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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- Analysis of Speech Act Between SA and AH Chinese L2 Speakers of English—With Regard to Request Refusal, and Apology Strategies 541
Feiya Xiao
- Effectiveness of WhatsApp as a Pedagogical Tool in Learning Phrasal Verbs: A Case Study at a Higher Educational Institute in Oman 552
Bachra Bouzaiane and Chinthana Sandaruwan Dayananda
- Students' Perceptions of Effective EFL Teachers in a University in Vietnam 560
Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung
- Humour in Chetan Bhagat's *The Girl in Room 105* and *One Arranged Murder*: A Study With Special Reference to His Creation of Dark Humour and Satire 568
M. Abdul Majid Ahmed, Mohammad Rezaul Karim, and Nabamita Das
- Vocatives of Entreaty in Arabic: Evidence for PP Selection 576
Saleem Abdelhady and Marwa Alkinj
- Insertion Function in Code-Mixing Use on WhatsApp Group Chats Among University Students 587
Sebastianus Menggo, Putu Dewi Merlyna Yuda Pramesti, and Ni Wayan Krismayani
- An Exploration of Student Interpreters' Attitudes Towards the Undergraduate Interpreting Training Programmes at Yemeni Universities 597
Belqes Al-Sowaidi and Tawffeek Mohammed
- The Effectiveness of Writing Circles Strategy in Developing Academic Writing Skills in EFL Classrooms 610
Albatool Ahmad Alhazmi and Marwa Ibrahim Elamin
- The Ambivalent Depictions of Arabs in Naomi Shihab Nye's *Habibi* and Diana Abu-Jaber's *Crescent* 620
Ehab Hashem AlOmari and Nasaybah Walid Awajan
- Teachers' Expectations and Challenges in Using Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT) Strategies in the ESL Classroom 629
Faizah Idrus and Mahfuzah Sohid
- Non-Prototypical Uses of Personal Pronouns and Their Grammaticalization in Chinese 636
Tunan Hu and Moying Li
- The Translation of Quranic Metaphorical Expressions From Arabic Into English 646
Ronza N. Abu Rumman and Mohd Nour Al Salem
-

Status of Rungus Language as an Indigenous Language Spoken by Rungus Ethnic Group in Eastern Malaysia <i>Bilal Ayed Al-Khaza'leh</i>	656
The Uniqueness of Imperative Construction in the Balinese Language <i>Made Sri Satyawati, I Nyoman Kardana, Ketut Widya Purnawati, and I Ketut Trika Adi Ana</i>	665
Insights Into Vietnamese Bilingual Students' Quizlet-Based English Vocabulary Learning <i>Thao Quoc Tran and Vy Lan T. Nguyen</i>	682
The Validity of Hiring Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Instructors: Professional Observers', Learners', and Programme Administrators' Perceptions <i>Abeer Yahya Murtada and Yasser Abdulrahman Alsuhaibani</i>	689
Indonesian Language Performance of Mentally Retarded Children: Reference for Writing Literacy Text Needs <i>Nengah Arnawa, Anak Agung Gde Alit Geria, I Gusti Lanang Rai Arsana, Made Wery Dartiningsih, and I Wayan Susanta</i>	701
Correlations Between Learning Style Preferences and Arab-Speaking Gulf Region First-Year College Students' EFL Performance: A Literature Review <i>Raafat Gabriel</i>	709
Nursing Students' Knowledge and Attitude Towards Medical Writing Skills in the English Language <i>Norah Banafi</i>	715
Shifting Divine Moral Values in the Novel <i>Rahwana Putih</i> by Sri Teddy Rusdy <i>Tri Astuti, Novi Anoegrajekti, and Nuruddin</i>	722
Arabic-Speaking EFL Learners' Pronunciation of British English Vowels: A Production-Based Study <i>Mohammed Hezam S. Naji and Ahmed Yahya Almakrob</i>	730
Polysemous Verbs <i>Break, Run, and Draw</i> Within Prototype Theory From the Perspective of Saudi Learners of English <i>Sahar Alkhalaiwi</i>	740
A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Microstructure of Covid-19 Health-Protocol Advertisements in Tourist Facilities <i>I Wayan Budiarta and Ni Wayan Kasni</i>	751
Comprehension of Metaphors by Typically Developing Arabic-Speaking Jordanian School Children <i>Ronza N. Abu Rumman</i>	759
Using the Motivation and Engagement Wheel to Examine the Interplay Between Learner Engagement, Motivation, Year Level, and Academic Achievement in an EFL Tertiary Context <i>Eman I. Alzaanin</i>	767
The Effect of Android Application on EFL Students' Mastery of Research Method for Applied Linguistics Course <i>Sugeng Hariyanto, Siti Rohani, and Pritantina Yuni Lestari</i>	780
A Review of Studies on the Selective Attention Strategy During Language Comprehension: The Present and the Future <i>Linlin Qiu and Norhiza Binti Ismail</i>	789
Saudi EFL University Instructors' Perceptions of Online Education During the COVID-19 Pandemic <i>Farah N. Algraini</i>	799

The Effects of the Communicative Approach and the Use of Information Technology on Students' Motivation and Achievement in Indonesian Language Learning <i>Alif Mudiono, Bambang Budi Wiyono, Maisyaroh, A Supriyanto, and Kung Tech Wong</i>	808
Developing Multimodal Literacy in the Business English Reading Class: A Case Study of Students' Presentation PowerPoint Slides <i>Wenjin Qi</i>	820
Approaches to Bangla-Arabic Translation: Subtleties and Solutions <i>Md. Faruquzzaman Akan, Salahud Din Abdul-Rab, and Aziz Abdulrab Saleh Salafi</i>	828
A Comparative Linguistic Study on Ambai, Ansus, Menawi and Biak Languages in Papua <i>Hendrik Arwam and Yosefina Baru</i>	840

Analysis of Speech Act Between SA and AH Chinese L2 Speakers of English—With Regard to Request Refusal, and Apology Strategies

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Abstract—This research examines the effect of study abroad experience on L2 English learners' pragmatic competence in terms of strategies used in the speech act of request, refusal and apology. The Discourse Completion Task was administrated among 16 Chinese graduate students who were divided into two groups, including the study-abroad (SA) group and at-home (AH) group. The results do not reveal any evident improvements in the pragmatic competence of learners who have study-abroad experience compared to those who study English at home in China, but some of their strategies of using speech acts do have differences. In terms of requests, the conventionally indirect level strategy is the most frequently used request strategy among both groups of learners, and SA learners are more direct in making requests than AH learners. In terms of refusal strategies, both AH and SA learners prefer indirect refusal strategies. There is no obvious difference in apologies between SA learners and AH learners, and their apologies tend to be more direct. Based on these findings, it is suggested that more emphasis and importance should be placed on the pragmatic knowledge, which should be explicitly taught in the classroom because of the limited chance to enhance pragmatic competence outside the classroom.

