study to gain satisfaction from the act of studying itself. These learners appreciate the novelty and challenges of learning a language. They also seek out opportunities to expand their linguistic competence to improve their abilities as foreign language users (Dincer & Yesilyurt, 2017, in Wallace & Leong, 2020). Between the two kinds of motivation, those who are intrinsically motivated tend to display greater perseverance in their language studies. They also will stay on the path if they encounter any obstacles. This is because they enjoy being engaged in learning the language (Wallace & Leong, 2020, citing from Dailey, 2009).

E. The Effects of Motivation on Language Learning

Dealing with the forceful effects of motivation on learning, research mainly refers to two sets of motivation types. They are intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation, and integrative versus instrumental motivation. Intrinsic motivation can simply be described as the internal desire to learn new things. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is the external force that directs learners in studying a language (Dörnyei, 1994, in Tulgar, 2018).

In the context of language learning, Tulgar (2018) also stated that motivation is highly related to learners' perceptions of the target language, its culture, and its speakers. Regarding this, Gardner and Lambert (1972), in Tulgar (2018), proposed a *socio-educational* model. Integrative and instrumental motivations are introduced in this model. This *socio-educational* model can be considered as the first model that gives great attention to the motivational effects of social and cultural settings on learning. In addition, in this *socio-educational* model, integrative motivation, just like internal motivation, is closely related to the learners' personal interest in as well as their attitudes towards the target language and community. Integrative motivation is about one's personal interest, longing for, and perseverance in learning (Tulgar, 2018, citing from Horwitz, 1987).

In contrast, instrumental motivation, like external motivation, is more affected by outside factors like receiving a high score on a test or acquiring a good job. Instrumental motivation deals more with the applied or pragmatic advantages that may be gained from the learning process (Tulgar, 2018, citing from Locastro, 2001). Juvonen and Wentzel (1996, as cited in Sabet, Tahriri, & Haghi, 2014), asserted that recent studies show learners' social motivations impact their academic performance. Various researchers have examined the motivation of students towards their performance in learning different language aspects. Schmidt (1993, as cited in Sabet, Tahriri, & Haghi, 2014), also postulated that motivated students will focus more on language input than those who are less motivated.

Amjadiparvar and Zarrin (2019) also found a significant and positive correlation between EFL learners' language awareness level and their motivation. Moreover, a significant and positive connection between the EFL learners' level of language awareness and their achievements were also discovered. It is supported by Niezgoda and Röer (2001, in Sabet, Tahriri, & Haghi, 2014). They pointed out that motivated learners are more capable and aware of grammatical errors. Cook (2001, in Sabet, Tahriri, & Haghi, 2014), also revealed that motivated learners can better recognize the pragmatic purposes of a language. Besides that, Tateyama (2001, in Sabet, Tahriri, & Haghi, 2014), established that highly motivated individuals displayed better performance in doing role-plays.

F. Previous Studies

Some studies have been done in the same field before. Nikoopour, Salimian, Salimian, and Farsani (2012) investigated the relationship between intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and the language learning strategies used by Iranian EFL learners. Seventy-two (72) participants filled in two questionnaires on motivation and language learning strategies. The results showed that intrinsic motivation was significantly related to cognitive and metacognitive strategies. On the other way around, extrinsic motivation was not significantly associated with the use of language learning strategies. In

addition, it turned out that Iranian learners were mainly intrinsically motivated towards learning the English language. It was also found that they used metacognitive strategies more frequently than other types of strategies.

Kormos and Czizer (2014, in Wallace & Leong, 2020), explored the connection between self-regulation, motivation, and autonomous learning behavior in a Hungarian second language context. They conveyed that although the students had a strong desire to learn and a positive attitude towards second language learning, without having a concerted effort to study, they could not achieve their learning targets.

In Sabet, Tahriri, and Haghi's (2014) study, there were sixty-eight (68) EFL university student participants at the intermediate level of proficiency. Thirty-two of them received task-based language teaching (TBLT). After eight sessions, the learners were requested to make an abstract for a research paper. A questionnaire based on motivation (adapted from Lam & Law, 2007) was disseminated to the participants. The questionnaire was comprised of the following motivational aspects: curiosity, challenges, autonomy, real-life significance, recognition, and evaluation. The outcomes established that learners' motivation has a positive correlation to their performance in writing an abstract.

Ning and Hornby (2014) investigated the impacts of cooperative learning on the motivation of tertiary-level English learners. The research applied random selection of participants from two assigned classes at a university in northern China. A pre-test–post-test control group design was used to compare the impact of the Cooperative Learning approach. Traditional whole-class instructions on six aspects of learning motivation - *intrinsic motivation*, *integrated regulation*, *identified regulation*, *introjected regulation*, *external regulation*, and *amotivation* - were applied. The findings suggested that there were significant differences in favor of cooperative learning in improving intrinsic motivation. However, there were no differences in other aspects of motivation that were reported.

Other researchers, Wallace and Leong (2020), researched 23 sixth grade students of a Macau primary school. They filled in an open-ended questionnaire that had 10 items. The study results revealed that the participants were the most highly motivated and studied English for both instrumental and integrative purposes. The instrumental incentives were for work and travel, while the integrative reasons dealt with an aspiration to assimilate with the target language culture. The majority of the participants also recounted that they regarded their teachers in a positive light. This can illuminate why they mostly had a positive perception of learning English. Their families wanted them to score well on tests. Nevertheless, many of their classmates had a negative opinion about learning English. The respondents also shared that they enjoyed playing games and singing songs the most because these activities improved their intrinsic motivation to learn English.

In 2018, Tulgar examined the relationship between a global second language setting and the motivational levels of Turkish learners. The participants were selected by purposeful sampling. There were 10 foreign learners of Turkish who were taking a year-long preparatory class in language education at AtaTömer. The findings revealed that the participants considered taking courses from native speaker teachers as motivating factors. Having intercultural interactions with native speakers and classmates from different countries was also motivating. These learners displayed concerns for preserving their cultural identity in the new community as a demotivating factor in the global second language setting. Another demotivating factor was difficulties related to the language they were learning.

Liu (2020) carried out a study on the motivational factors of Chinese EFL learners from various educational levels and how they perceived their teachers as motivators. Junior high school, senior high school, and university students were given questionnaires and had follow-up interviews. The results showed how teachers' commitment could influence the motivational levels of students.

First, a positive correlation was found between the students' motivational learning intensity and the teachers' degree of commitment. The university students did not believe that the teachers' commitment had as much of an effect on their motivation as it did for the secondary school learners. The university students felt that their teachers were not as motivated in teaching, even though students at the university level had the highest motivation in English learning compared to the other two groups of students. This indicates that adult learners will go along with how devoted they think their teachers are in the actual learning process.

Second, after examining the most influential motivating factors by teachers towards students at various educational levels, it was found that different from university students, secondary school students placed more emphasis on teachers' communication-based aspects. These features included socio-affective characteristics, personality characteristics, and the use of communicative classroom activities. Conversely, the university student participants with a relatively high degree of English proficiency tended to prioritize the teachers' teaching competence.

Furthermore, the secondary school students emphasized more on the communicative teaching styles, while this was not prioritized among tertiary-level students, who preferred that their instructors had enough transferrable knowledge. For the secondary and tertiary education levels, it can be surmised that teachers can motivate students in learning English if the teachers alter their teaching strategies based on the students' respective degrees of fluency, developmental stages, and learning necessities.

Courtney (2017) examined the similarities as well as the differences between primary and secondary foreign language syllabi and pedagogy together with the development of motivation for language learning and second language proficiency. Data from 26 English learners of French aged around 10 until 11 were collected across three-time points over a year. The study employed the use of lesson observations along with questionnaires and focus group interviews to examine the development of attitudes and motivation. The results showed that a sudden shift in pedagogy might

negatively influence learners' attitudes and their motivation in early secondary level education. Early language learning does appear to generate positive attitudes towards language learning. However, there are still questions around its effectiveness over the long term when learners encounter language teaching that seems to be incompatible with their aims. It was found that learners made significant linguistic progress across the transition phase.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Setting

The research was done at an English Language Education Program (ELEP), in a private university in Central Java. Data were collected in Semester II of the 2020-2021 academic year.

B. Research Participants

There were 33 students (10 male and 23 female) participants in this study who were taking different writing classes. Fourteen students were taking Procedural Writing class (from the 2020 class year). They were given initials as Student 1 – Student 14). Besides that, there was a Research Proposal class consisting of nine students from the 2018 class year. They were called Student 15 – Student 23. The last class was Research Report Writing (10 students from the 2017 class year), who were named Student 24 – Student 33. Table 1 below clarifies this information.

TABLE 1
STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

Name of Classes	Number of Students	Student Initials
Procedural Writing	14	Student 1 - Student 14
Research Proposal	9	Student 15 - Student 23
Research Report	10	Student 24 - Student 33

C. Research Instruments and Procedures

Data for this study were derived from 33 students taking various writing classes. These 33 students were asked to answer questionnaire items distributed through email at the end of Semester I, in the 2020-2021 academic year. To be more specific, they were asked to fill in the questionnaires in April 2021. The questionnaire items were given in two languages, Indonesian and English. It was because there was a foreign student in the Procedural Writing class. For every number, another column was provided as "additional information". The questionnaire items are as follows.

TABLE 2
BILINGUAL QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

1. Saya memiliki motivasi yang tinggi untuk sukses dari program studi PBI ini. Jelaskan. (I have high motivation to be successful in this English study program. Please explain).
2. Saya memasuki program studi PBI ini atas keinginan saya sendiri. (I entered this study program because of my willingness. Please explain).
3. Saya mempunyai target waktu untuk lulus dalam waktu 4 tahun. (I have a target to graduate within 4 years. Please explain).
4. Hal2 yang paling memotivasi saya untuk belajar di Prodi ini adalah (tolong diisi): (Things that motivate me to study here are: ...).
5. Hal2 yang paling membuat saya tidak bersemangat (tolong diisi): (Things that make me demotivated are: ...).

In-depth interviews were also conducted with students with unclear answers. They were Student 7 (from Procedural Writing class), Student 17, Student 20 (from Proposal Writing class), and Student 27 (from Research Report class). Interviews were conducted on July 3, 2021, individually through Google Meet. Those five students were selected as interviewees because they had interesting answers or because their answers were not clear. Questions for the in-depth interviews were clarifications for the students' unclear answers.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Indonesian EFL Writing Students' Motivations to Enter the English Language Education Program (ELEP)

From the data collected from both the questionnaires as well as the interviews, some important information was found, such as in dealing with the source of motivation, out of 33 students, only 4 students (12.12%) had extrinsic motivation. They are Student 11, Student 15, Student 27, and Student 32. Student 11 mentioned that the source of motivation to enter the English Language Education Program (ELEP) came from their parents. The other 29 students (87.88%) had inner motivation to study at the English Language Education Program (ELEP).

B. Integrative vs. Instrumental Motivation in Learning English

Another finding deals with integrative and instrumental motivation. Regarding integrative and instrumental motivations, five students were integratively motivated. They were Student 3, Student 7, Student 10, Student 18, and Student 19. One student, Student 15, experienced a change in motivation. First, she wanted to be a successful person by

learning English, but then, she started to enjoy learning English. She even enjoyed doing any tasks given by her lecturers.

C. *Intrinsic/ Extrinsic Motivation*

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), comparisons between people who have authentic or intrinsic motivation and those who are merely externally controlled for an action, typically reveal that the former, meaning the ones with intrinsic motivation, have more interest, excitement, and confidence, which in turn is manifested as enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity (Ryan & Deci, 2000). From the facts found in the study, it was shown that students' achievements did not rely on the source of motivation. Those who got motivation from their parents also could be high-achieving students. In this study, there were only four students (12.12%) who had extrinsic motivation, while the remaining 29 students (87.88%) had intrinsic motivation. However, those who were extrinsically motivated could also achieve well. Table 3 illustrates students with extrinsic motivation and their GPAs.

TABLE 3
STUDENTS' GPA WITH EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Student Initials	Motivation	GPA
11	Extrinsic	3.15
15	Extrinsic	4
27	Extrinsic	3.2
32	Extrinsic	3.03

This is in line with the results of Olusiji's (2016) research. There were 46 respondents in his study. These 46 students were second-year pre-university and first-year degree students. From the questionnaires distributed to these students, it was found that the teacher factor is seen as the most influential factor. Besides that, it was revealed that one human factor which correlated the most highly with students' motivational intensity is parents. This suggests that students' effort towards learning English is a result of parental encouragement, even though the teacher is perceived to play the most significant role in motivating students to learn English.

This is also in line with Listyani and Tananuraksakul's study in 2019. Among 20 Indonesian student respondents, 14 students (70%) admitted that the people around them like their parents, friends, or relatives as well as their future jobs influenced them the most in their motivation to learn English. In short, it can be concluded that students with extrinsic motivation may also achieve well, even though the achievement may not be as good as students with intrinsic motivation.

D. *Integrative/ Instrumental Motivation*

As stated in the above section, five students (15.15%) were integratively motivated, one student (3.03%) experienced a change in motivation, and the other 27 students (81.82%) were instrumentally motivated.

Integrative motivation is like internal motivation, related to learners' personal interest in and attitudes towards the target language and community. Integrative motivation is about one's personal interest, desire, and persistence in learning (Tulgar, 2018, citing from Horwitz, 1987). Tulgar (2018, citing from Horwitz, 1987), further claimed that instrumental motivation is more influenced by outward factors like getting high marks on an exam or having a good job. This kind of motivation refers to the pragmatic gains that can result from the learning process (Tulgar, 2018, citing from Locastro, 2001). This is supported by Bakhtiyarovna (2021) who mentioned that in reality, if a learner is motivated internally, it will be easy to ponder everything with an inner desire. Learning obstacles and other impacts which may interfere with the learner will be tackled. However, sometimes motivation types may alter an individual.

The results of this study are supported by Wallace and Leong's (2020) study. There were 23 participants. They were sixth graders studying at a Macau primary school. The research findings revealed that the majority of the subjects had the high motivation and studied English for both instrumental and integrative reasons.

Integrative motivation centers on a desire to integrate within the target language culture. Only three students owned pure integrative motivation. Their learning motive was pure because they loved English. Five students had a combination of integrative and instrumental motivation. The majority (24) of the students had instrumental motivation. The instrumental motivations were to get a good and reputable job, be a successful person, make the parents proud, be a useful person for the nation, be a teacher, work and travel abroad, and improve the standard of living. Soureshjani and Naseri (2011) also strengthened this idea. They argued that instrumental motivation refers to the conditions in which the purpose of learning a language is to get an advantage like getting a job, promotion, or higher position and payment.

Another interesting finding in this study is that there was one student (Student 15) who had a change in motivations from instrumental to integrative motivation. In the beginning, she learned English because she wanted to be a successful person. Then as time went by, she started to enjoy the learning process and loved doing all the assignments given to her. Table 4 illustrates these types of motivations.

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' MOTIVATIONS AND REASONS

Initials	Gender	Types of Motivation	Reasons
1	F	Instrumental	Getting a good and reputable job
2	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person
3	M	Integrative & instrumental	Learning English deeper and getting a good job related to the English language
4	F	Instrumental	Making the parents proud, becoming a useful person for the nation, being a teacher, and building a school in a remote area
5	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person
6	F	Instrumental	Getting a good job soon
7	F	Integrative & instrumental	Having a love of English, making the parents proud, having a plus point, having a good career, having awareness of the importance of English
8	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person & get a good job soon
9	M	Integrative	Having a love of English
10	F	Integrative & instrumental	Having a love of English & pursuing dreams
11	M	Instrumental	Having a love of English
12	M	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person
13	M	Integrative	Having a love of English
14	F	Integrative	Having a love of English
15	F	Instrumental >> Integrative	Becoming a successful person & enjoying the materials as well as assignments given by the lecturers
16	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person & pursuing her dream to be an English teacher
17	M	Instrumental	Having a desire to build an English course in his hometown
18	F	Integrative & instrumental	Having a love of English & becoming a successful person
19	F	Integrative & instrumental	Having the interest to learn English & a desire to go abroad
20	F	Instrumental	Improving her parents' living standards & improving her hometown
21	F	Instrumental	Being a qualified English teacher, making her parents proud of her, & having self-satisfaction
22	F	Instrumental	Being an English teacher
23	F	Instrumental	Getting a good job soon
24	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person
25	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person
26	M	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person
27	M	Instrumental	Having a desire to work abroad
28	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person & building her own English course
29	F	Instrumental	Being an English teacher
30	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person
31	F	Instrumental	Being an English teacher
32	M	Instrumental	Realizing her parents' dreams
33	F	Instrumental	Becoming a successful person

E. Motivating Factors

Besides the findings previously mentioned above, some other points need to be discussed regarding motivating and demotivating factors. From the research data, it was found that fourteen (16) students out of 33 or around 48.48% admitted that their ideals or dreams motivated them the most. It shows that almost half of the students were driven or motivated by their dreams or ideals. The second rank after ideals or dreams is parental or family support. Eleven (11) students mentioned this. This is clarified in Table 4. Other factors included friends, teachers, and inner drive.