Index Terms—speech act, second language pragmatics, request, refusal and apology strategies, study abroad

I. INTRODUCTION

With the process of globalization, the association between countries has become more and more vital than before and the world has become culturally mixed with cultural differences which might lead to dissatisfaction if individuals have limited knowledge of the target culture. In the field of cross-cultural communication and language learning, the difference in language use is an essential factor that might cause failure in communication or pragmatics. The relationship between language forms and meanings varies in different languages, while the specific language used in culture is evident in speech acts (Chen, 1996). Austin (1962) proposed the term speech act with the meaning of a significant characteristic of language. Speech acts are considered to be essential functions of language that exist cross-linguistically all over the world. Refusal, request, and apology are the three crucial subjects of cross-cultural and speech-act studies. These acts have the potential risk of destroying the relationship between interlocutors. As cross-cultural communication grows because of the boost of travel and globalization, it is more likely to cause intercultural communication breakdowns through misinterpreted and misunderstood speech acts. In the study of refusal, the coding measure in Beebe et al.'s (1990) analysis is widely used. Beebe et al. (1990) divided refusal strategies into three parts: direct, indirect, and adjuncts. The coding system was used by other scholars (Chen, 1996; Moafian, 2022) in analyzing the refusal strategy cross-culturally. Similarly, in request and apology studies, the notion of Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP) is used to analyze the specific strategy from different aspects, which include the addressing terms, the head act, and the adjunct to the head act within the direct or indirect frameworks.

In the context of different cultural environments influencing the pragmatic competence of individuals, studying abroad has been considered as the most critical factor affecting the development of pragmatic competence. Many studies have been conducted to discuss the routine formulae and use of speech acts. Roever (2012) investigates the relationship between receptive knowledge of English routine formulae and the length of residence in English-speaking countries. Felix-Brasdefer (2004) conducted a study on the politeness strategies in refusals among Spanish students. Taguchi (2008) explores the development of pragmatic competence of Japanese learners of English with a background of studying abroad. Other than academic papers, there is also a trend in teaching pragmatics in classrooms worldwide. Even though great attention has been drawn to pragmatics, it is still not considered necessary in some countries' language education systems (e.g. China). Most language classrooms adopt the task-based approach only for the purpose of passing certain exams, which leads to insufficient pragmatic learning because most exams only contain a limited amount of pragmatic content. International standard English proficiency tests, such as International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOFEL) do not assess pragmatic knowledge in the

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rating criteria as well. China, as a country with a large number of English learners, is facing the same situation of lacking pragmatic education in English.

Thus, the current study focuses on the differences between two groups of Chinese students with or without a study abroad background. Speech acts data of request, refusal, and apology are collected through Discourse Completion Task (DCT) and analyzed on the basis of Beebe et al. (1990) and CCSARP.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Speech Act Theory*

The development of speech act theories may be considered to be originated from Austin's (1962) idea that language is performative; whether explicitly or implicitly, speakers perform an act through what they say. A speech act refers to an act uttered and performed by a speaker (Searle et al., 1980), such as making statements, asking questions, giving orders, thanking, and so forth. A speech act can be not only one word but also a sentence, a movement, or a gesture that expresses the meaning of communication, whether directly or indirectly. Alzeebaree and Yavuz (2017) mention that speech acts are regarded as the functional aspects of language. Speech acts are strongly associated with the language's culture and social norms. A conversation may be a failure and may lead to misunderstanding between individuals because of a lack of cultural, social, and pragmatics identification. Therefore, research into pragmatics is highly related to cultural and social studies based on the target language context.

B. *The Speech Act of Refusal*

As a variety of speech acts, refusal is not speaker-initiative because it is a response to another person's invitation, request, or offer. A proper refusal format is necessary because employing inappropriate strategies might lead to misunderstandings or even irreparable contradiction between individuals (Hassani et al., 2011). In other words, a refusal is a face-threatening act that is in high demand for a certain level of pragmatic competence to achieve a successful performance because it is risky to the speakers' relationship. Therefore, strategies like redress, mitigation, and politeness should be employed in refusal as a face-threatening act. As stated by Brown and Levinson (1987), three factors have influenced refusals and other face-threatening acts:

1. The power which refers to the relative power of the speaker over the hearer
2. The distance which refers to the social distance between individuals
3. Rank which refers to the weight of the imposition

As Beebe et al. (1990) point out,

“Refusals...reflect fundamental cultural values... (and) involve delicate interpersonal negotiation. Refusals, in that they involve telling a listener something he or she does not want to hear, require the speaker to build support and help the listener avoid embarrassment. They require a high level of pragmatic competence” (p. 68).

In this study, the researchers investigate the refusal strategies of Japanese English learners. The participants are provided with four different situations which vary from the relationship and status between speakers and hearers. Findings show that Japanese learners would transfer their refusal patterns from their native language to English in the aspects of type, order, and frequency of the semantic formulae. In another recent study conducted by Moafian et al. (2022), the researchers analyze more semantic formulas based on the frame of Beebe et al.'s (1990) study with Persian, English, and Balouchi speaking participants. The findings reveal the existence of significant differences in all refusal strategy categories due to social status in each language.

C. *The Speech Act of Request*

Request refers to the efforts and attempts initiated by speakers to ask other people involved in the conversation to do something for them. It is another variety of speech acts that occur everywhere and every time in daily conversations as one of the most typical and frequent speech acts, especially among language learners during their language learning process (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017). Compared with other types of speech acts, requests have been studied deeply by linguists in the domain of second language learning as it requires the interlocutors to follow some specific strategies to complete the desired intentions with the need for extra attention to alleviate the possibility of breaking the face of the hearers simultaneously. According to Goffman's face theory, the face is used to describe a person's perception of the positive or negative situation during the interaction and communication with other speakers (Goffman, 1955). The request strategies used and involved in each interaction would directly influence the hearers' faces and perceptions (Tatton, 2008); thus, a request's result critically depends on the appropriate request strategies in the speech acts. Based on the notion of CCSARP, requests contain three types: the addressing terms, the head act, and the adjunct to the head act within the direct or indirect frameworks (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). The directness in the request speech act will possibly present the interlocutor's imperativeness and even imposition with less mitigation performance. In contrast, the indirectness of a request speech act aims to show friendliness and politeness and prevent the risks of threatening (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017) by using conventional modals or nonconventional forms, such as hints within a request (Tatton, 2008). Moreover, previous studies claim that sociocultural factors, such as cultural and ideological differences, are essential for explicating the different speech act strategies.

D. The Speech Act of Apology

Besides the refusal and request speech acts, an apology is fundamental and quite frequently used by people in everyday situations. An apology is defined as the behavior and performance in which the interlocutors express their regret and apologetic feelings for doing something that may cause problems, issues, or unhappiness towards others. Expressing apologies timely and appropriately in daily communications is essential and fundamental for people to keep harmonious and friendly relationships with others (Alzebaree & Yavuz, 2017).

Unlike the request speech acts, an apology is more corpus-based (McAllister, 2015) and depends on taking advantage of Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs), which means there are many popular and frequent used linguistic tools and patterns, such as sorry, excuse, pardon, and so forth included in apologies (Jucker, 2018). Therefore, learning and obtaining the knowledge and competency of apology strategies and patterns is essential for everyone. According to Goffman's (1955) face theory, similarly, in an apology, the interlocutors endeavour to make face-saving communications and performances for the hearers with the corresponding extent to exhibit a face-threatening act for themselves simultaneously. Likewise, strategies used in apology to express appropriately are critical for interlocutors to achieve a successful and workable speech act; thus, many variables such as considering different social distances and social status of the people involved in the situation should be considered carefully before addressing the apology (Alzebaree & Yavuz, 2017). Moreover, apology speech acts require specific strategies, either exploiting the different degrees of directness or addressing indirectness to show the interlocutors' attitudes towards the situations.

E. The Development of L2 Pragmatic Competence and Study Abroad

Recent studies of L2 pragmatic development and competence have increased considerably. Many internal and external factors of learners have been investigated to reveal the relationship between the development of L2 pragmatic competence and these factors. The context of studying abroad, which has been considered to be one of the most important external factors that influence L2 pragmatic competence, has been investigated by many researchers. According to Deng and Ranta (2019), researchers focus on the effect of studying abroad experience on L2 learners' sociolinguistic and pragmatic development, such as routing formulae, address terms, and speech act.

Thomas (as cited in Taguchi, 2008) defines pragmatic competence as the ability to communicate one's intentions appropriately in communicative situations and to interpret the explicit or implicit intentions of others. Pragmatic competence is a key to maintaining good social relations and building rapport with speakers of the target language, so it should be considered as important as learning grammar and vocabulary.

Although there is a trend of teaching pragmatics in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms worldwide, the curriculum of teaching pragmatics is still insufficient in many countries, especially in China. Liu (as cited in Deng & Ranta, 2019) reveals that most EFL teachers' intercultural sensitivity and pragmatic awareness fall far behind their grammatical and lexical knowledge because they barely have contact with English speakers. The situation is similar for language learners. Schauer (2009) finds that professional learners who are studying to be translators or interpreters in the at-home context have less pragmatic awareness than grammatical inappropriateness, mainly when learners' input is limited to classroom instructions. Therefore, many studies are conducted to examine the influence of study abroad experience on the development of pragmatic competence.

Many aspects of pragmatic competence, such as the knowledge of routine formulae and the use of speech acts, are investigated. Roever (2012) investigates how the length of residence influences learners' receptive knowledge of English routine formulae in an English-speaking country by conducting a web-based test that assesses learners' understanding of routine formulae. English as a Second Language (ESL) and EFL learners from four countries are recruited, ranging from beginners to upper-intermediate level learners. The study finds that routine formulae correlate with the length of residency in the target language country. However, routine formulae can be acquired both in the classroom and in target language settings.

Another study by Felix-Brasdefer (2004) explores the politeness strategies in refusals of 24 learners of Spanish and the influence of the length of residence on the ability to negotiate and mitigate refusals by using role-play and verbal-report data. The findings reveal that learners who spend more time in the target community tend to delay the primary refusal; they have more frequent negotiation attempts, better use of lexical and syntactic mitigation, and a preference for solidarity and indirectness.

For pragmatic competence, Taguchi (2008) studies the development of pragmatic competence of forty-four Japanese learners of English in a study abroad context. The study shows that learners who have taken full advantage of opportunities to use a second language become better at the processing dimension of pragmatic comprehension. However, Taguchi's (2011) study partially supports his study in 2008 in which different aspects of pragmatic comprehension, including conventional and non-conventional meaning, accuracy, and comprehension speed, are affected by L2 proficiency and study abroad experience. Moreover, the study finds that study abroad experiences only impact learners' comprehension of routine formulae rather than influencing the comprehension of indirect refusals.

Although there are abundant studies on speech acts, the impact of study abroad experience on learners' pragmatic competence and speech act strategies in the context of Chinese native speakers has not yet been studied. The goal of this study is to investigate the impact of the study abroad experience on learners' pragmatic competence and strategies with regard to the speech act of request, refusal, and apology.

F. Research Questions

Based on the previous analysis, it is found that (1) most studies on the effect of study abroad experiences on pragmatic competence recruit L2 learners from countries such as Japan, German, or Spain, while the study of L2 learners from China was limited; and that (2) studies on speech act mainly focus on one or two kinds of speech act and the literature on the combination of three kinds of speech acts is limited. To fill these gaps, this study aims to examine the effect of study abroad experience on L2 English learners' pragmatic competence in terms of the speech act of request, refusal, and apology. This study focuses on English L2 learners from China by comparing the pragmatic competence of SA (study abroad) learners and AH (at home) learners. The following research questions are to be addressed:

- (1) Does the study abroad experiences of L2 learners affect their pragmatic competence in English?
- (2) Do SA learners and AH learners perform the speech act of request, refusal, and apology differently?

III. METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate and shed light on the different performances of speech acts between the study-abroad (SA) Chinese students and staying-at-home (SH) Chinese students, a random sampling and questionnaire survey are applied to collect quantitative and qualitative data in this study.

A. Participants

In this research, 16 Chinese graduate students are employed as the participants, with eight SA students and eight SH students whose first language is Chinese Mandarin and English as their second language. The eight SH students have never been to English-speaking countries to obtain any study-abroad experiences. In contrast, the other eight SA students have been either studying or working in English countries such as Australia and America. To assess their English second language proficiency, their English College English Test band 4 (CET-4) scores and IELTS test scores as references are collected to guarantee that the two groups of participants' proficiency levels are above medium to a high level in English interactions. Among all the SH group students, the lowest CET-4 score is 513, and the highest CET-4 score is 564. Meanwhile, all the SA group students have their IELTS overall scores of at least 6, and one received 7.5 as the highest score among all the participants. The SA group students have been in English-speaking countries for at least six months; the most extended period is about forty-eight months, and their staying-abroad period is twenty months on average.

B. Instruments

In the data collection, we have designed a questionnaire with two parts for each participant. The first part is about pre-interview questions, including basic information such as name and gender, and collecting their IELTS test or CET-4 scores to assess their English proficiency levels. As for the SA group students, they also need to fill in their detailed period of studying-abroad length.

After finishing the personal information pre-interview questions, all participants are asked to complete our specifically designed written DCT with the inspiration from the role-play tasks (Demeter, 2007). There are 12 speech act contexts, including refusal, request and apology settings in random sequences to eliminate the participants' notice of the aim of the settings with more focus and attention on the tasks per se to elicit their authentic answers and responses. Each speech act setting is provided with sufficient details and descriptions about the social distance and interpersonal relationships. The roles involved in the settings and enough background information are provided for the participants to get into the context immersively.

C. Data Collection Procedure

The SA group and SH group students are asked to complete the questionnaire, starting with answering the basic pre-interview questions related to their personal information, i.e., their names, genders, and English test scores. The SA group students also need to provide their studying-abroad period in detail. After finishing the pre-interview questions, all participants are required to finish the following written DCT, which contains twelve different speech act contexts, including refusal, request, and apology but rendered in random sequences to prevent participants' extra attention to each different setting category.

The written answers are put in various visualized charts through the perspective of CCSARP (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) to analyze the participants' answers and data collected in the questionnaires. For a better and deeper analysis of each of the three speech acts, some of the most specific categories are adopted on the basis of the framework of CCSARP. For the request speech act strategies discussion, the AH and SA group participants' performance is analyzed in terms of their either direct or indirect levels. Furthermore, the more nuanced details about the head act syntactic downgraders strategy and adjuncts to the head act strategies will also be rendered as follows.

Then, the analysis of the refusal speech act is based on similar categories, including direct and indirect strategies in refusal behaviors. The direct refusal strategies in this research contain performative and non-performative statements, and indirect refusal strategies is analyzed through the notion of statements of regret, wish, explanation and promise of future acceptance, following the adjuncts to refusal strategies with more details.