TABLE 5
MOTIVATING FACTORS

Students' Initials	Motivating Factors
1	Ideal/ dream
2	Teachers
3	Ideal/ dream
4	Dream, family, friends
5	Family, friends
6	Dream, parents, friends
7	Parents
8	Support from parents
9	Support from parents and friends, self-motivation
10	Support from parents
11	Support from parents and friends, self-motivation
12	Dream, family, friends, teachers
13	Support from parents and friends, self-motivation
14	Love of English
15	Parents and teachers
16	Ideal, parents and teachers
17	Ideal, campus atmosphere, teachers, and friends
18	Parents
19	Dream
20	Parents
21	Ideal/ dream
22	Ideal/ dream
23	Ideal/ dream
24	Teachers
25	Ideal/ dream
26	Ideal/ dream
27	Ideal/ dream
28	Ideal/ dream
29	Ideal/ dream
30	Parents & self-motivation
31	Ideal/ dream
32	Parents and friends
33	Ideal/ dream

It can be concluded that ideals or dreams can be a very strong and big drive that motivates someone in their language learning process. It is like a purpose or target to be reached at the end of the language learning journey. Learning a language without a goal or target is like driving a car without any destination.

F. Demotivating Factors

The student participants in this study experienced different things that demotivated them. Two students mentioned that they were too lazy to do their assignments. Besides laziness, many other things affected the students' learning like procrastination, boredom due to online learning, and too many assignments to do. Only two students admitted that they did not experience any demotivating factors.

The top three factors that demotivated the student participants were a habit of procrastination, too many assignments to do, and laziness. Two factors came from within the students themselves, a habit of delaying doing assignments and laziness. Those three things were the three top-ranked demotivating factors. It can be said that those factors were internal ones. It means they came from the learners.

Other factors that came from within the student participants were boredom due to the pandemic situation, a lack of self-confidence, a lack of motivation, and poor time management. Health, fatigue, and financial conditions also referred to the students' personal situations but did not deal with psychological problems. The rest of the factors were things that came from outside the participants. They were a bad Internet connection, materials, teachers, friends, assignments, bad scores, and family members' or parents' demands to get good grades. These are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6
FACTORS THAT DEMOTIVATED STUDENTS

Students' Initials	Demotivating Factors
1	Financial condition
2	Bad Internet connection
3	Difficult materials
4	Health problems and boredom due to the pandemic situation
5	Boredom and disputes with parents
6	Procrastination and a lack of motivation
7	Laziness
8	Fatigue and a lack of facilities at home
9	Laziness
10	Teachers who could not understand their students' conditions
11	Procrastination and too many assignments
12	Nothing
13	Procrastination
14	Bad scores
15	Too many assignments and personal problems
16	Too many assignments
17	Selfish friends
18	Discouraging opinions from friends
19	Difficult materials
20	Disharmonious relationships with friends and being forced to get good grades from the family
21	Things that did not happen as expected
22	Too many assignments
23	Lack of self-confidence
24	Online learning when finishing the thesis
25	Online learning when finishing the thesis, unclear teacher feedback
26	Procrastination
27	Too many assignments
28	Teachers with unclear explanations, and teachers with favoritism
29	Nothing
30	Time management
31	Laziness, unsupportive friends, teachers who were not nice
32	Being scolded by parents due to bad scores
33	Procrastination

Table 7 shows the demotivating factors, which are arranged alphabetically, along with the students who experienced those factors.

TABLE 7
SUMMARY OF THE DEMOTIVATING FACTORS

Demotivating Factors	Experienced by
Bad Internet connection	Student 2
Bad scores	Student 14, Student 32
Being forced to get good grades	Student 20
Boredom due to the pandemic situation	Student 4, Student 5
Difficult materials	Student 3, Student 19
Discouraging friend's opinion	Student 18
Disharmonious relationship with friends	Student 20
Disputes with parents	Student 5
Financial condition	Student 1
Health problems	Student 4
Lack of facilities at home	Student 18
Lack of motivation	Student 6
Lack of self-confidence	Student 23
Laziness	Student 7, Student 9, Student 31
No problems	Student 12, Student 29
Online learning when finishing the thesis	Student 24, Student 25
Personal problems	Student 15
Procrastination	Student 6, Student 11, Student 26, Student 33
Reality vs. expectations that do not meet	Student 21
Selfish friends	Student 17
Teachers who are not understanding	Student 10
Teachers who are not nice	Student 31
Teachers with unclear explanations & high favoritism	Student 28
Time management	Student 30
Tiredness/ fatigue	Student 8
Too many assignments	Student 11, Student 16, Student 17, Student 27
Unclear teacher feedback	Student 25
Unsupportive friends	Student 31

IV. CONCLUSION

Motivation is one of the determining factors for the success of second or foreign language learning. Without motivation, language learners will have little or no enthusiasm to learn. It is like the wheels of a car that are needed to make it keep going and moving.

From the data in this study, it was found that only four students had extrinsic motivation, while the other 29 students had intrinsic motivation. Five students (15.15%) were integratively motivated, one student (3.03%) experienced a change in motivation, and the remaining 27 students (81.82%) were instrumentally motivated. It was also found that fourteen (16) students out of 33 or around 45.45% of the student respondents admitted that it was their ideals or dreams that motivated them the most. It shows that almost half of the students were driven or motivated by their dreams or ideals.

This study, however, still has some limitations. For future researchers, the number of participants can be added. Also, the participants can come from various courses as well as levels of study like secondary or tertiary education. Thus, the findings can enrich and complement the previously conducted research.

Pedagogically, this research hopefully can let teachers contemplate that they also need to accept the fact that it is their responsibility to ensure that their students are motivated and stay motivated. Teachers should not grieve the fact that students do not bring any motivation in learning an L2 in the classroom. It may be true that teachers can do little to influence students' extrinsic motivation, but there is a lot they can do to enhance their intrinsic motivation (Ellis, 2005).

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The Impact of Cooperative Learning on EFL Achievers' and Underachievers' Motivation Based on Marginal Utility

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Abstract—This study explores the change of EFL learners' motivation in learning English with the increase of CL time based on marginal utility. Thirty learners from an intact class in Grade 10 were selected through their performance on a piloted sample Preliminary English Test. Learners were assigned to achievers and underachievers groups. The questionnaire of motivation, based on the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), was given to both groups as a pretest. All participants underwent the same amount of teaching time and same material with the same teacher during seven-week CL, 35 sessions taking 45 minutes each. The same questionnaire was administered again at the end of one week, three-week, five-week and seven-week treatments respectively to both groups and their scores on the questionnaires were compared through an analysis of Paired Samples t-test and ANOVA. The findings showed that after one week CL, both the achievers' and underachievers' motivations were significantly improved compared with those in pretest; after three-week CL, the underachievers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and achievers' extrinsic motivation declined significantly compared with those of Week One, while the latter's intrinsic motivation has no significant change; after five-week CL, underachievers' motivation didn't change significantly compared with their motivation in the pretest, which means that the marginal utility took place in underachievers' motivation during three-week to five-week CL; after seven-week CL, the achievers' motivation increased significantly compared with their motivation in the pretest, indicating there was no marginal utility for achievers' motivation during seven-week CL.

Index Terms—cooperative learning, learning motivation, EFL achievers, EFL underachievers, marginal utility

I. INTRODUCTION

Among numerous factors exerting influence on SLA, motivation has often been viewed as the most significant one (Dornyei, 2001; Hiromori, 2006; MacIntyre, Gardner, 1989; Shamiry, R.&Fuad, 2020; Jr, R. R.&Nunez, A. M. ,2020). Gardener (1985) proposes that motivation is a necessary factor in language learning and language learners' academic achievements are related closely to their motivations. From the perspective of Self-determination theory, there are two kinds of motivations: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is the desire or tendency toward getting some external reward or avoiding punishment while intrinsic motivation is to carry out an activity for its own sake, for getting pleasure and satisfaction in doing it (Deci, Ryan, 1985, 1991; Ryan, Deci, 2000). Cooperative learning (CL), a learning strategy in which students cooperate for common goals (Roger & Johnson, 1994; Siegel, 2005; Slavin, 1983), has been proved to make students more actively involved in learning activities compared with traditional teaching methods (Xiao, 2001; Wang, 2001; Tran, 2019; Wang, 2020; et al.). CL has been a widespread learning model in China and more and more English teachers adopt it in classroom teaching. However, many surveys proved that Chinese EFL learners, especially English underachievers, still lack strong learning motivation in CL (Dong,2018; Yao, 2013; Lu, 2009), which may result from the effect of marginal utility of CL. However, less is known about the effect of marginal utility on EFL learners' motivation in CL. Therefore, this study attempts to explore the change of EFL learners' motivation in learning English with the increase of CL time based on marginal utility.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This paper adopts marginal utility as its theoretical foundation.

In economics, utility is the satisfaction or benefit derived by consuming a product; thus the marginal utility of a good or service describes how much pleasure or happiness is gained from an increase in consumption. It may be positive, negative, or zero. In the context of cardinal utility, economists postulate a law of diminishing marginal utility, which describes how the first unit of consumption of a particular good or service yields more utility than the second and subsequent units, with a continuing reduction for greater amounts. (Investopedia. Retrieved, 2021-08-31).

Polleit and Thorsten (2011) believe that the more you get, the less you want. For example, three bites of bread are better than two bites, but the thirtieth bite does not add much to the experience beyond the twenty-ninth (and could even make it worse).

The effect of marginal utility also exists in education (Jiang, 1999; Bai, 2009; Gui, et al., 2012). Students always have high learning motivation when they begin to acquire new knowledge. However, high learning motivation cannot last for a long time because they would feel dissatisfied or bored with the increase of learning content. This phenomenon is regarded as the effect of marginal utility in teaching.

According to marginal utility, Gui Maozhong et al. (2012) describes the effect of marginal utility in the following figure.

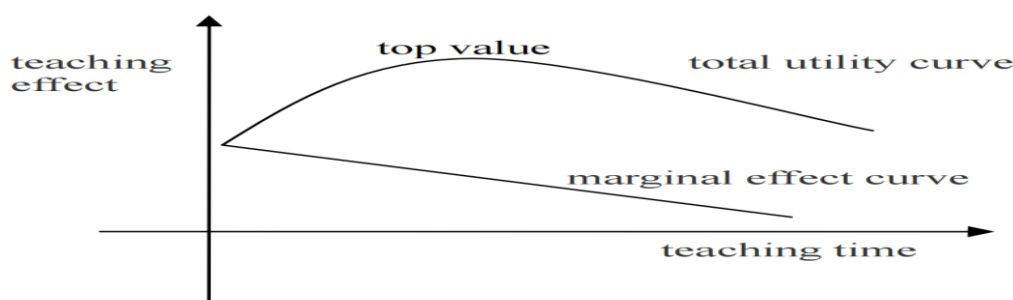


Figure 1. The Effect of Marginal Utility in Teaching (Gui Maozhong et al., 2012)

Figure 1 means that if you add a class, the total utility of the classroom teaching will be enhanced. At this time, the highest marginal utility of classroom teaching is obtained. If you continue to increase the classroom hours, the total utility will continue to enhance. However, the marginal utility of classroom teaching began to decline if we continue to increase the classroom hours.

III. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON MOTIVATION IN COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Piaget (1980) regarded motivation as a built-in unconscious striving towards more complex and differential development of an individual's mental structure. Gardner (1985) pointed out that motivation, as a crucial factor in language learning, was closely associated with students' academic achievements and he thinks effort and desire are prerequisites for motivation. Dörnyei (1998) proposed that motivation can make a student start learning a foreign language and sustain the effort throughout the long learning process in second language acquisition. Based on Self-determination theory, motivation can be divided into two kinds: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation involves carrying out a task because of pleasure and satisfaction. EFL intrinsic motivation refers to the enjoyment of learning English for its own sake rather than because of external rewards. Extrinsic motivation involves integrated regulation, which is mainly linked to a desire to be involved in the target community and to identify with its members (Noels et al., 2000). EFL extrinsic motivation means learning English for its outcomes, such as passing exams (Noels, 2001; Noels, Clement & Pelletier, 2001).

CL is a learning model in which students work together in order to achieve common goals (Roger & Johnson, 1994; Siegel, 2005; Slavin, 1983). Motivational perspectives on CL focus on three elements: goal structures, reward structures, and group dynamics (Dörnyei 1997; Johnson, 1991; Slavin 1997). Goal structures offer a situation where students would help each other because of a common goal. Reward structures mean that students' performance would be assessed based on whole group performance and group dynamics are closely linked to positive interdependence, individual accountability and strong group cohesiveness. According to the previous research, these elements have positive effects on students' motivation, which means CL can make students more actively involved in learning activities compared with traditional teaching methods (Davidson, 2020; Kate Ferguson-Patrick & Wendy Jolliffe, 2018; Gül üzar Eymur & Ömer Geban, 2017). However, many surveys proved that Chinese EFL learners lack strong learning motivation, especially English underachievers (Dong, 2018; Yao, 2013; Lu, 2009). Several studies explained this phenomenon from the perspective of marginal utility.

Jiang (1999) discussed the diminishing marginal utility in students' learning behavior. He holds that there is diminishing marginal utility for students in the process of acquiring knowledge, getting criticism and praise from teachers. Bai (2009), who studied fossilization from the perspective of the law of diminishing marginal utility, pointed out that the extrinsic motivation of most Chinese EFL learners was driven by examinations. Without test pressure, some students would even give up language learning. Zhang (2011) applied marginal utility to English vocabulary teaching. She suggested that teachers timely adjust teaching methods and apply a reasonable evaluation system to carry out vocabulary teaching based on students' different learning styles. Although these scholars have noticed the effect of marginal utility in teaching management, less is known about the effect of marginal utility on EFL learners' motivation in CL (Wu, 2021).

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Although the gap between the EFL achievers and underachievers is not caused by a single factor, learning motivation is considered as a crucial factor affecting students' learning achievements (Schunk, D., H & Pintrich, P, R. 1995; Zhang Xiaoling, 2017). In this study, the researcher wants to explore the differences of changes in learning motivation of English achievers and underachievers in different CL time duration. Thus the research questions of this study are as follows:

- 1: What is the effect of CL on EFL achievers' motivation with the increase of CL time?
- 2: What is the effect of CL on EFL underachievers' motivation with the increase of CL time?
- 3: What are the differences of changes between achievers' and underachievers' motivation with the increase of CL time?

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

All the sixty students from one intact class in Grade 10 in Linxiang District No.1 Middle School participated in the Preliminary English Test. Then, according to their scores on the test, thirty students were selected as participants, including fifteen English achievers (top 25 percent) and fifteen underachievers (bottom 25 percent). There is a significant difference between achievers' and underachievers' test scores. These participants are aged between sixteen to seventeen, including 13 females (six in the achievers group) and 17 males (nine in the achievers group).

B. Instruments

On the basis of qualitative and quantitative research methods, the results are analyzed through SPSS 25.0. There are two instruments adopted in this experiment: questionnaire and interview.

Questionnaire

Most items are from The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner (1985) and the author divided the items of the questionnaire into two parts, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Because this questionnaire will be reused many times, the order of items was rearranged to avoid practice effect. A standard five-point Likert scale was used in the questionnaire, ranging from one to five (respectively representing "strong disagreement" to "strong conformity") for scoring.

The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were tested in the pilot study. The results are as follows:

TABLE 1
THE RELIABILITY OF QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	Cronbach's Alpha
The Whole Questionnaire	20	0.928
Intrinsic motivation	10	0.942
Extrinsic motivation	10	0.828

The reliability coefficients of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are 0.942 and 0.828 respectively, and the reliability coefficient of the whole questionnaire is 0.928.

TABLE 2
THE VALIDITY OF QUESTIONNAIRES

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.837
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	938.422
	df	190
	Sig	.000

The KMO is 0.837 and P value is 0.000(<0.05).