The last analysis is focused on the apology speech acts, with chosen categories including the most typical Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) strategy, intensification strategy, and other detailed methods such as concerns for the hearers, explanation, offer a repair, and so forth to assess and collect all participants' answers from the two groups about their preferences in the apology speech act, preparing for later discussion on whether any differences or similarities are exhibited among those Chinese students. All the data are collected and processed into the chart after our decoding based on the CCSARP categories, explicitly picking out the most prominent and typical features and characteristics among the AH and SA group participants. This is to compare visually and relate to their differences or similarities shown in the speech acts based on their different educational backgrounds. By addressing the previous research gaps, the research questions of whether the studying-abroad experiences within English exposure would benefit the second language pragmatic awareness and appropriateness in authentic speech acts, specifically in the request, refusal, and apology contexts.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

(a). The Frequency of Request Strategies Used by the SA Group and the AH Group

TABLE 1
THE FREQUENCY OF DIRECTNESS OF REQUEST STRATEGIES

	SA (n=8)	%	AH (n=8)	%
Most direct, explicit level	8	25%	5	15.6%
Conventionally indirect level	20	62.5%	25	78.1%
Nonconventional indirect level	3	9.4%	2	6.2%

Table 1 shows the frequency of three primary levels of the directness of requesting strategies produced by both the SA group and the AH group. The data show that the use of request strategies by the SA group follows the pattern of conventionally indirect level (62.5%)> most direct explicit level (25%)> nonconventional indirect level (9.4%). Similarly, the use of request strategies in the AH group has the same pattern that the conventionally indirect level (78.1%)> most direct, explicit level (15.6%)> nonconventional indirect level. This pattern is the same as the native speakers' use of request strategies in the study by Deng and Ranta (2019). The AH group tend to use more conventionally indirect strategies than the SA group, while the SA group use more direct and nonconventional indirect strategies than the AH group. The conventionally indirect level strategy is the most frequently used request strategy among both SA and AH learners. The expressions "Could you (do it)" or "Would you (do it)" are the most frequently used sentence patterns in the use of conventionally indirect strategies.

TABLE 2
THE FREQUENCY OF REQUEST STRATEGIES

Strategies	SA (n=8)	AH (n=8)
Head act		
Syntactic Downgraders		
Interrogative	18	23
Embedded "if" clause	4	4
Other Downgraders		
Consultative devices	4	5
Understaters	6	6
Hedges	1	1
Upgraders		
Intensifier	1	3
Adjuncts to the Head act		
Sweetener	7	2

Note: the figures in the table represent the frequency of every kind of strategy used in the four request scenarios by each group.

Table 2 shows the frequency of request strategies in the Head act and Adjuncts to Head act segments. The frequency of request strategies used by the SA group and AH group is very similar, except for Interrogative and Sweetener. As for the Heat act of request, the AH group use the syntactic downgrader “Interrogative” most frequently. However, regarding Adjuncts to the Head act, the SA group use more of the “Sweetener” strategy. Other frequencies of request strategies are nearly the same, which means there is only a little difference in the use of request strategies between the SA group and AH group.

TABLE 3
THE FREQUENCY OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES

	SA	AH
Total	62	71
Direct	2	3
Indirect	46	38
Adjuncts	14	30

Note: the figures in the table represent the total frequency of the main categories of the refusal strategies used by participants of the three languages.

The DCT data of refusal strategies are analyzed based on the taxonomy first proposed by Beebe et al. (1990). According to the study, the refusal strategies are divided into three main groups which are direct, indirect, and adjuncts. Each group contains several semantic formulas, which could be a word, phrase, or sentence. As table 3 demonstrates, the total frequency of refusal strategies used by the SA and the AH group slightly differ, with a gap of 9. Generally speaking, the AH group employ more strategies when refusing others. Both SA and AH groups employ indirect strategies most frequently but do not use direct strategies frequently. The frequency of adjuncts used by the AH group is significantly more than the SA group (see Table 3).

(b). *The Frequency of Refusal Strategies Used by the SA Group and the AH Group*

TABLE 4
STRATEGIES USED IN THE FOUR REFUSAL SCENARIOS

Refusal Strategies	SA (n=8)	AH (n=8)
Direct		
Performative	0	0
Non-performative statement	2	3
Indirect		
Statement of regret	12	4
Statement of wish	9	8
Excuse/reason/explanation	20	18
Promise of future acceptance	5	8
Adjuncts to refusal		
Statement of positive opinion	10	14
Addressing with intimacy	4	9
Addressing with respect	0	7

Note: the figures in the table represent the frequency of every kind of strategy used in the four refusal scenarios by each group.

Based on the study of Beebe et al. (1990) and Moafian et al. (2022), several semantic formulas are analysed in detail in the current study. As listed in Table 3, in the category of direct strategy, neither SA nor AH group employ the performative way, such as saying no directly in a refusal. The frequency is also found to be low in both groups' non-performative statements of refusal. Only a few participants would use the term "I can't..." or "I don't want to...". However, the results of indirect and adjunct strategies in refusal differ significantly. The most frequently employed strategy is excuse/reason/explanation by both SA and AH groups, with a slight difference in data. Most participants

would give a reasonable excuse or explain the reason. Using the statement of regret is found to be more frequently employed by the SA group. The SA group use the statement of regret eight times more than the AH group. These results show that the participants in the SA group would be more willing to refuse with the expression of feeling regret; for example, most participants would apologize first before they refuse others. In the category of adjuncts, the AH group apply more strategies in all three. More specifically, the results are different on the strategy “addressing with respect”. This strategy is not used at all in the SA group, whereas the strategy is used seven times in the AH group. Many participants in the AH group would use "dear boss" or "my boss" as their opening to a refusal (see Table 4).

(c). *The Frequency of Apology Strategies Used by the SA Group and the AH Group*

TABLE 5
STRATEGY USED IN THE FOUR APOLOGY SCENARIOS

Strategies	AH (n=8)	SA (n=8)
IFID: “sorry” or “apologize” or “forgive”	30	27
Self-blame	5	9
Explanation	15	14
Offer a repair	28	30
Promise of forbearance	1	2
Intensification: adverbials “so”, “very” or repetition	15	18
Concerns for the hearers	7	5
Indirect apology (no IDIF appeared)	0	4

Note: the figures in the table represent the frequency of every kind of strategy used in the four apology scenarios by each group.

In the apology speech act settings, both AH and SA group participants have performed high-frequency use of the IFID strategy in their apology interlocutions with straightforward and explicit expressions of “sorry”, “apologize”, and “forgive” at about 30 times for each group. Besides expressing through the IFID, another very frequently appeared strategy used by both the AH and SA Chinese students is that they choose to offer repair for the hearers to make up for their mistakes in the apology context. Moreover, the other two popular apology strategies among the AH and SA participants are the explanation and intensification of the apology, with a similarly high frequency of more than 15 times for each strategy. Most participants choose to explain the detailed reasons why they make mistakes before offering their repairs. Moreover, they also exploit the intensification strategy accompanied by the IFID, such as adding adverbials “very” and “so” before saying “sorry” and “apologize” in their speech acts to intensify their emotions and emphasize their sincerity. Besides that, some of the participants emphasize their apologizing feelings to the hearers through repetitions in their speech acts such as “so so sorry” and “sorry again” right after expressing “sorry”. As for other typical apology strategies, such as the concerns for the hearer and promise for the forbearance, only little frequency has been shown in participants’ speech act answers of the AH and SA groups. Another noticeable difference between the AH and SA group participants is that all the AH group participants adopt the direct apology strategies by saying “sorry” and other typical types of IFIDs; whereas some participants adopt the indirect apology strategy in the SA group without expressing IFID “sorry” in their speech acts. Furthermore, two participants from the AH group use the addressing terms in their speech acts inappropriately. In contrast, all the SA participants do not show any mistakes in using appropriate addressing terms.

Overall, both the AH and SA groups’ participants prefer the direct and explicit apology strategy by expressing their regret and sorry by using IFID directly, sometimes accompanied by an intensification strategy to strengthen their emotions. Only a few participants from the SA group adopt the indirect apology strategy in their speech acts in some changing circumstances.

B. Discussion

This study compares the impact of study-abroad experience on the pragmatic competence of L2 learners in terms of their use of request, refusal, and apology strategies. The result shows that most requests are performed at the conventionally indirect level, regardless of the experience abroad. However, when comparing the conventionally indirect strategies of AH learners and SA learners, it is found that AH learners use more conventionally indirect strategies than SA learners. This can be explained by the possibility that AH learners’ use of requests is more fixed and their expressions are limited because their learning process is only conducted in the classroom settings. The expressions

of request taught by the language teachers are usually limited to “Could you...” and “would you...”, so they tend to avoid using expressions that they are not familiar with. The participants are intermediate language learners, so they should have basic pragmatic awareness and common pragma-linguistic tools. The conventionally indirect strategy is their first choice when they try to be polite but have limited expressions to perform requests. As for the SA learners, their use of request is more direct than AH learners. Although Deng and Ranta (2019) believe native speakers of English disprefer direct requests, this result might be due to their interaction with native speakers who are intimate rather than strangers who have distant social relationships with them, and the impact of the direct way of thinking in English-speaking countries. Another possibility is that the SA learners only stay in the Chinese community and gain little socio-pragmatic knowledge.

In the analysis of strategies of request Head act, the result shows that the Interrogative is the most frequently used syntactic downgrader when SA and AH learners are making requests. The reason for this result is the same as mentioned above, requests are taught in the classrooms in interrogative sentences. Using an interrogative sentence is also the most common way of making requests in the study abroad context. SA learners and AH learners have no apparent difference in other Head act request strategies. However, SA learners perform better at request strategies in the Adjuncts to the Head act, especially the “Sweetener” strategy. According to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), Sweetener is the strategy that the speakers use to reduce the imposition by expressing exaggerated appreciation of the hearer’s ability to comply with the request. The result shows that SA learners use the Sweetener strategy more frequently than AH learners. It means SA learners are better at making a request more appropriate by complimenting the addressee. The compliments of others are more common in English-speaking countries; therefore, this strategy might be learned by the SA learners from the study-abroad context.

In addition, it is found in the data that both AH and SA learners use apologies before the request very frequently. Typically, they begin the conversation with apology expressions such as “Sorry to interrupt you” or “I am sorry to bother you” before or after their Head act of request. The apology is also used as a strategy to mitigate requests and gain more understanding from the hearer. This might be the cultural influence that Chinese people consider requests to bother the hearer, so no matter how the request is performed, an apology should be expressed. Unlike Blum-Kulka and Olshtain’s (1984) defining apologies as post-event acts, this kind of apology is only a strategy to mitigate requests.

The analysis of refusal reveals a significant difference between the study abroad group and the study at home group. The findings show the existence of significant differences among the two groups within both total frequency, indirect strategy, and adjuncts, while the results in direct strategy do not differ between the two groups. These results are partially aligned with the study conducted by Moafian et al. (2022) which shows statistically significant results in not only the total number but also the three main refusal types. Regarding the total number of refusal strategies, the study at home group overweighs the study abroad group, but the gap is not huge. This can be explained that studying abroad, in English-speaking countries more specifically, has influenced the refusal strategy of participants. As a matter of fact, most cultures in English-speaking countries are known as individualistic while Chinese cultures are categorized as collectivistic. Thus, the way of interaction differs between different types of cultures. In Chinese culture, face is considered to be a very important component of interaction. The interlocutor would try their best to save their face and also leave a positive impression even in refusal. A direct refusal could be considered to be rude and inappropriate in Chinese culture because it might damage the relationship between individuals. However, in English culture, refusing directly might not have a negative influence on the relationship because self-comfortability and personal privacy are important (Moafian et al., 2022).

In a smaller scope, results are significantly different in indirect and adjuncts between the two groups. The most frequently used indirect strategy is giving a reason for both groups. This result indicates that explanation is accepted and widely used in both Chinese and English culture for it can reach the goal of protecting the relationships between interlocutors. However, statistic shows that the study abroad group overweighs the study at home group in the strategy of statement of regret. This result coordinates with Chen’s (1996) study that regret is not found in the refusal patterns of the Chinese group as it is in other groups such as German. Different from the strategy of explanation, which is a universally used strategy, expressing regret is not what Chinese people will normally do in refusal but it is common in the English culture. Another unexpected finding is that in the category of adjunct, the frequency of addressing with respect to study at group overweighs the study abroad group. No participants in the study abroad group use this strategy while “dear boss”, or “hi boss” can be frequently found in the response of the study at home group. This phenomenon is related to the cultural difference between China and English-speaking countries, especially in the workplace. As proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), power, distance, and rank are the main factors that influence refusal. In China, the power of the boss is considered to be huge, which means the employees should respect their boss. Also, it is considered to be rude to call someone more powerful with their first name. Therefore, students in China prefer to call their boss by title instead of calling their name.

Regarding the analysis of apology speech acts between the AH and SA group, the result above shows that there are not very obvious differences between the two groups of Chinese students in their apology speech acts in the same settings. On the contrary, many similarities have been discovered and revealed in this research process among the AH and SA participants.

Based on the CCSARP (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984), the cultural differences need to be considered with diverse conventional patterns when the speech acts occur across various cultures. However, in the apology context, there are still many shared cultural norms, criteria, and apology strategies across different cultures such as the IFID and offer repair strategies (Tajeddin et al., 2014). As the result shows above, both the AH and SA groups' participants have performed in similarity that they adopt the high-frequency use of the explicit and direct IFID strategy in apology speech acts. All the sixteen participants prefer to open their apology illocution by saying "sorry" or "apologize" directly to express their regret for their mistakes. Some knowledge and common senses are shared that when people do something wrong, they need to say "sorry" at first. That is why all the participants choose the explicit IFID strategy in all the apology settings without hesitation. Specifically, some of the participants in the two groups have adopted the structure of "apologizer + intensifier + apologizing" such as "I'm so sorry..." (Su & Wei, 2018) to emphasize their more sincere attitudes and regret their mistakes, which has been showcased in the result that is frequently accompanied by the use of self-blame strategy simultaneously in the apology speech acts. Furthermore, according to the corpus-based analysis (Jucker, 2018), the IFID is one of the most popular and high-frequently used strategies to express an apology in a specific context. For instance, "sorry" and "please" are more likely to be adopted to retrieve apologies in illocution (Jucker, 2018). However, sometimes the IFID "sorry" can also be used in the request settings as the opening. Thus, it is necessary to figure out other tools or strategies in the illocutions to determine the apology speech acts. And it can explain the reason why all the involved participants have also combined at least one other apologizing strategy in their apology speech acts rather than only saying "sorry" in each of the apology settings to prevent speech act ambiguity or less politeness. For instance, participants at least choose the strategy of offering a repair accompanied by the IFID to express an apology to the hearers in this research.

Another interesting difference between the two groups shown in the result is the differences in the addressing terms among participants. Some AH participants even misuse the inappropriate addressing terms in their DCT answers. In the Q12 apology setting, one of the AH participants use "dear" to address the old lady in the context, which is inappropriate and a bit weird; however, none of the SA participants exhibit any inappropriateness in addressing terms in each of the apology settings. Compared with the AH group participants, SA group participants adjust the addressing terms more frequently in their DCT answers in different apology settings. Their use of addressing terms varies from different hearers depending on the changing personal relationships. This can be explained by the English studying-abroad experiences which are beneficial for their linguistic correctness and pragmatic appropriateness in an authentic illocution context (Schauer, 2009).