Interview

The purpose of the interview is to explore in-depth reasons why the interviewees' motivation changes. Considering students' limited English proficiency, all interviewees and interviewer speak Chinese in order to understand each other better. The open-ended interview consists of two questions:

- 1 Do you like Cooperative learning activities? Why?
- 2 What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of cooperative learning?

C. Procedure

This study started on September 10, 2020, and lasted for seven weeks. Before the study, the researcher did a pilot study to select participants and check whether all participants could fully understand the items of this questionnaire. At the beginning of the first week, the researcher distributed questionnaire in the whole class so as to get the data of their initial motivation (only achievers and underachievers' responded questionnaires were analyzed).

The teacher divides sixty students into ten groups equally with careful consideration given to heterogeneity within a team and homogeneity between teams. These home teams are fixed for the whole semester and they have one group

leader who takes responsibility to organize class discussions and activities. Each group has its own special group name and each member has his own code-name.

In order to stimulate students to engage in group activities actively, and avoid students hitchhiking, the CL techniques, Student-Team-Achievement-Division (STAD) and Numbered-Heads-Together (NHT) were used in class. After the teacher assigns tasks to each group, the team members will work together in a limited time and the teacher is able to provide scaffolding when necessary. Usually, the teacher will randomly select one group to prepare a class presentation and one student with a specific code number would be chosen arbitrarily to do a presentation as a representative of his or her group once a week.

Students' performance is evaluated by peers and teachers through giving scores and feedback. Each student answers one question actively in class, winning one point for his or her home group. In the middle and end of the semester, teachers will select the best group based on their performance in class and test scores.

The same questionnaires with changed orders of items were distributed at the end of week one, week three, week five, and week seven respectively. At the end of the third week, the researcher interviewed all research participants one by one.

Finally, the data on motivation were collected from the questionnaire and analyzed by SPSS 25.0.

VI. RESULTS

Questionnaire

According to the data from the questionnaire, the following chart of participants' motivation (extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation) was drawn.

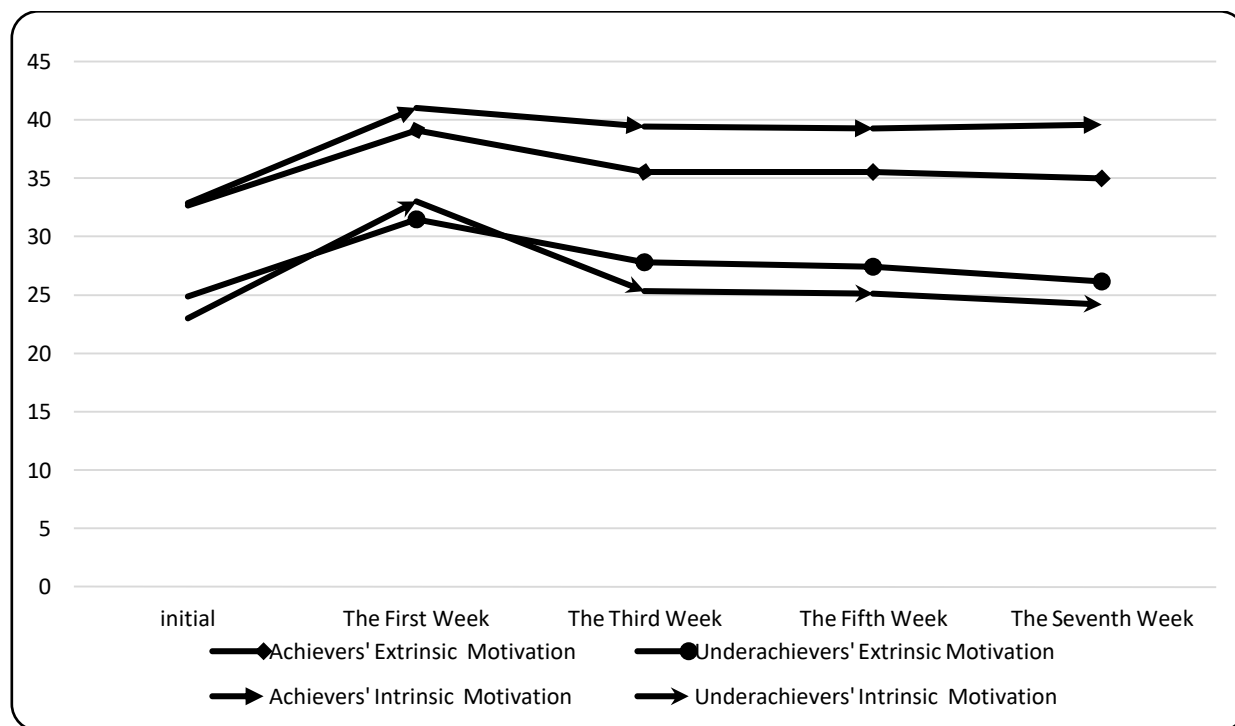


Figure2. The Change of Students' Learning Motivation

Because all scores enjoyed normalcy of distribution, ANOVA and paired samples t-test were used to test whether there is a significant difference between different CL time duration.

TABLE 3
TESTS OF WITHIN-SUBJECTS CONTRASTS (ACHIEVERS' MOTIVATION)

Measure: MEASURE_1		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Source	M					
Mo		614.400	1	614.400	55.280	.000
	Initial vs. The First Week	992.267*	1*	992.267*	42.911*	.000*
		187.267	1	187.267	11.718	.004
	The First Week vs. The Third Week	38.400*	1*	38.400*	2.301*	.152*
		.000	1	.000	.000	1.000
	The Third Week vs. The Fifth Week	.267*	1*	.267*	.043*	.840*
		4.267	1	4.267	.416	.530
	The Fifth Week vs. The Seventh Week	1.667*	1*	1.667*	.700*	.417*

Without "*" meaning extrinsic motivation, "*" indicating intrinsic motivation.

Table3 shows that after one week of CL, the EFL achievers' L2 motivation (intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation) increased significantly ($P < 0.05$); after three weeks of CL, their extrinsic motivation decreased significantly, but there is no significant difference of intrinsic learning motivation ($P > 0.05$); after five weeks of CL, there is no significant difference of the achievers' motivation between three-week CL and five-week CL.

TABLE 4
TESTS OF WITHIN-SUBJECTS CONTRASTS (UNDERACHIEVERS' MOTIVATION)

Measure: MEASURE_1		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Source	M					
Mo		653.400	1	653.400	19.563	.001
	Initial vs. The First Week	1500.000*	1*	1500.000*	11.551*	.004*
		201.667	1	201.667	6.546	.023
	The First Week vs. The Third Week	881.667*	1*	881.667*	8.124*	.013*
		2.400	1	2.400	.071	.793
	The Third Week vs. The Fifth Week	.600*	1*	.600*	.006*	0.941*
		24.067	1	24.067	.439	.518
	The Fifth Week vs. The Seventh Week	13.067*	1*	13.067*	.128*	.726*

Without "*" meaning extrinsic motivation, "*" signifying intrinsic motivation.

Table4 shows that after one week of CL, the EFL underachievers' motivation increased significantly ($P < 0.05$); after three weeks of CL, the underachievers' motivation decreased significantly; after five weeks of CL, there is no significant difference of the underachievers' motivation between three-week CL and five-week CL ($P > 0.05$).

TABLE 5
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST OF L2 LEARNING MOTIVATION

PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST OF L2 LEARNING MOTIVATION									
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
The Seventh Week-Initial	1	-2.333	3.754	.969	-4.412	-.254	-2.407	14	.030
	2	-1.267	3.515	.907	-3.213	.680	-1.396	14	.185
	3	-6.733	3.305	.853	-8.564	-4.903	-7.890	14	.000
	4	-1.200	3.098	.800	-2.916	.516	-1.500	14	.156

1 refers to achievers' extrinsic motivation; 2 refers to underachievers' extrinsic motivation; 3 refers to achievers' intrinsic motivation; 4 refers to underachievers' intrinsic motivation.

After seven-week CL, the EFL achievers' motivation has been improved significantly, but that of the underachievers was not.

TABLE 6
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST OF L2 LEARNING MOTIVATION (UNDERACHIEVERS)

PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST OF EE LEARNING MOTIVATION (UNDERACHIEVERS)									
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
The Fifthth Week-Initial	1	-2.533	5.397	1.393	-5.522	.455	-1.818	14	0.091
	2	-2.133	9.833	2.539	-7.579	3.312	-.840	14	0.415

"1" refers to underachievers' extrinsic motivation; "2" refers to underachievers' intrinsic motivation.

Table6 shows that after five-week CL, EFL underachievers' motivation was not improved significantly compared with their initial motivation ($P > 0.05$).

Interview

The results of the interview show that all achievers and 86 percent of underachievers like CL. Achievers said that they could take a lead and learn others' novel ideas and different perspectives about a certain topic in CL, but eight

achievers who are group leaders also expressed concern about interpersonal relationships. They are worried CL will kill the friendship when team members have disagreements in group discussions. While underachievers like CL because CL can be fun offering them an environment where they can chat or play with classmates in class. However, they said that they are unwilling to take part in discussion due to their poor English and difficulty in understanding others, and they also feel frustrated because they can't make contribution to the group.

VII. DISCUSSION

The result of this study shows that both EFL achievers' and underachievers' motivation was enhanced significantly after one-week CL. The finding is in accordance with previous studies (Wang, 2020; Tran, 2019; Kambiss, 1990), which indicates that CL has a significantly positive effect on the motivation of EFL learners. In CL, students' performances are closely linked to team success, which makes students more involved in learning (Slavin, 1990; Daura & Durand, 2018). Rongrong & Kusum (2018) think that there is an active interaction between teachers and students in CL, which enhances students' interest in learning (Khodadady et al., 2015; Liu, 2020). Furthermore, most students prefer working together, discussing and sharing information rather than studying alone. CL can offer a cooperative environment and help students develop their language abilities via communication with peers and teachers and imitation of excellent teammates' behaviors. Therefore, students' motivation improves due to active knowledge acquirement (Dewey, 1991; Yager, 2000; Marlow & Page, 2005).

After three-week CL, the underachievers' motivation declined significantly compared with that of Week One. After five-week CL, underachievers' motivations didn't change significantly compared with those in the pretest, which means that the marginal utility took place in underachievers' motivation during three-week to five-week CL. Deci & Ryan (1985) think that most people would feel interested in learning something new, but their learning motivation would decline because of incompetence and helplessness. Helplessness refers to helpless behavior and psychological state formed through learning and is very common for underachievers (Seligman, 2005). According to the interview, some underachievers have also mentioned that they were interested in CL at the beginning. However, they feel isolated with the increase of CL time because they think that they didn't make a contribution to group achievements due to their poor performance, while some students just think CL can make them relaxed in class in which they can play or chat with classmates, which means they don't really like CL. Once the teacher requires them to focus on studying, they will lose interest. These may be the reasons for the decline of underachievers' motivation in CL.

After three-week CL, the achievers' extrinsic motivation declined significantly compared with that of Week One. Deci and Ryan (1985) regarded extrinsic motivation as actions carried out to achieve instrumental goals such as earning rewards or avoiding punishments. CL can motivate students' participation in learning and students can get the sense of satisfaction due to praise and recognition from teachers and peers (Panitz, 1999). Achievers are more likely to be praised due to their higher proficiency and more positive involvement. However, going too far is as bad as not going far enough. Too much praise is also a burden for students (Zhao, 2019). According to the interview, some achievers who are group leaders mentioned that being a leader is challenging and stressful because they need to take more responsibility for teamwork and disagreements with group members make them disappointed. These factors may have side effects on achievers' extrinsic motivation.

The achievers' intrinsic motivation has no significant change. The finding is in accordance with Noels' intrinsic motivation theory. He thinks intrinsic motivation is more stable than extrinsic learning motivation, which can carry out learning behaviors without external rewards and pressure (Noels et al., 2000). After seven-week CL, the achievers' motivation increased significantly compared with their motivation in a pretest, indicating there was no marginal utility for achievers' motivation during seven-week CL. This finding can be supported by Rubin (2004). Rubin believes that language achievers generally have some common characteristics: they are good at speculating, dare to express themselves and run a risk despite their limited knowledge of the second language, accordingly achievers can benefit more from CL and the positive effect of CL on achievers' motivation lasts longer.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Research questions put forward in this study are answered as follows: after one-week CL, the EFL achievers' motivation was significantly enhanced; after three-week CL, the achievers' L2 extrinsic motivation declined significantly than that of one-week CL, while their intrinsic motivation has no significant change; after five-week CL, the achievers' motivation tended to be stable; after seven-week CL, the achievers' motivation enhanced significantly compared with that in the pretest, which means that there is no marginal utility of achievers' motivation. After one-week CL, the underachievers' motivation was significantly improved; after three-week CL, the underachievers' motivation decreased significantly than that of one-week CL. However, there is still a significant improvement compared with their motivation in the pretest; after five-week CL, underachievers' motivation didn't have a significant change compared with that of the pretest, which indicates that marginal utility took place.

This study implicates that teachers should make aware of diminishing marginal effect in CL and they need to update teaching methods and instruction timely in order to provide different types of teaching stimulation to students. There should be a wide variety of teaching strategies in class and students should be exposed to different teaching styles.

IX. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

First, the researcher reused the same questionnaire five times. Although the order of items is different every time, participants may still have practice effects. Future research may employ more research instruments to explore students' learning motivation. Secondly, teachers of other subjects may also adopt CL in this experimental class, which may have an effect on the results of this study. Thirdly, the sample size is small, so further research involving more participants needs to be conducted in order to explore the change of EFL learners' motivation with the increase of CL time.

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The Application of Translation Procedures in Translating Five Public Signs in Ubud

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Abstract—This study analyzes five public signs in English found in the area of Ubud, Bali, Indonesia. The purposes of this research are to identify the grammatical errors in the process of translating the information conveyed on these five public signs and to understand the translation procedures applied in the translation process. The first finding of this study is that grammatical errors are found on the first, second and fifth public signs. Meanwhile, the second finding of this study is four translation procedures are applied, which are Modulation, Transposition, Literal Translation and Calque. Another interesting finding, which can be found in this research, is the fact that the application of these translation procedures plays a very crucial role in determining the quality of the translation product as well as in contributing the occurrence of the grammatical errors.

Index Terms—translation procedures, grammatical errors, public signs

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation is the process of re-expressing the meaning derived from the Source Language (SL) into the Target Language (TL). The meaning re-expressed referred here must be the closest equivalence to the TL and the TL audiences. Anticipating a number of possibilities the TL audiences will perceive the re-expressed meaning plays one of the most significant considerations every translator will have to bear in mind. Strategies in conducting the translation process are studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation and cultural context of the SL text (Larson, 1998). These strategies show that the primary goal of the translation process is not merely transferring the form of the SL into the TL: in fact, it is the meaning transfer, which crucially determines the level of readability, acceptability and the accuracy of the translation product. Translating public signs then provides a number of challenges, especially when these translated signs are for audiences with varied languages and cultural backgrounds. As one of the most famous destinations in the world, the village of Ubud, Bali, Indonesia has been attracting large numbers of globetrotters. Public signs in Ubud are therefore not only serving the local community but also international visitors. From the goal of providing general information, suggestions, warnings, instructions on how things work, or even as marketing tools, public signs in Ubud are created for audiences from all over the world. The English translation of public signs in Ubud provides a vast opportunity for audiences to understand the intended meaning as well as the possibility to learn the linguistic features of Indonesian. The reflection of linguistic features of Indonesian can be observed through the errors occurring in the English translation of these public signs, which do not comply with English grammar. The common errors occurring in these public signs will not only be hard to understand but also potentially alter the intended meaning. Identifying the errors occurring and analyzing the translation procedures applied in translating these public signs into English are the goals of this research. These two goals show how intricate and complex the translation process can be. Public signs in general convey certain messages, which are commonly composed so concisely. The wordings tend to be short and precisely chosen. When this precision demands good quality or level of readability, acceptability and the accuracy of translation from one language to the other, then this can be regarded as a process to understand how powerful languages in general are and how unique the translating experience can be. Transferring the meaning from SL into TL, while at the same time understanding the linguistics as well as the cultural features of the TL are some of the crucial aspects that need to be considered in the translation process. Minimalizing the error occurrences of the translation product, while assuring this translation product can be read, understood and accepted are one of a number of challenges in translation studies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW & THEORETICAL APPROACH

Three articles about public sign translation are reviewed in order to understand the possible challenges encountered in the translation process along with the strategies applied in coping with these challenges. The first article (Aristova, 2016) examines dynamic changes in the linguistic landscape of Kazan, Russia, giving special attention to the introduction of English lexical elements and English translations from Russian and Tatar into the bilingual urban

linguistic environment as a reflection of current globalization trends. The introduction of English into the linguistic landscape of Kazan and the mindsets of its people play a significant role in reflecting the transition from a strictly bilingual linguistic environment to a global multilingual one. The second article (Koskinen, 2012) studies the linguistic landscape of the suburb of Hervanta in Tampere, Finland from the perspective of translation studies. This study attempts to identify the translation consequences of the increasing multilingualism in Hervanta. The third article (Beili & Tuo, 2015) investigates the Chinese-English translation (C-E) of linguistic signs from the perspective of linguistic landscape in the hope that people should notice the function of the organization that sets up the signs and their responsibility for the errors. In spite of possessing slightly different formulated problems, however, these three articles put a similar emphasis on acknowledging the cultural aspect involved in the translation process. Transferring a message from one language into another language requires a very deep understanding of both linguistics and culture. These two aspects will always be interwoven in each other's existence. It has been a shared-information concept that language transmits culture meanwhile culture regulates the language (Jiang, 2000). These two aspects are simply inseparable and contributing towards the entire process of meaning transfer and the quality of the translation product.

Two theories are applied in answering the two formulated problems of this research. The first theory (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) is applied to identify the occurrence of the errors in these five selected public signs, specifically the grammatical construction as well as their spelling errors. The application of this theory is also expected to show whether Indonesian linguistic features can still be found in the English translation. Meanwhile, the second theory (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000) is applied to understand which translation procedures have been chosen by the translators in translating these five selected public signs. In addition, this theory is expected to show the possible factors causing the grammatical errors.

A. Theory 1: Text & Grammar

Since the first formulated problem of this research is to identify the occurrence of errors in the English translated public signs, having a comprehensive understanding of English grammar in general is obligatorily required. This theory (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) concerning functional grammar as well as the relationship between text and context is applied to assist in the process of identifying the occurrence of errors. Language is, in the first instance, a resource for making meaning; therefore, text is a process of making meaning in context (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). This explanation is in line with the role of context and how it determines that the meaning from the SL transfers appropriately well into the TL. The precise nature of the public signs in terms of their wording arrangements reflects the importance of identifying the context of the public signs, which are to be translated in order to better help selecting the appropriate word choices and arrange them into compact and precise formation.

B. Theory 2: Translation Procedures

These are seven translation procedures (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000) utilized in this research. The first three procedures are categorized as Direct Translation; meanwhile the other four procedures are Oblique Translation. The idea of Direct Translation is to transpose the SL message element by element into the TL; while the nature of Oblique Translation is more complex concerning the adjustment process of the structural or metalinguistic differences between the SL and the TL. Procedure 1 - Borrowing: borrowing words or expressions from other languages, which are very unfamiliar or completely unknown in the TL. Procedure 2 - Calque: borrowing words or expressions from other languages, but these loans are then translated literally with respect to each of its elements. Procedure 3 - Literal Translation: the direct transfer of an SL text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate TL. Procedure 4 - Transposition: replacing one word class or a grammatical category without changing the meaning of the message. Procedure 5 - Modulation: a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view. Procedure 6 - Equivalence: creating equivalences using completely different stylistic and structural methods. Procedure 7 - Adaptation: creating a new situation that is considered as being equivalent in the TL as this type of situation referred in SL is unknown in the TL.

III. METHOD

Five public signs in Ubud are the data source of this research. These five public signs are chosen based on the uniqueness of their linguistic features and the location in Ubud whereabouts these signs are found. The exposure these five public signs obtained from visitors appears to be the main reason in selecting these public signs to be further analyzed. The creators of these public signs are local community officers, the management of the destinations and individuals. This research utilizes the qualitative descriptive approach to show the results of the studies in the field of translation in accordance with the discussion topics raised and the problems formulated in this study. Qualitative descriptive approach has the aim of describing, summarizing various forms of conditions, situations or phenomena in society which are the object of research (Bungin, 2007). A number of instruments were utilized in conducting this research, viz. the laptop, camera, items of stationery and two dictionaries (Indonesian – English and English – Indonesian).

The data from these five public signs are taken by photograph and then transcribed by writing down the wordings conveyed by each of the signs. Among these five public signs, three of them are monolingual signs in English, while the

other two are bilingual ones. The consideration in combining these two types of public signs is the fact that these all five public signs are able to provide linguistic phenomena to be further analyzed. For example, in spite of these three monolingual signs being in English and having no Indonesian version written on them, the reflection of Indonesian linguistic features can obviously be observed. Analyzing how this reflection may contribute to or interfere with the quality of the translation appears to be one of the reasons in utilizing the monolingual version of public signs. These collected data are analyzed to determine whether each public sign has errors in terms of its grammatical construction. Analysis is then conducted to determine the translation procedures applied in translating all of these five public signs into English. The final analysis is conducted to understand whether there is a possibility that the errors occur as the result of the application of these translation procedures. The analysis is presented by applying the formal and informal methods. The presentation of the results of the analysis is formally carried out by using tables, graphs, diagrams, signs and symbols, while the informal presentation of the results is carried out by using explanations through words or a number of informative sentences, which are to explain the results of the analysis (Sudaryanto, 1993). The explanation provided will make it easier for readers to understand formal media in the form of the tables and signs presented in this research. Two tables are presented to show the summary of the number of errors occur as well as the translation procedures applied.

IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

The first public sign is found at The Sacred Monkey Forest Sanctuary Ubud. This sign is placed next to the reception area informing the visitors that this place is a non-smoking area. There is a grammatical error found in this first public sign. '*Kawasan bebas asap rokok*' is translated into 'No Smoking' followed by the word 'area.' This is identified as an error since the adequate translation should have been 'A Non-Smoking Area.' The English translation can be read and understood but it does not comply with English grammar.

4.1.1 SL: Kawasan Bebas Asap Rokok

TL: "NO SMOKING" Area.



Figure 1: Data 4.1 - Public Sign 1

The core noun in this phrase is 'area.' Grammatically speaking, the phrase 'No Smoking area' is incorrect even though it already has a modifier. The correct one is 'A Non-Smoking Area.' Determiner 'A' followed by modifier 'Non-Smoking' precedes the core noun 'area.' Therefore, it can be said that an error occurs in translating this part on the first public sign. Another finding conveyed in this data 4.1 is observed in terms of its translation procedure. The word '*Bebas*' is simply translated into 'No' instead of using its literal translation of 'Free.' Meanwhile, the noun phrase '*Asap rokok*,' which literally means 'Cigarette smoke' is translated into 'Smoking.' These two translation processes significantly show that there are changes in grammatical structure. Therefore, in translating this part, it appears that the translator applies the procedure of Transposition. The adjective '*Bebas*' is transposed into a verb and the noun phrase '*Asap rokok*' is also transposed into a verb, yet these actions still adequately manage the entire meaning, conveying the idea that no one is allowed to smoke in this area. Apart from this grammatical error, it can be said that the English translation feels quite natural. This naturalness can be identified from its word choices. The natural word choices can also be observed through the translation of these three words, '*terhormat*,' '*mohon*' and suffix *-nya* in the word, '*samanya*.' Below are three sentences containing these three words mentioned above.

4.1.2 SL: Pengunjung Yang **Terhormat**

TL: **Dearest** Visitors,

The translator does not literally translate the word '*terhormat*.' Instead of using the literal translation for the word '*terhormat*,' which is 'respectable' and/or 'honorable' among many other options in English, the translator opts for the word 'dearest.' The logical reason behind this decision might be based on the perspective this destination has in viewing or positioning its visitors. As one of the most famous destinations in Ubud or even Bali, The Sacred Monkey Forest Sanctuary Ubud has attracted visitors of all ages. 'All ages' serves as the key that determine the translator's decision in using the word 'dearest.' The target audiences of this public sign are 'all ages.' The word 'dearest' can be accepted by audiences of all ages. On the other hand, not all the visitors might feel comfortable being addressed as 'respectable' and 'honorable.' In fact, these two words might cause confusion and sound 'too much.' It might be safe to say that most tourists visit this destination for leisure pursuits. The warmth, togetherness, friendliness and informal atmospheres are those values this destination is typically associated with and these values simply fit right in with the idea of leisure. The word 'dearest' is felt to resonate better with these values. Quite the contrary, if '*terhormat*' was translated literally into 'respectable' or 'honorable,' the impression would have been very formal, strict, cold, stiff and unnatural. Word choices of 'respectable' or 'honorable,' in this context situation tend to create a clear boundary within the communication or the interaction process, which can make the visitors feel unwelcome. 'Dearest' still shows the degree of formality without sacrificing the warmth and welcoming nuances. The way SL views or positions the visitors is slightly shifted from the formal nuance into the neutral nuance yet still maintains the sense of respect or dignity in the TL.

4.1.3 SL: Kami **Mohon** Dukungan Anda...

TL: We **Need** Your Support...

The word '*mohon*' has its literal translations, which are 'to ask' or 'to request' among many other options. Interestingly, the translator opts for 'need' in translating this word. The word 'need' in this context creates an invitation for visitors to take action together. On the other hand, word choices of 'to ask' or 'to request' tend to create some kind of enforcement. The word choices of 'to ask' or 'to request' tend to create an impression that a certain instruction or rule must be obeyed strictly. There is a sense of authoritarianism conveyed by these two words. Circling back to the idea of warmth, togetherness, friendliness and informal atmospheres, these two words of 'to ask' and 'to request' might share less with these values. The translation in fact communicates the messages without sending out the idea of some tension, intimidation or enforcement. The word 'need' on the other hand, conveys a message that the management of The Sacred Monkey Forest Sanctuary Ubud engages the visitors to work together in creating this place as a non-smoking area. This place explicitly states that they are in need of support from the visitors instead of enforcing them to do the required or expected action of not smoking. The word choice of 'need' can be realized creating a sense of solidarity that does not only involve the management of this place but the participation from the visitors as well in achieving the goal or the targeted action. This translation is very clever at warning the visitors in a less intimidating manner. This translation clearly shows that there is a change in the point of view on how the management of this place expresses their demand or expectations toward the visitors.

4.1.4 SL: Terima Kasih Atas Kerja **Samanya**

TL: Thank You for **Your** Cooperation.

The above translation also proves that the translation for this first public sign is natural. The suffix in bold-*nya* is not translated literally by using the article 'the' or the possessive pronoun 'its' right before the word 'cooperation' in the TL. The translator in fact utilizes the word 'your' to transfer the meaning -*nya*. If the TL were 'Thank you for the or its cooperation' then it would have sounded unnatural. Another interesting word choice observed from the SL is the fact that the writer seems to create a less direct impression by selecting the suffix -*nya*. The possible alternative word choice to be put right there is '*Anda*,' which makes the sentence read '*Terima kasih atas kerja sama Anda*.' This word of '*Anda*' is substituted by the suffix -*nya*. The suffix -*nya* is chosen probably with the intention to blend in the addressed audiences of varied ages. For example, '*Anda*' sounds very formal for maybe an eleven-year-old visitor. Even though this word '*Anda*' is not selected or explicitly stated in the SL, the translator seems to be capable of communicating this concealed notion by using 'your' as the translation. In addition, the word 'your' in the TL indicates a sense of participation from visitors in making sure that this action goes well. There is a change in terms of how the object is viewed differently in the SL and the TL. The object is stated explicitly in the TL meanwhile it seems to be purposely stated 'vaguely' or less direct in the SL.

These three analyses for Data 4.1.2, 4.1.3 and 4.1.4 show that the translator applies Modulation as the translation procedure in translating this first public sign. The distinctive feature observed from these three analyses is the fact that there is a change in the point of view in each of the translations. Data 4.1.2 shows that there is a change or different ways of positioning the visitors in the SL and the TL. Moreover, a change in the point of view is also observed on Data 4.1.3 in reflecting the sense of demand expressed by the SL and the TL. Meanwhile, the way the object is perceived on Data 4.1.4 is also different. The SL states the object in a less direct way, while the TL explicitly states the object. The way the readers view the object is therefore clearly shifting. The idea of a change in the point of view goes in line with the core concept of this translation procedure, which can be observed from this explanation as follow.

Modulation is a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view. This change can be justified when, although a literal, or even transposed, translation results in a grammatically correct utterance, it is considered unsuitable, unidiomatic or awkward in the TL. (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000, p.89).

The above quotation perfectly addresses the issues observed in these last three analyses. If there were no changes in the point of view, these three translations could still have been grammatically correct; however, the translation would have been unsuitable or awkward. Addressing young visitors with greetings of the ‘honorable’ or the ‘respectable’ shown on Data 4.1.2 clearly sounds ‘way too much’ and very unnatural. By applying this Modulation, the translator does not only transfer the message well but also assures the target audiences will feel comfortable accepting the process of transferring the meaning in the SL into the TL without sacrificing the context and sense of understanding of the TL audiences’ cultural background. The choice of using ‘Dearest’ in fact can articulate a sense of welcome to every visitor of all ages without creating an awkwardness or state of cringing.

The second public sign is found at the entrance of Petulu Village, which is famously known for its main attraction of *Kokokan*, Heron Bird Colony Watch. This public sign consists of two clauses and there is a grammatical error identified in its second English clause translation.



Figure 2: Data 4.2 - Public Sign 2

4.2.1 SL: Selamat Datang Di Desa Petulu

TL: Welcome to Petulu village,

The translation of the first clause above does not have any grammatical errors. The translator seems to apply Transposition as the translation procedure in transferring the meaning from the SL into the TL. The clue can be identified from the way the translator translates the last two words, which are ‘*desa Petulu*.’ Instead of opting for the Direct Translation method, the translator seems to make a change in the grammatical category. If the translator opts for the Direct Translation, the alternative translation would have been ‘Welcome to the village of Petulu.’ However, the translator does not follow the structure or the form of the SL, the translator switches the position of ‘*desa*’ and ‘*Petulu*.’ The noun phrase ‘*desa Petulu*’ is translated into ‘Petulu village.’ The core noun in this phrase is ‘village,’ while the modifier is the word ‘*Petulu*.’ This translation shows that there is a change in the grammatical category without altering the meaning of the text. Vinay & Darbelnet in Venuti (2000) highlights this principle of Transposition procedure as follow.

The method called transposition involves replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message... From a stylistic point of view, the base and the transposed expressions do not necessarily have the same value. Translators must, therefore, choose to carry out a transposition if the translation thus obtained fits better into the utterance. (p. 88).

The second English clause translation appears to have an error, which can be identified by the word ‘nested.’ The SL active word of ‘*bersarangnya*’ is translated into a passive voice - ‘nested.’ In fact, the translator seems to miss an important component that can actually serve as a clue showing that the translator should not have opted for passive voice in translating this. The important component referred here is the suffix *-nya* at the end of the word ‘*bersarang*.’ The word ‘*bersarang*’ means ‘to nest’ in English. Suffix *-nya* has a strong connection with the preceding word of ‘*tempat*’ or ‘place’ at the beginning of this second clause. The phrase ‘*tempat tinggal*’ means ‘a place to stay’ in English. Suffix *-nya* at the end of the word ‘*bersarang*’ is the substitution for the word ‘*tempat*.’ The original form of ‘*bersarangnya*’ is actually ‘*tempat bersarang*,’ therefore; there should have been the word ‘*tempat*’ before the word

'bersarang.' The complete sentence without the suffix *-nya* is '*tempat tinggal dan tempat bersarang burung Bangau (Kokokan).*'

4.2.2 SL: Tempat Tinggal Dan Bersarangnya Burung Bangau (Kokokan)

TL: Place & Nested of Herons.

When we look at data 4.2.2 above, specifically the SL, the second word of '*tempat*' before the word '*bersarang*' is substituted with the suffix *-nya*. The logical reason behind this decision might be as an attempt to avoid the redundancy in repeating the word '*tempat*' twice in one clause. Therefore, the word '*bersarangnya*' should not be translated by the passive voice since the information conveyed by the word '*bersarangnya*' is the 'place to nest' or the 'place of nesting'. Translating '*bersarangnya*' into a passive voice of 'nested' can then be realized as a not so appropriately correct way of translating it. The alternative English translation for the second clause can in fact be one of these.

- Alternative 1 : where Herons stay and nest.
- Alternative 2 : a place of staying and nesting for Herons.
- Alternative 3 : a place for Herons to stay and nest.