V. CONCLUSION

A. Implications of the Study

In this study, the effect of study-abroad experience is investigated on the pragmatic competence of Chinese learners of English, with regard to the use of speech acts strategies including request, refusal, and apology. The results do not reveal any evident improvements in the pragmatic competence of learners who have study-abroad experience compared to those who study English at home in China, but some of their strategies of using speech acts do have differences.

First of all, in terms of requests, conventionally indirect requests are the most frequently used type of request, and SA learners use more direct requests than AH learners. The interrogative is the most frequently used syntactic downgrader for both SA learners and AH learners. SA learners use more exaggerated compliments to lower the imposition of the request, which is called the "Sweetener" strategy, than the AH learners. Moreover, both SA learners and AH learners use apology before the request very frequently as a strategy to mitigate the request. In addition, instead of direct strategy, both AH and SA learners prefer the indirect strategies of refusal, in which the strategy of excuse/reason/explanation is the most frequently used. As for the differences between the AH group and the SA group, SA learners tend to use the statement of regret such as "I am sorry" to refuse others. However, in terms of the strategy of promise of future acceptance, AH learners usually choose to make the promise of giving presents as compensation. The AH group uses more adjuncts than the SA group, especially the strategy of addressing with respect. Last but not least, there is no obvious difference in apologies between AH learners and SA learners. In general, all learners are more likely to use direct apologies than indirect apologies. Compared with AH learners who do not use any indirect strategies, some of the SA learners are capable of using indirect apologies. Both groups of SA and AH learners use the strategy of illocutionary force devices frequently. The offering a repair strategy and intensification strategy are also strategies used by the SA group and AH group.

B. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Study

There are some limitations to the current study. Firstly, the research only focuses on intermediate-level learners and the sample size is limited, the results in the studies that recruit different participants might be different due to the learner's variability. Secondly, the survey can only be taken through the internet without following-up interviews to validate the participants' perspectives in case of neglecting anything noteworthy. Moreover, the CCSARP model cannot fully represent the strategies used by the learners. Therefore, future research should further be placed on exploring the

effect of studying abroad experience on the learners' pragmatic competence of different proficiency level in China with a deeper focus on the strategies used in speech acts.

From the pedagogical perspective, although the results do not reveal any evident improvement in pragmatic competence for students who have study-abroad experience, every student may show some strategies in their speech acts, but their pragmatic competence is still not high. Therefore, it is suggested that more emphasis and importance should be placed on the pragmatic knowledge, which should be explicitly or implicitly taught in the classroom because the chance to enhance pragmatic competence and learn pragmatic knowledge is limited outside the classroom.

APPENDIX

Pre-interview questions

English name:

Gender: male/female/Non-binary

IELTS/CET-4 score:

Time abroad: 0 (never been abroad) / _____month(s)

The written DCT

1. It is 10 am in the morning, you are studying for an English test that will be held tomorrow. You decide to study until midnight. Unfortunately, you heard that your neighbors have decided to hold a very loud party this night, which will make you unable to concentrate at all. Although you are living next to your neighbors, you are not familiar with each other. You decide to visit them and ask them to stay quiet tonight. What would you say?

2. Your roommate asks if he/she could use your car to go to Chicago. You just got this new car last month and you liked it a lot. Knowing that the roommate is a careless and unskillful driver who has damaged another person's car before, you don't want to lend your car to this roommate. What would you say?

3. You are very short of money. your best friend always lends you some in such situations. But this time you know it may be hard as you haven't given back the money you borrowed before. Anyway, you have no choice. You decide to ask your best friend to lend you some money. What would you say?

4. Your boss is having a farewell party next Saturday evening at a restaurant in town and is inviting you and other members of the company to celebrate his promotion. He invites you to celebrate this important occasion with him, but you are unable to attend. What would you say?

5. You attend classes regularly and take good notes. One person in your class who doesn't show up very often asks to borrow your notes. Since you have to compete with the rest of the class to earn a good grade, you don't feel like sharing the results of your hard work with someone who doesn't work for it. What would you say?

6. You are supposed to submit your assignment next Wednesday. But you are feeling unwell since yesterday. You think you might be ill and will not be able to finish the assignment before next Wednesday. You know that your teacher said there is very little room for extension, but you have no choice. You decide to send a message to her and ask for an extension for the assignment. What would you say?

7. You borrowed your sister's (or brother's) new outfit to make a good impression at a job interview. You washed it with a washing machine before you returned it but unfortunately, it was dry clean only and was not able to wear anymore. It was a limited edition and was already sold out. What would you say?

8. You have a cute little puppy. When your colleague Zoe came over, he chewed Zoe's rather expensive shoes. Zoe is your partner at work, and you know each other for a while in the company for about three months, and you know Zoe loves your puppy very much. You feel very sorry. What would you say?

9. You're in the cinema. The person sitting in front of you is wearing an enormous hat making it impossible to watch the movie. You don't know each other at all, but you decide to ask him to take off his hat and let you watch the movie clearly. What would you say?

10. You were in a hurry to go to work and accidentally run into an old lady who was walking slowly, making her drop her groceries and break her eggs. You didn't know this old lady and she was too old to bend down for picking up the things. She was very upset. What would you say?

11. A friend invites you to a housewarming party tomorrow after work because they have just moved into a new house, but the house is really far from you, and you have to go to work very early the next morning. You just want to relax and have a good rest instead of going to the party. What would you say?

12. You were supposed to meet your friend Jack at 8:00 in the morning for a concert later but you overslept. And it's 11:30 and your phone shows four missed phone calls from Jack. And Jack is the new friend who you just met recently, you two are not quite familiar and intimate with each other very much yet. What would you say?

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Effectiveness of WhatsApp as a Pedagogical Tool in Learning Phrasal Verbs: A Case Study at a Higher Educational Institute in Oman

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Abstract—This study investigates the effectiveness of WhatsApp (WA) in helping students learn phrasal verbs in an English as a Foreign Language context. Using a mixed-method approach, data were collected from 32 Level 4 students of the General Foundation Program at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences, Ibra, Oman. The students were provided with 15 phrasal verbs to be learnt and used in sentences within five weeks through WA. An achievement test was conducted in the fifth week to measure the learning. In addition, a questionnaire survey and an interview were conducted to investigate students' perceptions regarding the effectiveness of WA in learning and the challenges they faced during the process. The findings showed students' positive perception regarding WA's effectiveness as a learning tool. However, certain challenges such as distraction, poor Internet connection, and poor time management were found to hinder their learning process considerably. Overall, the study highlighted the possibility of successful WA integration in foreign language education with strategies to minimize the challenges and maximize the effectiveness.

Index Terms—WhatsApp, learning tool, phrasal verbs, perception, challenges

I. INTRODUCTION

The advent of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) in language education as an alternative to the traditional teaching and learning methods has drawn the attention of both language educators and researchers. MALL is largely used to scaffold language skills at various stages of teaching. Internet-enabled mobile technologies are now increasingly used in language education, and portable wireless devices have altered the use of technology-supported learning (Kukulska-Hulme, 2009). However, mobile devices cannot substitute the current learning devices but instead can be considered as tools that supplement the learning through various activities and the implementation of appropriate learning content (Gay et al., 2001). The available mobile applications, which were initially designed solely for communication purposes, are now largely used in education, as pedagogic approaches, a mediatory platform and as potential teacher interventions to scaffold language learning or as teaching materials. WhatsApp (WA) is one such application that is widely used in language education. There are numerous studies on this topic, including Binti and Embi (2016) and Mbukusa (2018), who examined students' perception regarding WA use in language learning. Others have had a wider focus regarding the effective employment of WA in language education. For instance, Şahan et al. (2016) studied WA's effectiveness in helping students learn English idioms outside the classroom. Yet others, such as Jafari and Chalak (2016), have studied WA use in lexical acquisition, which is a vital aspect of language learning. Furthermore, there are several studies worldwide on WA effectiveness in language teaching and learning.