These three alternative translations can be said to be grammatically correct by utilizing the active voice and being able to re-express the original meaning in the SL into the TL. One of the factors, which might cause the grammatical error in the TL is the fact that the translator tends to transfer the meaning in the second clause by applying the procedure of Literal Translation. The common problems caused by the application of this procedure is making the translation structurally inappropriate, having no a corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the TL or having a corresponding expression, but not within the same register. Data 4.2.2 can be a real example proving on how the application of a certain translation procedure can affect the grammatical correctness of the translation product. A change of grammatical category like the one opted for by the translator in translating the first clause or data 4.2.1 might be an appropriate solution in making sure the translation can be read and accepted, and having an appropriate accuracy, which can be identified from its grammar.

Another interesting notion can be observed from the third public sign, which is found in front of the local art shop in Ubud. The interesting part from this sign is on the phrase of 'Morning Price.'



Figure 3: Data 4.3 - Public Sign 3

Grammatically speaking, there is nothing wrong with this phrase specifically or the entire phrase constructions on this sign in general, however the question raised is whether the English speakers are able to understand the message being conveyed by this phrase 'Morning Price.' This phrase can be translated into Indonesian as '*Harga Pagi.*' Local sellers believe that successfully making a first sale in the morning can bring good luck for the rest of the sales in a whole day. Therefore, it is really important to make a sale in the morning, even though the profit generated might not be much. Local sellers in general do not mind selling their products very cheaply in the morning to make sure that the prospective buyers are willing to make a purchase in the morning. There is a popular belief among the local sellers that if the first sale is not made until midday, there will be no sales for that particular day since it symbolizes a sign of bad luck. The 'Morning Price' is commonly associated with being easy to bargain, a good deal or cheap price. The translation process for this sign is not only all about translating linguistic features but also transferring the cultural information from the SL into the TL. No wonder English speakers may find this phrase of 'Morning Price' unfamiliar since they may not share the same belief system or values as the local sellers do with the analogy of morning and price.

It can be realized that the translation of this phrase 'Morning Price' from the SL version of '*Harga Pagi*' is unnatural. It can be read but hardly be understood and accepted by the TL audiences, who are English speakers. The translator

appears to apply Transposition as the translation procedure in translating this phrase. There is a change in the grammatical category. The change can be noticed in how the translator switches the position of the core noun and the modifier from the one stated by the SL. Even though the equivalence for each of the words is found in English, the meaning does not really transfer adequately. This inadequacy impacts the level of acceptability as well as the level of accuracy on how this message needs to be perceived. This inadequacy also is shown to be the factor causing the unnaturalness of this translation. The alternative translation procedure, which can be proposed here is the procedure of Adaptation. The nature of this type of translation procedure seems to go in line with the issue encountered by this public sign, which is the cultural meaning transfer. Vinay & Darbelnet (2000) explain the nature of the translation procedure of Adaptation as follow.

With this seventh method we reach the extreme limit of translation: it is used in those cases where the type of situation being referred to by the SL message is unknown in the TL culture. In such cases translators have to create a new situation that can be considered as being equivalent. Adaptation can, therefore, be described as a special kind of equivalence, a situational equivalence (p. 90-91).

Opting for another way in transferring the idea of good luck by making the first sale in the morning is what the translator may want to do to provide a natural and better translation. Therefore, the closest adaptation for '*Harga Pagi*' may appear to be the 'Early Bird Sale.' Western culture believes that birds are the very first creatures who notice the sunrise; therefore, they are believed to be the very first creatures to wake up very early in the morning as well. There is even a proverb in English saying, 'The early bird gets the worm.' This proverb indicates that one who arrives or shows up first has the best chance for success. The notion of success here obviously can be associated with the idea of luck in making sales in the business world. 'Early Bird' therefore plays an important role in guiding the TL audiences in accepting the intended message being communicated by this third public sign. 'Early Bird' resonates quite similar sentiment or values with the idea of '*Harga Pagi*' in Indonesian language. The phrase 'Morning Price' should have been translated as 'Early Bird Discount' or 'Early Bird Sale' in order to attract and inform the prospective buyers that the sellers are giving a super special discount for them if they are making a purchase early in the morning. Therefore, Adaptation is clearly the appropriate translation procedure, which needs to be applied in translating this public sign, specifically the 'Morning Price' part.

The fourth public sign also offers another unique experience in understanding the art and challenges of conducting the translation process. This public sign is informing visitors to Ubud about a man called Ketut Liyer, who is known as a Balinese traditional healer. He is also known to inherit the skills of traditional medicine and palm reading. The unique part about this public sign is the phrase 'Medicine Man.'

'Medicine Man' can be understood but this phrase does not feel natural for English speakers. The phrase 'Medicine Man' is not a commonly used phrase. Some English speakers may think this is an ancient or poetic way to refer to a doctor without further explanation in regard to their specialization or expertise in the medical world. The phrase 'Medicine Man' was long ago associated with the tradition from Native American history or culture. Therefore utilizing this 'Medicine Man' can be very confusing to some as this phrase connects with varied understandings and perceptions. The assumption, which can be drawn here, is the translator may want to translate the Indonesian version of '*Tukang Obat*.' The word '*tukang*' is translated into 'man,' meanwhile the word '*obat*' is translated into 'medicine' in English. The word '*Tukang Obat*' indicates that a person is selling different types of medicine. This person might be believed to have a good knowledge to sell as well as to recommend which types of medicine are suitable for patients with particular health problems. The translator seems to utilize Transposition as the translation procedure in translating this phrase. A change in the grammatical category is conducted in making sure the closest meaning expressed in the TL. The position of core noun of '*tukang*' (man) is switched to the back being preceded by the word '*obat*' (medicine). In spite of this effort, the translation produced still evokes a sense of unnaturalness. The other option, which can be adopted to cope with this issue, is to find another phrase or expression, which possesses the closest equivalence to the profession of Ketut Liyer.



Figure 4: Data 4.4 - Public Sign 4

Instead of using the phrase of 'Medicine Man,' the translator can opt for other phrases in English; for instance, 'Shaman' and 'Traditional Healer.' These two can be regarded as the more appropriate options. Applying the concept of Modulation for translating this phrase can be done by changing the point of view in viewing the nature of this profession. The concept of 'Shaman' and 'Traditional Healer' might have differences compared to the 'Medicine Man.' The point of view about the 'Medicine Man' might be limited to the state of a figure selling, distributing or recommending medicines to other people. Meanwhile, the view people have when it comes to the 'Shaman' is a figure or a practitioner who conducts religious practices as well as interacting with a spirit world in order to redirect spiritual energies for healing purposes or some other purposes about spiritual and physical well-being. On the other hand, the phrase of 'Traditional Healer' is commonly viewed as a practitioner whose expertise is in traditional healing methods utilizing natural herbs and spices, holistic therapies and ancient wisdom to cure physical and mental illness. These two phrases of 'Shaman' and 'Traditional Healer' sound more natural compared to the phrase of 'Medicine Man' as well as articulating the intended meaning of what type of services or experiences Ketut Liyer offers to his clients. Changing the way how we picture or view a particular thing in one language to further re-express it in another language serves as the main nature of the Modulation procedure. This fourth public sign shows that a change in point of view provides an opportunity for the translators to accurately render the same situation or phenomenon in a different way, yet the meaning is still managed adequately well.

This fifth public sign shows another example on how strong the SL (Indonesian) linguistic feature influences the translation process. Therefore, awkwardness is inevitable in understanding the intended message of this public sign.



Figure 5: Data 4.5 - Public Sign 5

This above public sign is found in front of one of the tourist information offices in Ubud. This company offers varied services, namely transportation, reservation for accommodation as well as leisure activities. One of the services captured from this public sign is read 'Daily Coach Tour.' At a first glance, this phrase may cause a confusion to some. The word 'coach' creates an unnatural nuance. The translator may intend to inform that this company offers a daily tour with a tour guide included in the package. Instead of using this phrase of 'Daily Coach Tour,' the translator could indeed opt for this alternative - 'Daily Guided Tour.' The unnatural nuance addressed previously exists because these two words (guided and coach) possess a slightly different notion in this context. When it comes to tour activity, the word 'guide' is a person who literally guides the entire activity, being known as a tour guide. No one will likely address the person in charge of this job as a 'coach.' In addition, the word 'coach' has a strong association with the idea of teaching or training other people in a particular skill. This entire context situation obviously does not require a sense of mentorship, which is often associated with the word 'coach.' Most tourists reserve this service to enjoy the leisure activity without expecting any forms of coaching. They simply require an itinerary along with a tour guide, who will assist the entire tour experience. Therefore, this English translation can be regarded as an unnatural one.

The translator, moreover, seems to apply the procedure of Calque in translating this phrase 'Daily Coach Tour.' Below is provided two possible SLs, from which the TL may have been translated into.

4.5.1 (The Possible) SL 1: Tur Harian Berpemandu

(The Possible) SL 2: Tur Harian Dengan Pemandu

TL: Daily Coach Tour

The principal of this type of Calque procedure as a special kind of borrowing whereby a language borrows an expression form of another, but then translates literally each of its elements (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000). The translator obviously translates each word, however the position for these three words is adjusted to the English syntactical construction. The core noun is the word 'Tour' which locates at the very end, meanwhile the modifiers for this phrase, 'Daily Coach', appear preceding the core noun. If the translator did not literally translate each word in the SL, the TL would have simply been 'Daily Tour' without another modifier of 'coach' in between. The translator may think it is a necessary to insert an additional piece of information that the tour package does include a person, who will be in charge of the tour activity. This characteristic of translating each word from the SL into the TL with an adjustment in its syntactical construction appears to be one logical reason in identifying the application of Calque for this data. The application of this procedure can then be regarded as one of the factors contributing to the grammatical errors in this public sign. There are at least two grammatical errors identified.

The word 'coach' between the word 'daily' and the word 'tour' reflects the grammatical errors as this word should have been in the form of past participle. This past participle form will then indicate that there is a piece of information included within the entire phrase, in this case the tour guide is included within the service. Moreover, another obvious grammatical error is in the phrase 'Sight Seeing.' This should have been written as one single word 'Sightseeing' instead of being broken down into two words. The entire message that the translator may want to express through this public sign is the fact that this company offers a taxi service as well as an activity or a tour to do the sightseeing with a tour guide provided.

These five public signs show how intricate the translation process can be. There are a number of crucial aspects, which involve in the process of re-expressing the intended meaning from the SL into the TL. Linguistic and cultural aspects can be realized as two of the most crucial aspects contributing the quality of the translation product. Linguistic aspect assists the translator to communicate the messages from two different languages; meanwhile the cultural aspect regulates the way this information is being articulated. Analyzing these five public signs also provides an opportunity to really understand the beauty of language and culture and how they connect to each other to enrich the insights or the understanding human beings have about people and life. This research also discovers specific findings concerning the occurrence of the linguistic errors as well as the translation procedures applied in translating these five public signs. Below are the summary of these two findings, which also answer the two formulated problems of this research. Among these five selected public signs, it is found that the occurrence of the grammatical errors is identified in the first, second and the fifth public signs.

TABLE 1
THE OCCURRENCE OF THE GRAMMATICAL ERRORS ON THESE FIVE PUBLIC SIGNS

No	Data	The Occurrence of the Grammatical Errors
1	Public Sign 1	Found
2	Public Sign 2	Found
3	Public Sign 3	Not Found
4	Public Sign 4	Not Found
5	Public Sign 5	Found

As the second finding of this research, it is found that among seven translation procedures proposed by Vinay & Darbelnet (2000), four procedures are identified being applied in translating these five public signs.

TABLE 2
THE APPLICATION OF THE TRANSLATION PROCEDURES

No	Data	Translation Procedures
1	Public Sign 1	Transposition Modulation
2	Public Sign 2	Transposition Literal Translation
3	Public Sign 3	Transposition
4	Public Sign 4	Transposition
5	Public Sign 5	Calque

V. CONCLUSIONS

In compliance with the two formulated problems of this research, a number of findings can be concluded. As the first conclusion of this research concerning the occurrence of the grammatical errors, it is found that the first, second and the fifth public signs do have grammatical errors in the translation process. As the second conclusion of this research concerning the translation procedures applied in translating these five public signs, it is found among seven translation procedures being referred to, only four procedures are identified as being applied. Those four procedures are Modulation, Transposition, Literal Translation and Calque. Another interesting finding, which can be discovered in this research, is the fact that the application of the translation procedures for a certain context situation may contribute towards the quality of the translation products. The translator's decision in applying the appropriate translation procedures and the translator's good understanding in both linguistic and cultural aspects certainly determine the level of readability, acceptability as well as the level of accuracy of the translation products. Likewise, the inappropriate application of the translation procedures may appear to be the contributing factors in causing the grammatical errors in the translation process.

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Death—An Invincible Fact of Life: A Comparative Study Between Emily Dickinson and Louise Gluck

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Abstract—The theme of death or mortality has been a recurrent theme in the works of many writers in literature. From time to time, various authors have discussed death in their works in different ways presenting it from different perspectives. It is a universal theme not confined to any specific group of people, country, or religion. This study focuses on the presentation of death in the poems of two female American poets Emily Dickinson (1830–1886) and Louise Gluck (1943 till today). Though both these female poets belong to two different centuries, the presentation of death in their works plays a dominant role. The presentation of death in the poems of Emily Dickinson makes the readers ponder over the concept of death from various angles. Similarly, the end of human life is one of the central themes of the poems of Louise Gluck. The discussion of death takes different shapes in the poetry of Louise Gluck. For this study, two pieces have been selected from the collection of Emily Dickinson and two pieces have been chosen from the collection of Louise Gluck. Hence, this present study aims to show the similarities and the differences between the concept and presentation of death in the works of these two leading female poets in the selected pieces.

Index Terms—comparison, concept, death, differences, poem

I. INTRODUCTION

The theme of death has inspired poets in all ages, and in literature, it is a recurrent theme. Addonizio and Laux (1997) have viewed death as a mystery since it has been imagined as nothingness, a journey to another state, or a prelude to the next life which has inspired poets to meditate profoundly. From time to time, studies have been conducted on the concept of death by various authors and poets. As death is inevitable, many poets such as John Donne, Dylan Thomas, T.S. Eliot, and W.B. Yeats have presented it in a grave tone. Among these poets, the obsession of John Donne with death is striking. Shin (2016) writes that Donne does not think of death as the end of life and surprisingly expresses the view that the way to defeat death is only through death. In a study by Daghamin (2017), it is stated that death is something that comes to us suddenly without any preparation or expectation, so it triggers our interest to a great extent. From time to time, it has been explored from different angles in literary pieces. It has always played an important role in literature. Death surrounds humans and their everyday life. It is a fact which can never be denied. Based on this, the researchers were interested in conducting a study between the two female American leading poets who have portrayed the theme of death in their pieces. In their poems, both poets have depicted the harsh and grim aspects of death. It has been shown as the ultimate destination of human life with nothing to glorify it. Therefore, this study explores how these two poets have presented death, showing the similarities in their presentation.

A. Louise Gluck

In literature, the theme of death has a very significant role in the works of many authors. Many poets and writers have presented the theme of death in various ways and from different perspectives. According to Rehman and Ahmed (2016), it has been viewed as one of the biggest mysteries for human beings. It has always drawn the interest of writers as it remains mysterious but inevitable. Death has been a prevalent theme in the poems of John Donne, Dylan Thomas, T.S. Eliot, and W.B. Yeats. Each of these poets has different approaches towards death. T.S. Eliot (1922) one of the major 20th century poets, views death as a process to reach God and mourns the spiritual death of the modern people. On the other hand, W.B. Yeats (Ross, 2009) the modern Irish poet exalts death in his poems. Though these poets present the theme of death in their poems from various angles, they all agree that death is the final destination of human life.

Louise Gluck is an American poet and essayist born on April 22, 1943, in New York City. She has won numerous major literary awards, including the Nobel Prize for Literature in 2020. She was praised for her poetic voice that contains austere beauty and marks individual existence as universal. The themes of her focus were trauma, desire, and nature expressing clearly sadness and isolation. By going through her verse, we are reminded of Emily Dickinson whose pain reinvented American poetry. In the opinion of Biespiel (1992), Louise Gluck is the heir to Dickinson's lyric empire of despair and sensation.

B. Emily Dickinson

Emily Elizabeth Dickinson, an American lyric poet, was born on December 10, 1830, Amherst, Massachusetts U.S. and died on May 15, 1886, Amherst, who lived in seclusion and had a unique brilliance of style and integrity of vision (Leiter, 2007).