The current research is a case study at a higher educational institute in Oman. It attempts to investigate the effectiveness of WA use in teaching and learning phrasal verbs through 32 participants. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods. The findings provide evidence regarding the effectiveness of WA as a pedagogical approach to enhance students' learning experience. The findings will also help teachers and students to consider the usefulness of WA in the teaching and learning process.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The advent of MALL in language education as an alternative to language teaching and learning has drawn the attention of both language educators and researchers. MALL is used to scaffold language skills at different stages of learning, and mobile phone applications can play a significant role in this. The development of such applications for language education is now a business worth millions and a noticeable trend in language education. Consequently, research into MALL and language education has reached new heights. According to Gangaiamaran and Pasupathi (2017), extensive usage of mobile devices has resulted in the development of innumerable mobile applications for English language teaching. Several apps are now easily available and accessible for language learners to download.

Furthermore, MALL not only enhances students' English ability but also increases their motivation to learn. El-Hussein and Cronje (2010) argue that the distinctive characteristics of mobile technology such as portability and instant information accessibility play a major role in the enhancement of English language teaching and learning. Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) extended this argument and stated that MALL differs from computer-assisted language learning in its use of personal, portable devices that enable new ways of learning, emphasizing continuity or spontaneity of access and interaction across different contexts.

The ubiquitous presence of mobile applications and their numerous benefits facilitate language education in several ways. Social networking applications such as WA are gradually transforming language learning and teaching in a novel direction and are an alternative to traditional pedagogical approaches. Teachers can potentially experiment with its wider employment in teaching language skills. One of the latest trends in research into language education is evaluating and measuring the effectiveness of WA as a learning tool. There are numerous studies on the use of WA for educational purposes in EFL classrooms. Bouhnik and Deshen (2014) stated that WA as an instant messaging app has some unique features, the most significant being its potential to enhance communication within a group. Mistar and Embi (2016) examined students' perception about WA use, whereas Bensalem (2018) studied vocabulary development in an EFL context using WA and students' perceptions about this. In a similar study, Şahan et al. (2016) investigated the effectiveness of WA in helping EFL students at a state university in Turkey learn English idioms outside the classroom. Jafari and Chalak (2016), in their research at a secondary school in Iran, concluded that teachers could effectively use WA to enhance students' vocabulary learning. A similar study by Keogh (2017) involving a group of students who studied international relations in Colombia illustrated that WA can be used to scaffold lexical items related to their discipline. The study concluded that WA could be used to enhance collaborative learning and instil a sense of community among the students, which could benefit pedagogy. Meanwhile, in a study conducted in Oman, Justina (2016) concluded that WA integration has the potential to enhance reading and writing skills and increase motivation among students. Ahmed (2019) conducted research at a university in Yemen and found WA to be an effective learning tool that improved both the reading and writing skills of undergraduate students. Another study by Hamad (2017), in a higher educational institute in Saudi Arabia, concluded that WA as a learning tool fosters learners' enthusiasm and learning despite some challenges, such as the lack of teaching materials created specifically for WA and disciplinary issues among learners. Meanwhile, Alenazi (2018) extended the study in Saudi Arabia to teachers and examined whether WA was an effective learning platform for pre-service teachers in the absence of instructors.

In a Namibian higher educational context, Mbukusa (2018) explored students' perceptions toward WA as a teaching and learning tool. Panah and Babar (2020) found that WA could "improve both communication and education and can be used in instructor-learner, learner-learner, and learner-content interactions" (p. 1198). Nuraeni and Nurmalia (2020) studied the benefits of WA and how it could facilitate the language learning activities in the ESL classroom. In a more recent study, Khan et al. (2021) highlighted the effectiveness of WA as a learning tool in conventional classes. The findings of this study revealed both benefits and challenges of using WA in education, such as the lack of affordability among some students. All these studies showed that WA could be potentially included even in traditional face-to-face classes.

Wulandari et al. (2021) conducted a study on learners' perception regarding WA as a tool to enhance oral performance in class and found that the learners perceived both advantages and disadvantages. For instance, the COVID-19 pandemic was a turning point in terms of online education. Unprecedented consequences of the pandemic made ways for digital platforms and social media in education. In this backdrop, Nihayati and Indriani (2021) explored students' perspective about WA use in online teaching. Thus, existing literature on WA application as a learning and teaching tool establishes that the app's pedagogical use has diversified in language education. In this regard, for instance, Alamer and Al Khateeb (2021) investigated how teachers' informal use of WA could enhance autonomous motivation.

Overall, available literature shows that WA use as a tool in language education is growing and the research interest in this domain is diversifying into various facets of language teaching and learning. The present study explores the effectiveness of WA in helping students learn phrasal verbs at a higher educational institute in Oman.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study employed quantitative and qualitative research methods to address the following hypotheses:

Null hypothesis I: The average ATS of the female students is equal to the male's.

Research hypothesis I: The female average ATS is higher than the male's.

Null hypothesis II: The students' perception on the effectiveness of WA as a learning tool to learn phrasal verbs is less than average.

Research hypothesis II: The students' perception on the effectiveness of WA as a learning tool to learn phrasal verbs is more than average.

Null hypothesis III: The participants' average ATS is less than the average.

Research hypothesis III: The participants' average ATS is more than the average.

Null hypothesis IV: Challenges that students face while learning phrasal verbs on WA have no effect on the ATS.

Research hypothesis IV: Challenges that students face while learning phrasal verbs on WA have an effect on the ATS.

A. *Participants and Context*

This study's participants were Omani EFL learners at the English Language Centre (ELC) at the University of Technology and Applied Sciences-Ibra. ELC conducts two programs: the General Foundation Program (GFP) and Post-Foundation Program (PFP). Overall, there were 32 participants (19 females and 21 males) between 19 and 21 years of age. The participants were randomly selected from two different classes of Level 4 of the GFP. Level 4 was chosen as the students in this level study phrasal verb in their grammar course.

B. *Ethical Issues*

The researchers filled out the Ethical Approval Form prior to data collection, as required by the Research and Consultancy Committee of ELC. They also obtained approval for the research proposal and permission to conduct the study from the committee. Subsequently, all the participants signed a consent form, wherein they were informed that participation was voluntary, the data collected during the study will remain confidential, and the participants will be anonymized. Finally, the male and female students were assigned to two separate WA groups, of which the researchers were the sole administrators.

C. *Data Collection*

The data were collected both qualitatively and quantitatively. To begin with, the researchers briefed the study purpose to the participants. Both groups were given the same list of 15 phrasal verbs via WA to learn over the course of five weeks, averaging at 3 verbs per week. The participants were asked to find the meaning of the verbs using a dictionary, use the words in sentences, and post both on the groups, for which the researchers provided immediate constructive feedback. They intervened when the participants were unable to guess the meaning or frame correct sentences.

By the end of the fifth week, an achievement test was administered to assess how well the participants had learned the phrasal verbs through WA. The test consisted of 15 sentences containing a phrasal verb each, with 3 response options. The students were asked to choose the one that best expressed the meaning of the verb.