As a poet with varying writing styles and extra-ordinary talent, she occupied a very prestigious position in the field of American literature. Her poems deal with various themes. She stands in sharp contrast to her great contemporaries like Whitman, Emerson, Hawthorne, and Thoreau (Aldalabeeh, 2018). She wrote poetry questioning the nature of death, immortality, trinity, religion, nature, love, God, etc. However, it is said that Dickinson is obsessed with death, which clearly reflects in her poems (Daghamin, 2017).

The theme of death is recurrent in the works of many poets, but Dickinson is renowned for her contribution to American literature for her unique presentation of Death (Strubel, 2014). According to Johnson (1955), "Emily Dickinson did so in hers to an unusual degree" (p. 203). Her knowledge of death is demonstrated in more than five hundred lyrics. "As she surveyed the broad universe and society itself, Emily perceived that death remained the one free agent, greater than nature, and second only to God" (Goyal, 1991). A thorough analysis of her poems show that there are four major categories: poems dealing with death and immortality, poems dealing with the physical aspects of death, poems that personify death, and elegiac poems. In a study conducted by Daghamin (2017), the theme of death in the poetry of Dickinson has attracted large critical attention. Death has preoccupied her life-long attention. In a study conducted by Liu (2016), Dickinson's poems are short but also meaningful. But the concept of death has found an important place in her poems. Whicher (1938) states that Dickinson "recurred to it more frequently than to any other" (p. 298).

II. THEMATIC ANALYSIS OF THE POEMS

The end of human life is one of the central themes of Gluck's poetry. Her rather dark and sinister writing style lends itself to the discussion of such a terminal fate. However, the discussion of death comes in different shapes. The poem, *The Fear of Burial* gives a bleak and depressing picture of death. The first stanza of the poem shows the tragedy of death when the poet writes

*In the empty field, in the morning
The body waits to be claimed
The spirit sits beside it, on a small rock-
Nothing comes to give it form again.* (The Garden, 1976)

Human beings do not adapt to changes easily. When they go through any changes, it takes time for them to adjust and accept the changes. After the body has experienced death, it has already made a permanent change, but the spirit has not. Rather than leaving quickly after death, the spirit stays with the body, sitting "beside it, on a small rock..." (Line no. 3, *The Fear of Burial*, 1976) as if it is unwilling to leave. It is still reluctant to leave the body alone as if it wants to come back to complete its unfulfilled desires.

In the second stanza, the poet asks the readers to reflect on the dead body's loneliness making the readers feel as if the body still has feelings. The readers even feel the loneliness of the body when they reflect upon the situation. It seems as if the spirit still desires to stay with what used to be its home when it takes the form of a shadow and wraps itself around the body. The spirit at this point in the poem knows that nothing will come "to give it form again..." (Line no. 4, *The Fear of Burial*) but still tries to resist the inevitable change it must make in its "long journey." It is said that humans have a natural tendency to feel like this when they undergo any permanent change and they still have the desire to hold on to familiar things. They do not think about what occurs between the moment of death and the burial of the body. The few people who have pondered on death deeply associate the dead body with feelings of loneliness and fear. There is no beauty in death. Once life ends, there is no turning back.

Similarly, the poem *The Drowned Children* (*Descending Figure*- 1980) is a tragic poem about the death of a group of children drowned in a pond. The poetic persona narrates the story in a detached way. Her tone shows that there is a mood of acceptance in place of lamenting the loss. According to Daniel Morris (2006), the author "describes the gradual process of the dissolution and silencing of the anonymous children into an icy pond" (p. 4). The poet's attitude shows that there is no point in mourning or lamenting the loss. The poem also presents the indifferent attitude of the people towards the incident. The poem starts with

*You see, they have no judgment.
So it's natural that they should drown.*

It creates the somber mood of the poem. The poem is not going to lament the loss. In the first stanza of the poem, the poet says the children were ignorant of what they were doing leading to their death. The poet says death is always egalitarian in nature and that is why she accepted those children without thinking much about their age. In the end, the poet says, the pond is responsible for their death as she has urged them to jump into it. It has engulfed the children in its 'manifold dark arms'.

Glück describes the tragic death of the children in the first stanza. Like a passive onlooker of things, the poet addresses readers to imagine how the incident appears to her. According to the poetic persona, death is natural. The children are destined to be drowned as they are ignorant and innocent. Their death is shocking at first hand, but it is also unavoidable. As those children ignored reality playfully, they faced such an unfortunate ending. In this stanza, the poet also presents how they died. After accidentally falling into the pond, the chilly winter has frozen their bodies, and later their bodies were found in that state.

In the second stanza, the poet talks about death. The poetic persona thinks those children would have died differently. Their death at such a young age is tragic. The poet scorns the attitude of death. According to the poet, the children faced this tragic ending because of their innocence. They failed to sense reality. They failed to predict the danger ahead of them, and it led to their demise. The last few lines of the stanza heighten the tragic mood of the poem. The cold reference to "their bodies" in the last line represents the transience of life. In the poem's last stanza, the poet visualizes their journey to the watery world in her poetic imagination. Their souls go back from where they came. The children are no more, and so there is nothing to grieve for. The poet wishes that their souls might rest in peace in heaven in the last three lines of the third stanza.

*What are you waiting for
come home, come home, lost
in the waters, blue and permanent.*

The pond is like a mother to them who calls to their children and they have no other choice but to respond to their mother's call. In the poem, the poet talks about death as a natural phenomenon and no overflowing emotions come from her heart regarding the death of those children. Hence, a close similarity can be noticed in the attitude of the poet's tone in the poem *The Fear of Burial* and *The Drowned Children*. In the poems, the theme of death comes in different shapes. She does not present death as something positive. There is no beauty in death and it is shown as something final and unavoidable. One can do nothing but accept death when it comes.

However, the poems of Emily Dickinson are no exception. She is well known for her repeated presentation of death in her poems. The theme of death also haunted other nineteenth-century poets such as Keats and Whitman, but none can be compared with Emily Dickinson's obsession in her reflection on the theme of death (Vendler, 2010). According to Anderson (1960), death and immortality were "the two most profound themes that challenged her poetic powers" (p. 284). Numerous studies have been done on the presentation of death in her poems. This section of the paper will discuss a couple of poems in which death plays an important role.

In a study by Daghamin (2017), it is stated that in some poems, Dickinson portrays death as a cruel personal enemy and as a brutal killer who attacks his victim without any permission or mercy. In the poem, *A Clock Stopped*, the poet shows a picture of how her subject suffers in the dying moments. Here, the victim suffers severe pain because of death. In the first stanza, she conveys the pain of losing dear ones and suggests the distance of the dead from the living (Vendler, 2010).

*A clock stopped- not the mantel's
Geneva's farthest skill
Cant' put the puppet bowing
That just now dangled still.*

It is about a clock suddenly coming to a stop. The poem deals with death and its deep philosophical and religious implications. Here, the dying person is compared to a moving clock- the conventional comparison of life to a clock. The last two lines, "*Can't put the Puppet ... dangled still,*" suggest the sudden shift from movement to immobility. The puppet, which is still now moving, comes to a sudden stop and dangles still. The puppet image makes the readers reflect on the grim reality of death. The master craftsman has all the power to control it as it is moving and quick with life. But when it dangles lifeless and motionless, ironically, even his power and skill are ineffective. When human life is compared to a mechanical device like a clock and its sudden stopping, it clearly shows the helplessness of human beings in front of death. When death overtakes someone, no craft or skill can save that person.

The second stanza deals with the physical aspects of the body at the time of death. It is said that it focuses on the moment of death and the death throes and convulsions of the puppet. The body is compared to a trinket, a trifling ornament. The image of the clock and the figures remind people of the minutes and seconds of human lives gradually running out (Sarkar, 2020). The third stanza is concerned with the spiritual aspect of death. When human life reaches eternity, it cannot be revived. The grim comparison to a mechanical device emphasizes his meaninglessness' (Goyal, 1991). Despite the best efforts, human life cannot be restored.

The last stanza refers to the *Decades of Arrogance of the Shopman*, implying the shopman's arrogance who had guaranteed the life of the clock. However, when it fails, even the arrogance of the shopman has become meaningless. This reminds the readers of the lines in Robert Herrick's poem *To Daffodils* where he says that we all die just like the

daffodil flowers. We grow, decay, and move towards death, never to be found again. Similarly, the human heart stops, too, one day. According to Goyal (1991), death baffles all human efforts to understand its meaning.

The poem *I Felt a Funeral in My Brain* (1896), another popular poem by Emily Dickinson, presents a manifestly disturbing portrayal of death. The verse shows the terrible struggle of the separation of the body from the soul. There is no hope of immortality. According to critics, 'the physical death symbolizes spiritual decease and perhaps a momentary insight into the nature of infinity' (Goyal, 1991). The emphasis on dying sensations and failing powers suggests death's dreadful isolation. On another level, the initial phase, 'in my Brain' hints that this physical death represents some terrible emotional pain or loss that brings an overwhelming sense of despair. Since the soul has lost its reason for living, the person has stopped existing. The poem's theme is not the funeral, real or imaginary, but it dwells upon losing one's grip on sanity. The theme is presented through the medium of the funeral image. According to Emily Dickinson, the funeral is the saddest experience in human life.

*I felt a Funeral, in my Brain,
And Mourners to and fro
Kept treading – treading – till it seemed
That Sense was breaking through –*

The scene opens with the mourners filing past the exposed body. The use of a funeral as a metaphor symbolically stands for the death of rationality. A funeral directly implies death and also a formal event where rules and procedures are counted. It is a process of moving from life to death which is similar to moving from sanity to madness. These mourners sit down and the service takes place, featuring first a drum beating and then – following the creaking lift of the lid of a box – a sound that reminds the speaker of a bell (suggesting the tolling of a funeral bell to announce someone's death). It is said that while reading, the speaker seems to collide with the entire world, until the speaker's mind is completely shut down and the speaker can no longer understand anything. The poem ends as the speaker describes what comes after this condition.

The speaker is part of the funeral. Monteiro (1959) concludes that the poem combines both triumph and failure, for man must return to reality after breaking through the barriers of sense into infinity.

III. DISCUSSION

It can be seen that there are striking similarities between the presentation of death by Emily Dickinson and Louise Gluck. Both Emily Dickinson and Louise Gluck see death as a natural phenomenon that brings pain, fear, agony, and suffering. In their poems, death has been depicted with all its harshness and gruesome aspects, leaving the readers to reflect on the cruelty of death.

Both the poems *The Fear of Burial* and *I Felt a Funeral in my Brain* describe the fear of being buried. It gives a bleak and depressing picture of death and there is nothing to glorify about death. It also shows the painful struggle of the spirit to leave behind the body. In the poem, *The Fear of Burial*, the body has experienced death and has undergone a permanent change, but the spirit of the deceased has not. Rather than leaving quickly after death, the spirit stays with the body, sitting "beside it, on a small rock..." (Line no. 3, *The Fear of Burial*) as if it is unwilling to leave. The spirit struggles to leave the dead body, and it lingers to stay back with the dead body and is reluctant to accept the changes that have taken place.

Similarly, the poem *I Felt a Funeral in My Brain* presents a disturbing portrayal of death. The poem shows how the body separates from the soul through a terrible struggle. There is no hope of immortality. The poem's theme is not the funeral, real or imaginary, and it gives a clear picture of the loss of sanity to madness. When a person loses his rational powers, he is no more than a dead person. Emily Dickinson finds the funeral to be the saddest experience in human life. The presentation of the theme creates a somber and gloomy atmosphere throughout. Both the poets show the gloomy and bleak picture of death, highlighting how the soul struggles to get separated from the body. Their presentation of death is remarkable and it shows its terrifying purpose.

A similarly depressing presentation is given in the poem *The Drowned Children*, where death engulfs a group of young children who may not have any idea about death. Society and the surrounding people are very indifferent to the incident. It is fated that the innocent children will die and their destination has pulled them towards the pond and led them to their untimely death. It shows the helplessness of the young, innocent victims in front of death.

A similar attitude towards death is found in the poem *A Clock Stopped*. In the poem, the poet presents the helplessness of human beings when death strikes. Through the imagery of the clock, she shows that though death is a shocking experience of life, it is unavoidable. When it comes, there is nothing a person can do to escape from its clutches. It is the ultimate endpoint that all humans have to reach. Both these poems show that once life ends, there is no turning back.

IV. CONCLUSION

Death has remained and always will be an interesting and captivating topic in poetry and prose alike. It has always remained mysterious and will continue to remain mysterious. The theme of death plays an important role in our lives. No matter to which period the author belongs to, from time to time, various authors have presented the theme of death in

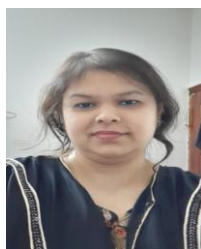
multiple shapes and colors. The theme of death undoubtedly interests both authors and readers as it is a universal theme and an undeniable fact of life. It attracts the readers' attention due to its reality and power. The two poets Louise Gluck and Emily Dickinson, whose work have been discussed in this paper, are no exception. Their effortless contribution regarding the presentation of the theme of death is remarkable. They have presented a common theme in an uncommon and extraordinary way. They have portrayed death as bleakness, gloominess, and painful. There is no angle from which death can be glorified. The way they have shown the gruesome aspect of death makes the readers ponder over its power. Hence, this paper has tried to show the similarities between these two authors regarding their selected poems that deal with the theme of death.

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Needs Analysis of Literacy Assessment Using Blended Learning for Beginner EFL Learners

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Abstract—Needs analysis is vital in assessment instrument development because assessment is of paramount importance in teaching and learning. The phenomena of technology developments influence how assessment instruments must be developed to achieve the learning objectives and outcomes. The present study aimed at conducting a needs analysis of literacy assessment using blended learning for beginner EFL learners in Bali, Indonesia. The survey-style research was carried out involving 17 English teachers from 12 public junior high schools. A questionnaire, in-depth interviews, and a focused group discussion were used to collect the data. The data were descriptively analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The study results revealed that the needs identified in assessment developments consist of the target needs that cover the necessities of assessments, including the assessment of learning, as learning, assessment for learning, wants and lacks. In addition, the learner needs in the form of authentic materials, technology-based materials, skills-based, and language inputs are all needed in developing instrument assessments. The activities and procedures for conducting assessments in the form of pedagogical and real-life tasks and procedures are required, in addition to the roles of the students as knowledge seekers, problem solvers, collaborators, critical thinkers, and creators. The identified needs were then used as the basis for the framework design. The needs analysis results conducted in this study are expected to inspire teachers in developing research-based assessment instruments in EFL instructions.

Index Terms—assessment, blended learning system, needs analysis, EFL instructions

I. INTRODUCTION

Needs analysis is essential for both teachers and students (Eslami, 2010). It leads teachers to discover the essential needs of the teaching and learning process. The primary role of needs analysis is to provide crucial data to aid teachers in making appropriate decisions. The needs analysis results help educators examine the students' target needs and learning needs (Akyel & Ozek, 2010). It is critical in establishing the appropriate learning materials/resources and assessments based on the instructions' needs and objectives, including English literacy instruction.

Literacy is a communication ability that enables a speaker to share information and comprehend what is stated. Literacy is a skill that involves the ability to receive knowledge, interpret it, and communicate it. Literacy is a term that is frequently used to refer to the fundamental ability to read and write (Padmadewi & Artini, 2018). Humans can utilize a language to obtain information or communicate when they have reading and writing abilities. Recent developments suggest that the meaning of literacy has expanded. Literacy is the ability to utilize diverse abilities, information, and skills in daily life (Damaianti, Abidin, & Rahma, 2020). Hence, every subject requires and incorporates literacy ability. Literacy is also an essential aspect of English language learning since it enables students to comprehend, create, communicate, and convey information. English literacy has a vital role in education, especially in a learning context, to achieve the learning objectives, and through literacy skills humans can survive in a globalization era (Tryanasari, Aprilia, & Cahya, 2017).

The 21st century skills were firstly introduced with the 4C concept: Critical Thinking, Collaboration, Communication, and Creativity. However, the concept was later expanded into 6Cs, in which the new 2 Cs; stand for Culture and Citizenship (Miller, 2015), or Character and Citizenship (Fullan & Duckworth, 2018). This converts the four Cs into six

Cs: critical thinking, collaboration, creativity, citizenship/culture, and character education/connection. Along with the recent development, students should be prepared to face 21st-century abilities (Nuryana, Suroyo, Nurcahyati, Setiawan, & Rahman, 2020); and have adequate literacy skills in English language. Students should integrate those skills to achieve the learning goals and be ready for the era of globalization through English literacy (Anugerahwati, 2019).

Teaching English literacy in the 21st-century learning and innovation skills has been found as challenging. Many teachers consider that assessment preparation is time-consuming and exhausting (Aliningsih & Sofwan, 2015), and requires research-based decision and development (Aziz, Yusoff, & Yaakob, 2020). Furthermore, the advent of technology in education in the twenty-first century necessitates that teachers modify their teaching and learning activities and their assessments.

The success of English literacy teaching should be conducted by delivering appropriate assessments, by which the learning process and the student's progress can be evaluated. Besides that, the assessments conducted should also allow students to do reflections either by themselves or peers. Assessments also support and improve the students' learning (Nodoushan, 2014). On the literacy side, assessment influences the quality of literacy (Damaianti, Abidin, & Rahma, 2020).

The teachers' challenges in assessment development are not only originated from the complexity of the skills to be assessed but also how technology can be incorporated into the process of teaching and learning. The alternative model used is advisedly using a blended learning system. Blended learning is defined as the teaching and learning process which is conducted through combining face-to-face and online learning activities (Li, Kay, & Markovich, 2018). These scholars acknowledge that blended learning supports and encourages the students through enhanced communication by the use of any flexible online platforms. The implementation of blended learning can help the students increase their understanding of foreign languages, such as English (Isti'anah, 2017). Thus, through blended learning, the students can improve and enhance their English literacy skills.

The importance of assessment in foreign language learning is not questionable, and its function in identifying teaching success cannot be denied. This makes assessment is of paramount importance in the process of teaching and learning. The challenges of conducting the assessment is even more nowadays because of the phenomena of having remote and online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic. Many studies investigated teachers' perceptions towards certain kinds of assessment (Eridafithri, 2015; and Zaim, Refnaldi, & Arsyad, 2020), and the implementation of certain kinds of assessment in English classroom (Aziz & Yusoff, 2016); Apsari & Haryudin, 2017); Fahmi, Pratolo, & Zahrani, 2020; Inayah, Komariah, & Nasir, 2019; Rahmawanti & Uman, 2019; Suastra & Menggo (2020), Sumardi & Muamaroh, 2020; Yulia, Husin, & Anuar, 2019). Despite the large number of studies conducted on assessment, a need analysis on what kinds of assessments are needed in order to cover the requirements of having appropriate assessment instruments in the digital era was hardly found. The scarcity of research on the need for analysis of developing instrument assessment motivates the current study. The effects of assessment may be positive or negative depending on several factors, ranging from how the assessment procedure or test is constructed to how it is used (McKay, 2006). It is expected that sound and positive effects of assessment are produced when assessments are assigned to students. For that reason, it is imperative to consider the quality of the assessment instrument used in the process of teaching and learning in order to produce positive and beneficial effects.

The first year of junior high school is the first year of formal English learning instruction in Indonesian schooling, and its success is critical for the next level of teaching and learning. It is, therefore, highly needed to carry out a need analysis study of assessment instruments, especially for beginner EFL learners. For that reason, the objectives of the present study are 1) to analyze the students' target needs and the learner need toward assessments of English literacy in learning English as the first year of junior high school, 2) to analyze the framework of assessment needed using blended learning system.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Most experts agree that human learning, training, and performance improvement initiatives should begin with a need assessment. A learning or performance gap between the current condition and the desired condition is called a need. In order to identify needs, a need assessment is required. Needs assessment is a process for figuring out how to close a learning or performance gap. It involves determining what the important needs are and how to address them. The process includes comparing the current condition to the desired condition, defining the problem or problems, understanding the behaviors and mechanisms that contribute to the current condition, determining if and how specific behaviors and mechanisms can be changed to produce the desired condition, developing solution strategies, and building support for action (Gupta, Sleezer, & Russ-Eft, 2007). Learner and target needs are recognized during a needs analysis in the teaching and learning process. The demands of learners are acknowledged as a significant factor that material designers must consider when creating educational materials. Target needs (what the learner must accomplish in the target setting) and learning needs (what the learner must undertake in order to learn) are defined by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). They point out that the target needs are necessities, lacks, and wants. The learner's desire to achieve well in goal-setting can be viewed as a necessity. Lacks also refer to a learner's failure to cope with their goal situation. The learners' expectations after completing the course are linked to their wants. Meanwhile, there are four types of learning demands: input, process, context, and learner role (Nunan, 2004).

Assessment has the power to change people's lives (Shohamy, 2001). The effects of assessment may be positive or negative depending on a number of factors ranging from the way the assessment procedure or test is constructed to the way it is used. Effective assessment procedures are assessments that have been designed to ensure, as far as possible, valid and fair information on the students' abilities and progress (McKay, 2006).

Assessment takes three approaches: assessment of learning, assessment for learning, and assessment as learning (Priyatni & Martutik, 2018). Assessment of learning (AOL) is a standard mechanism used by institutions to demonstrate their accountability to students and parents on students' achievement after completing a course. This sort of assessment occurs independently of instructional and learning activities such as midterm and end-of-semester examinations. Teachers do assessments for learning, whereas students conduct assessments for learning. Assessment as learning occurs through self-and peer-assessment. Assessment for learning (AFL) is frequently utilized in the classroom throughout the learning process to foster interaction between teachers and students and increase student motivation to learn. Stiggins (2005) describes assessment for learning as an alternative to the continual use of several assessment methods to document students' mastery of knowledge and skills compared to standards. It emphasizes the importance of utilizing various evaluation methods to ascertain mastery of previously taught concepts, knowledge, and skills. This data can guide instructors, students, and parents to decide their children's educational progress. In other words, assessment for learning is an assessment that occurs during the process of learning and involves either interactive teaching with students or student-to-student interaction.

All types of assessments are demanded in assessing students' literacy. Literacy is a broad term that refers to the capacity to read and write. In a broader sense, literacy is described as the ability to communicate through language, which includes the ability to listen, speak, read, and write, as well as the ability to think critically in real-world situations (Rintaningrum, 2009). Literacy is a real-world activity in which students apply their classroom reading and writing skills to real-world situations such as reading, writing letters to friends, reading food menus, and reading brochures (Purcell-Gates et al., 2012).

Along with the advancement of technology, literacy instruction must incorporate technology, the most prevalent of which is the blended learning method. The phrase blended learning refers to a style of learning that incorporates elements of combining or merging two distinct styles. Cheung and Hew (2011) defined blended learning as a combination of in-person and online instruction. Ramadhan, Chaeruman, and Kustandi (2018) defined blended learning as the process of effectively combining synchronous and asynchronous learning environments in order to accomplish learning objectives. Synchronous learning occurs when activities occur simultaneously and in the same or different locations, whereas asynchronous learning occurs at various times and locations (Littlejohn & Pegler, 2007). Blended learning incorporates a variety of factors, including but not limited to: methods, media, sources, environment, and learning strategies.

All of the variables as mentioned earlier (literacy, evaluation, and integrated learning) are significant areas of exploration in this study. It is hoped that exploring these variables through needs analysis will provide insight into how assessment instruments are developed for the targeted students.

III. METHOD

A. Design

This study used a survey design that involved 17 English teachers from 12 schools in Bali. The primary purpose of the design is to ascertain community demands for educational services, especially about the needs of assessment instruments required for assessing students' English literacy (Creswell, 2009).

B. Population and Sample

The population of the research was the English teachers in public junior high schools in Bali. The sample schools first of all, were chosen using a multistage cluster random sampling technique, which resulted in six schools were from the southern part of Bali, while the remaining six were from the northern part of the island. After that a simple random sampling was run to select the schools. Finally, one English teacher was invited to give consent to participate in the study.

C. Instruments

Data were gathered through a questionnaire, in-depth interview, focused group discussion, and document analysis. The questionnaire used was based on Hutchinson & Waters' (1987) requirements analysis tool. It consisted of 22 points of close-ended statements and two open points, which required the respondents to provide answers. The questionnaire was intended to explore the needs for an assessment instrument for teaching English in junior high school. The respondents were 17 English teachers from 12 junior high schools who responded to close questionnaire with two options: 'yes' or 'no'. A definite answer is needed in order to have precise needs. The respondents were asked to pick one of the two possibilities available in the consolidated statements, while the three open points require respondents to suggest needs that they believe should be added. The data from the questionnaire were then used as a guideline in an in-depth interview.

D. The Data Collecting Procedure

The study employed four stages to collect data: (1) the questionnaire administration, in which it takes approximately 30 minutes to respond; (2) the in-depth interview followed up the results of the questionnaire analysis and it was intended to seek further clarification; (3) Focused Group Discussions were conducted for one and a half hours using zoom meeting, with the purpose to collect ideas and confirmation about the framework needed ; and 4) the document study was conducted to analyze the syllabus and the textbook to identify the gaps for assessment instruments needed. During the FGD, all teachers were invited to share their knowledge of the target needs and learning needs of their pupils.

E. Data Analysis

The data were analyzed descriptively using descriptive statistics to determine the respondents' preferred options. At the same time, the findings of the interviews and FGD were analyzed qualitatively. The questionnaire results were provided numerically, whereas the in-depth interview and FGD data were presented qualitatively, as they were based on respondents' responses.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

With reference to the objectives of the present study previously mentioned, the findings of the study were categorized into two categories as the first one is the students' target needs toward assessments of English literacy in learning English as the first year of junior high school, and the second one is the framework of assessment needed using blended learning system. The findings were analyzed using Hutchinson and Waters (1987) based on the questionnaire result and the in-depth interview results. The summary of the findings can be summarized in the form of graphs as follows.

A. Target Needs

Analyzing target needs can be further described into several parts, such as the necessities of the target need on assessment instrument, lacks, kinds of wants. The summary of the findings can be described in the following graphs.

1. The Necessities of Target Needs on an Assessment Instrument

Necessities can be described as the aspects of assessments needed by the students in order to be able to achieve the objectives effectively as targeted.

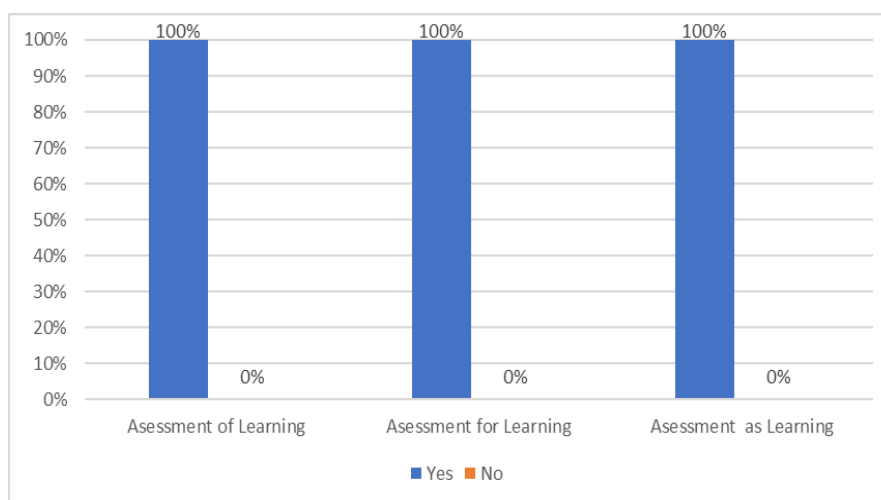


Figure 1. The Necessities of Target Needs on Assessment Instrument

Based on the results of the questionnaire, deep interviews were then conducted. The questionnaire results reveal that there are three types of assessment that need to be developed: assessment of learning, assessment for learning, and assessment of learning. All respondents agreed that all three types of assessments are highly required.

2. Lacks

Lacks can be described as what students have not mastered. This is a gap between what has been and what has not been mastered. The information about this can be summarized in Fig. 2.

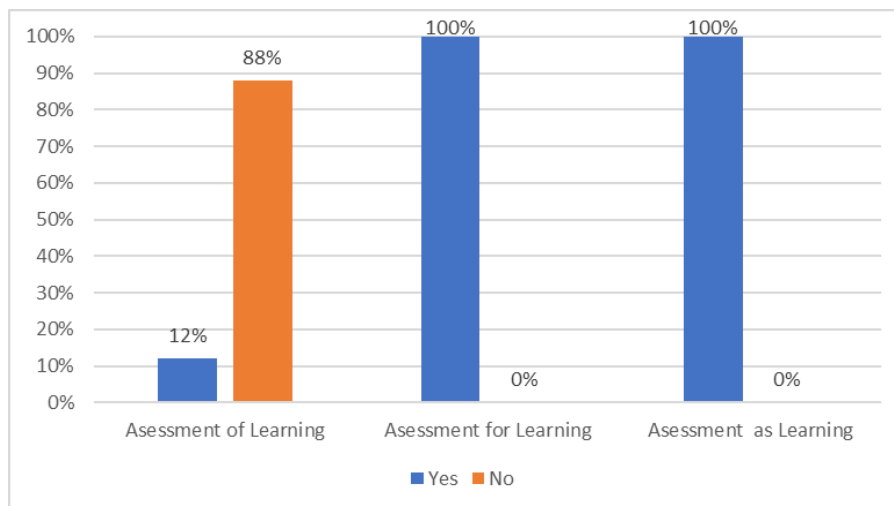


Figure 2. Lack of the Target Needs

Fig. 2 indicates the results of the questionnaire regarding lack. Not all respondents agree that the assessments of learning need to be produced; in fact, 88% chose the "No" option. Following additional deep interviews with the teachers, as validated by the experts/lecturers on TEFL and assessments, it was revealed that the teachers had already frequently employed the assessment of learning in the form of recognition tests. In other words, they chose "no" for the recognition type of assessment, while the assessments of learning that explore students' critical answers are considered highly needed. Additional interviews revealed that a variety of assessments of learning that place a premium on authentic assessments of language use are still desperately needed. The other two types of assessments, those that serve as assessments for learning (on how much feedback is required for students' progress) and those that serve as assessments for learning (on how well students can write reflections), are also regarded as critical.

3. Wants

Wants are related to the expectation from the learners after they are completing the English literacy courses. For that reason, the assessment must be able to deal with the assessments which are intended to fulfill the expectation of the students to have the ability to use English in real -life.

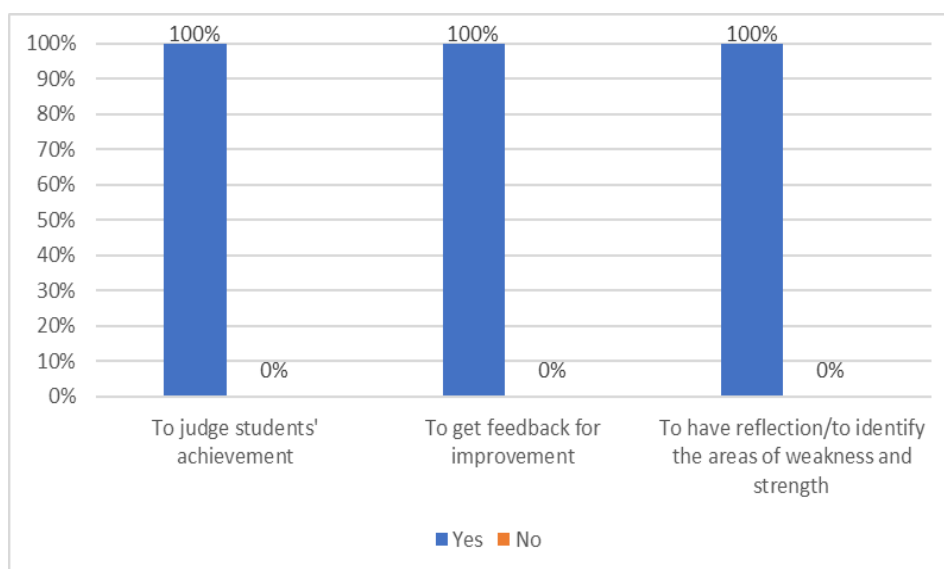


Figure 3. Aspects of Wants in the Target Need

Fig. 3 indicates the required assessments for students to be competent in using the language in use. The assessment aims to improve students' ability to use language (real-life literacy assessment), which involves the assessment to judge students' achievement, assessment instruments to get feedback for improvement, and reflections and identify the areas of weaknesses and strength. All respondents agree to these kinds of needs.

B. Learners' Needs

In addition to the target needs, the learner needs are also stated as important needs to be analyzed (Hutchinson and Waters (1987). There are several aspects of learners were analyzed: input, procedure, setting and learners' roles. Each aspect of need is summarized in the following figures.

1. Input

Input in this research is described as sources of materials needed for students in assessment. Based on the questionnaire and interview conducted there are several categories of input such as authentic material (integrated material), technology-based materials, skills-based material and also language based-input.

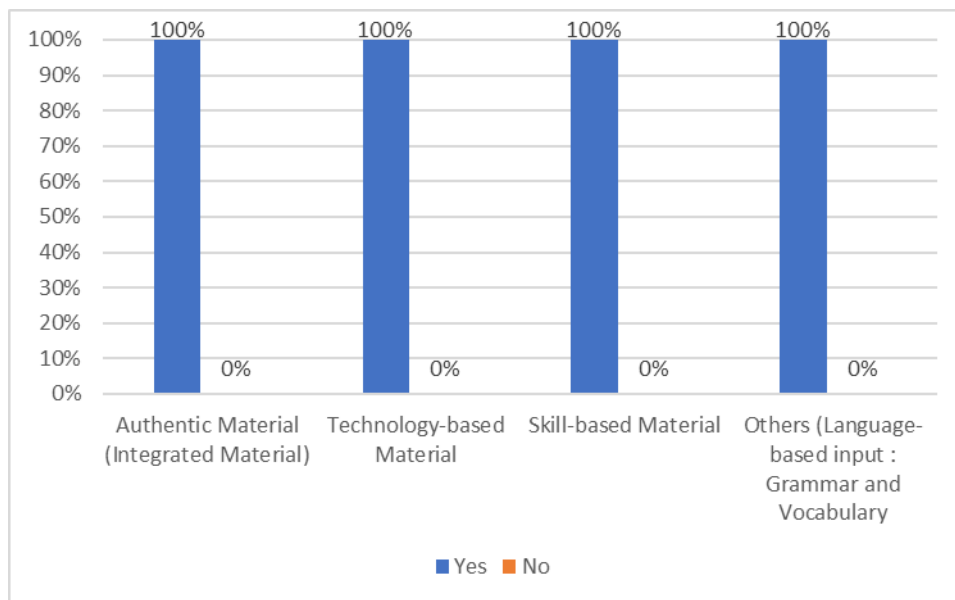


Figure 4. Aspect of Inputs in the Learners' Needs

2. Types of Activities

Types of activities refer to any tasks assigned to students to complete in order to meet the learner's needs. There are two types of literacy activities identified as being required such as pedagogical tasks-based literacy activities and real-life-based literacy activities.

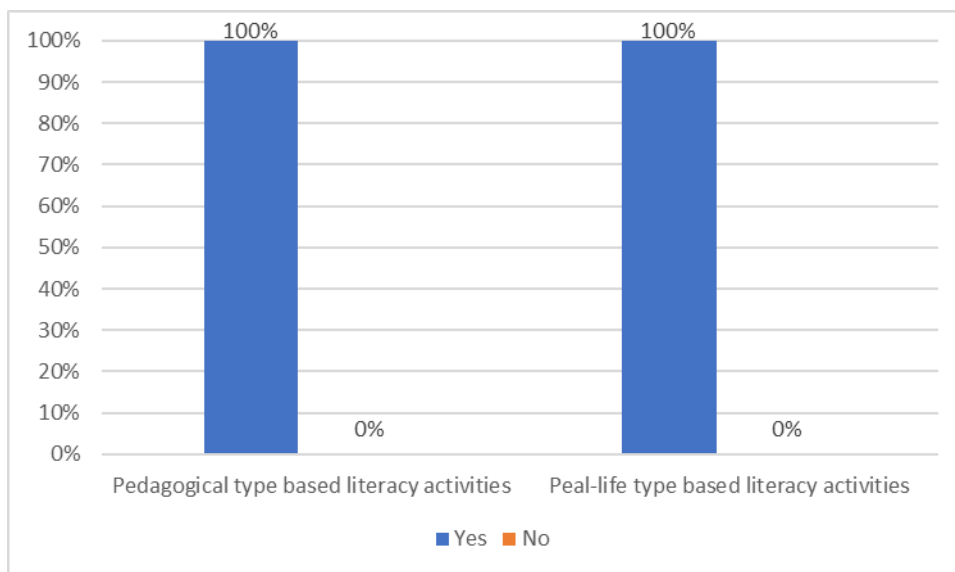


Figure 5. Types of Activities Needed

Fig. 5 reveals that all respondents agree that both kinds of activities are needed by the students. Further interviews with the respondents admitted that both kinds of activities are fundamental. The respondents further informed that assessments on the pedagogical types-based literacy activities are needed to assess the students' competency in dealing with the English literacy usage, which is a foundation for having the competency in using the language for real-life activities.

3. Procedure

The procedure is another aspect of learner needs. It is concerned with the procedure of teaching in order to meet the expected learner needs of assessment. The results of the questionnaire and interviews reveal that there are two types of teaching procedures to achieve the needs of the learners in assessments, such as pedagogical-intended procedures and real-life task-based procedures, depending on the types of activities needed.

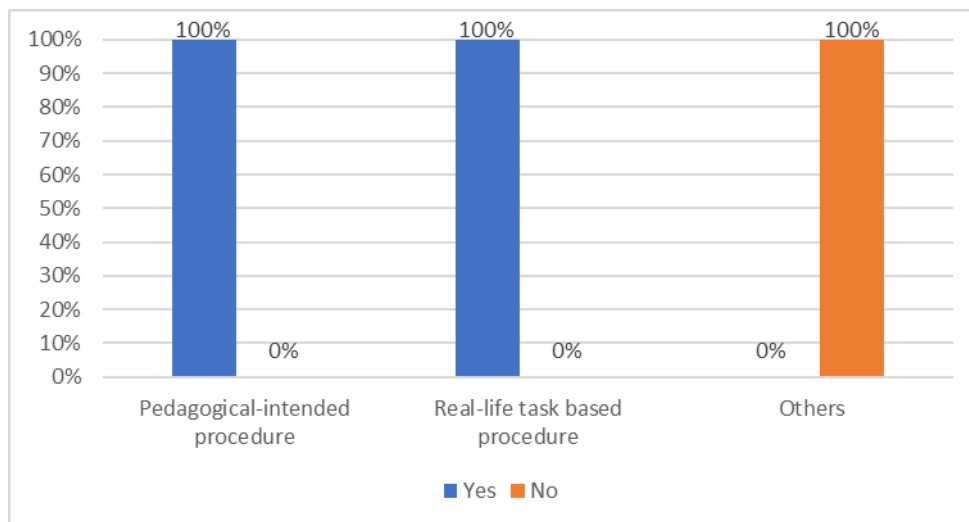


Figure 6. Procedures Needed by the Students

Fig. 6 reveals that all respondents agree that the three learning procedures are required when implementing assessments. The assessments can take the form of pedagogically intended procedures. Pedagogical intended procedures are the procedure of conducting activities that learners undertake in order to acquire language in instructional settings. On the other hand, real-life procedures are those that students perform in their daily lives while speaking the target language, in this case, English. For language learners, these also provide opportunities for language learning as well as language activation.

4. Setting

The setting is about when and where the assessments are conducted. Based on the results of data analysis on the questionnaire and interviews conducted, it is possible to conclude that the modes of learning used to determine the assessment settings. There are four modes of learning: synchronous mode, asynchronous mode, blended learning system, and face-to-face mode of learning.

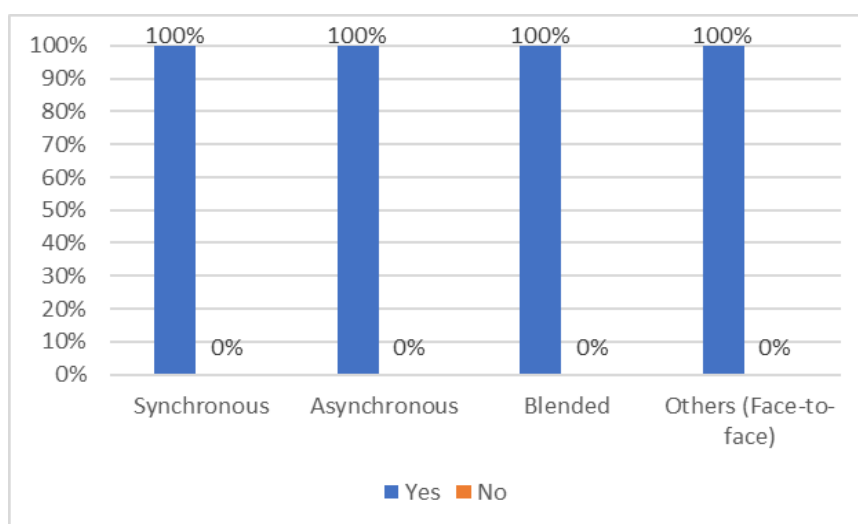


Figure 7. Types of Setting of Learning Needed by the Students

All respondents agree that all modes of learning are essential to be considered in developing the assessment instruments. The setting of the assessment is flexible and depends on the mode of learning implemented.

5. Learner Roles

Learner roles deal with the roles that the students must be able to perform following the completion of assessments. The results of data analysis revealed that several roles needed to be acquired by the students, such as problem solvers, communicators, knowledge seekers, and others (collaborators, critical thinkers, and creators) from which assessment instruments are developed.

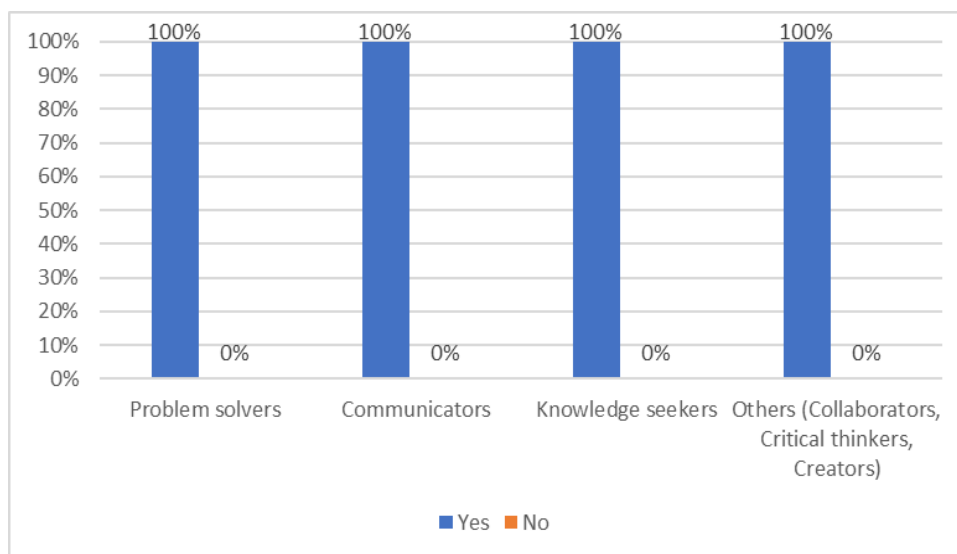


Figure 8. Roles of Students Needed

Fig. 8 demonstrates that all respondents agree on the roles of the students, which must be used as a reference for instrument assessments. With all of these needs identified, the framework for assessment needed using a blended learning system is analyzed and developed to answer the study's second research question.

C. The Framework of Assessment Needed Using Blended Learning System

The needs profiles were then followed up with in-depth interviews. The interviews were also continued into focused group discussions on developing the assessment framework using a blended learning system. The findings of the data collection and analysis are summarized below (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
THE FRAMEWORK OF ASSESSMENT NEEDED USING BLENDED LEARNING SYSTEM

Modes of learning	Synchronous	Asynchronous	Face-to face
Types of Assessment	Authentic assessment: Assessment as learning Assessment for learning	Authentic assessment: Assessment as learning Assessment for learning	Authentic assessment: Assessment of learning
Activities	Assessment-based activities	At-home task-based assessments	Assessment based activities
Example	Quizzes using Question/Answer session	Formative and summative assessment in the form of recognition and production type of assessments which are skill-based and language based, both in the form of pedagogical literacy based as well as real-life literacy-based assessments.	Recognition and Production type of assessments which are skill-based and language based, both in the form of pedagogical literacy based as well as real-life literacy-based assessments.
	Online quizzes (Kahoot and other synchronous-types of assessment). Dependent and independent speaking assessment.	Examples among others are: -Online based assessment -Writing composition -Reading comprehensions -Video-based assessment/integrated language assessment	Examples among others are -Reading comprehension test -Writing test -Speaking dependent test -Integrated listening test

Table 1 shows that the framework of assessment needed using the blended learning system designed has been accommodated the needs identified through the need analysis conducted. The framework recommends a blended learning system consisting of synchronous modes of learning combined with asynchronous as well as face-to-face modes of assessment. This is in line with how Alonso, López, Manrique, and Viñes (2005) defined blended learning as "learning that mixes various event-based activities: self-paced learning, live e-learning, and face-to-face classrooms". The results of interviews with the experts describe that the assessment instruments developed as real-life literacy assessments must also cover the skills of 21st-century skills, including self-regulation, self-determination, and other learning and innovation skills.

The current study's findings are consistent with earlier research. Due to COVID 19, Chan (2021) conducted research to include formative assessment in blended learning for Chinese language lessons. He believes that there is a need to incorporate an assessment into blended learning that would help and encourage students to self-regulate. To improve the learning experience and to attain the desired outcome of blended learning, formative assessment (FA) is recommended. He discovered that FA encourages students to set learning goals, self-evaluate, reflect, change, and improve their learning through online or face-to-face meetings. He went on to say that the most crucial aspect of FA was feedback. Teachers must choose which modes (online or conventional) will be more beneficial in improving the language skills of their students.

The respondents reconfirmed that all modes of learning and assessment designed as shown in the framework are considered to be important and useful, because the framework is perceived as beneficial not only during online learning but also as an essential framework even in the process of learning post-pandemic or in the new normal situation. The types of assessments recommended consist of three approaches, which are assessment of learning, assessment for learning, and assessment as learning. It is critical and highly essential to incorporate multiple assessment methods into the process of developing English literacy. The more information gathered and used to make decisions about the students' assessments, strengths, and weaknesses, the better the decision will be. Assessment is the process of collecting information on student learning outcomes from measurements in order to explain or analyze student performance on assignments and tests assigned by the teacher (Wulan, 2007).

The findings of this investigation are also coherent with those of Titov, Kurilov, Titova, and Brikoshina (2019). They researched university students that combined summative and formative evaluation in blended learning. Summative evaluation refers to the final grade and is more formal and traditional than formative assessment. Summative assessment alone is insufficient for thoroughly assessing students' learning. To address the limitations of summative evaluation in blended learning, formative assessment, which monitors students' learning progress, is used. The teacher or practitioners in blended learning might use integrative assessment to examine the interaction between computer-assisted and traditional activities and their impact on the learning experience.

The framework's emphasis on implementing authentic assessment supports the study by Zaim, Refnaldi, and Arsyad (2020). They conducted a research and development study on authentic assessment to evaluate the English language skills of Junior High School students. The assessment was developed to determine the teacher's needs for speaking skills assessment and develop an authentic assessment model that is appropriate for the needs of both teachers and students. This study used the ADDIE model, in which data was collected from a questionnaire distributed to teachers. According to the findings of the study, the appropriate needs analysis could be used effectively for assessing students' speaking abilities. Although this study has limitations because it only uses self-perceptions for teachers, this research is useful for teachers to provide accurate assessments. In addition, through this assessment, students can realize their abilities and find out what skills they need to improve.

Despite the framework resulting from this research, the present study does not cover the development of the framework into completed and finished assessment instruments ready for use because the instruments can be further developed based on the existing situation of the schools. In other words, any teacher or lecturer can further develop the framework into instruments based on the context of the situation in the schools. With the needs profile identified and the framework developed, the present study is expected to inspire all teachers worldwide who teach English literacy as a foreign language in junior high schools to develop assessments based on these findings.

V. CONCLUSION

Understanding the needs of assessment instruments is crucially important in developing English literacy skills. The data on needs can be treated as the basis for the development of literacy assessment instruments for blended learning. Identifying target needs and learner needs can guide teachers to develop quality instructions, learning outcomes, and help students achieve literacy skills in English as a Foreign Language. Furthermore, incorporating technology into the assessments design and implementation is an effort to incorporate 21st century skills through English lesson. This study identified the needs for assessment instruments and developed the assessment framework for blended learning. The framework may be used as a guide for assessment instruments by researchers who can benefit from it in the future.

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Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

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Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

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