Next, a structured questionnaire containing 11 items on the effectiveness and challenges of using WA as a learning tool was administered. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Finally, six participants (three from each WA group) who scored the highest, medium, and lowest score in the test were interviewed regarding their perceptions and the challenges they encountered during the learning process using WA. The interview consisted of seven questions covering themes such as perception about WA, challenges encountered, and advantages and disadvantages of WA as a learning tool.

D. *Reliability and Validity*

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic by a native speaker to ensure understanding by students. For the interview, the researchers used constant comparison to ensure higher reliability. They regularly reviewed and updated the questionnaire items. Additionally, a colleague reviewed the questions and examined whether they clearly reflected the topics to be assessed, that is, participants' perceptions regarding WA use and the challenges they faced while learning. The questions were posed to the interviewees in both English and Arabic for better comprehension, and this in turn contributed to the validity of the findings. A Cronbach's alpha of .758 showed that the questionnaire was reliable.

With respect to the achievement test, an experienced ESL lecturer reviewed the content, validity of the questions, and difficulty level. The questions were revised based on their suggestions and comments. Overall, the reviews and suggestions at different stages of the data collection reinforced both the reliability of the data collection tools and the validity of the findings.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

This section presents the results of the statistical analysis of the participants' demographics, validity and reliability of the questionnaire, descriptive and inferential statistical analyses of Students' perceptions on the Use of WA as a learning tool (SPWALT), the inferential statistical analysis of achievement test score (ATS) and the correlation between ATS and the challenges in using WA as a Learning Tool (CUWALT). Analyses such as descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and frequency), Pearson and Kendall's tau-b correlations, one-sample t-test, independent t-test, and principal component analysis (PCA) were conducted using SPSS software (version 20). The PCA and parallel analysis (PA) were conducted for two fixed factors using varimax rotation to analyse the questionnaire.

V. RESULTS

As illustrated in Table 1, females represented 59.4% (19) and males represented 40.6% (13) of the participants.

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHICS

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Male	13	40.6
	Female	19	59.4
	Total	32	100.0

A. *Validity of the Effectiveness of WA as a Learning Tool (EWALT) Questionnaire*

First, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett tests (Table 2) were conducted to explore the rightness of the data for PCA. For validity, the significance must be lower than .05 degree of probability. The validity measure of the current questionnaire was .000. It shows that the validity could be measured.

TABLE 2
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST RESULTS FOR THE EWALT QUESTIONNAIRE

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.507
Approx. Chi-Square	137.252
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df 55
	Sig. .000

The PCA and PA of the 11 questionnaire items resulted in two components: SPUWALT (9 items) and CUWALT (2 items). As illustrated in Table 3, the SPUWALT items were loaded onto factor 1 and CUWALT items onto factor 2. Pearson's correlation was employed to determine the extent of association amongst the extracted items.

TABLE 3
FACTOR COMPONENT MATRIX FOR THE EWALT QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire items		Component	
		1	2
SPWALT1	WA is an effective tool to learn phrasal verbs.	.702	-.431
SPWALT2	WA can be used as a learning tool to learn other English lessons.	.375	-.682
SPWALT3	I felt confident and comfortable sharing the meanings of the phrasal verbs and sentences via WA.	.792	.025
SPWALT4	My friends' posts helped me understand the meaning of the phrasal verbs, come up with my own sentences, and post them on the WA group.	.439	-.070
SPWALT5	The teacher's comments on my friend's posts guided me to frame my own sentence.	.306	.116
SPWALT6	The teacher's feedback on the posts guided me to edit my own sentences to correct grammatical mistakes or wrong use of the phrasal verbs.	.696	.474
SPWALT7	Typing my sentences in the WA group is better than writing them on paper.	.795	-.235
SPWALT8	The researchers' immediate feedback was extremely helpful and insightful.	.398	.081
SPWALT9	Learning phrasal verbs through WA was convenient as the app could be accessed at a low cost, at any time, and from anywhere.	.626	-.273
CUWALT 1	Poor internet connection hindered the learning process.	.508	.559
CUWALT 2	The teacher pointing out my mistakes made me feel discouraged and embarrassed.	.421	.583

- Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
-Two components extracted.

B. *Reliability of SPUWALT and CUWALT*

(a). Reliability of SPWALT

To investigate the reliability of SPWALT, Cronbach’s alpha was used. As indicated in Table 4 below, the 9 items of the SPWALT component had a reliability index of .778. Thus, the strong internal consistency between these items made them suitable for data collection and analysis.

TABLE 4
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF SPUWALT

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
.778	9

(b). Reliability of CUWALT

As indicated in Table 5, the two items of the CUWALT component had a reliability index of .642. Thus, the strong internal consistency between the items made them suitable for data collection and analysis.

TABLE 5
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF CUWALT

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.642	2

C. Independent T-Test of ATS by Gender

Null hypothesis I: The average ATS of the female students is equal to the male’s.

As shown in Tables 6 and 7, since $t(30) = 1.179$, $p = .248$, the t-test was not statistically significant and the null hypothesis I is not to be rejected. Therefore, there was no statistically significant difference between the female and male students’ average ATS. However, the girls participated in the learning process of the phrasal verbs on WA more often than the boys.

TABLE 6
T-TEST OF THE ATS BY GENDER

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of the Mean
Achievement Test Score (0 to 15)	Male	13	8.92	3.278	.909
	Female	19	7.79	2.175	.499
Average of AT – 7.5					

TABLE 7
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF THE ATS BY GENDER

Achievement Test Score (0 to 15)	Equal variances assumed	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (two-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
		9.177	.005	1.179	30	.248	1.134	.962

D. Descriptive Analysis and One-Sample T-Test of SPWALT

Null hypothesis II: The students’ perception on the effectiveness of WA as a learning tool to learn phrasal verbs is less than average.

As indicated in Table 8, according to the mean interpretation, students strongly agreed with SPWALT 8, with a mean value of 4.22, and only agreed with the rest of the items, with mean values ranging between 3.63 and 4.13.

TABLE 8
OUTCOME OF THE DESCRIPTIVE TEST AND T-TEST FOR THE SPECIFIED SPWALT VALUE (AVERAGE = 3)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (two-tailed)
SPWALT1	32	3.91	.818	6.271	.000
SPWALT2	32	3.72	.958	4.243	.000
SPWALT3	32	3.72	.991	4.101	.000
SPWALT4	32	4.03	.782	7.458	.000
SPWALT5	32	4.06	.619	9.711	.000
SPWALT6	32	4.13	.660	9.644	.000
SPWALT7	32	3.63	1.212	2.918	.006
SPWALT8	32	4.22	.751	9.184	.000
SPWALT9	32	3.91	.893	5.741	.000
Valid N (listwise)	32				

According to the one-sample t-test, since the p value was less than .05, the null hypothesis was rejected at a 5% significance level for all nine statements. Therefore, students’ perception regarding the nine statements was not the

same as the average level but above it, as per the mean score. Thus, the respondents perceived WA to be an effective learning tool.

The interviewees said that learning through WA potentially promoted their confidence as a learner. A majority of the respondents said that WA was an effective learning tool. One of the respondents stated, ‘WA is very effective because it helps us learn quickly and organize our time’. The student implied flexibility, which is one of the key features of WA as a learning tool. Further, the same respondent also explained that WA assisted them in quickly grasping the content while allowing effective time management without being physically present in a classroom. Some students also stated that they had no qualms about sending their sentences with the target phrasal verbs on the group, despite the possibility of mistakes. Moreover, all of them considered accessibility and flexibility as the fundamental features and advantages of WA: ‘It can be used at anytime and anywhere’. In addition, they said that WA enabled teachers to provide instant feedback as in a face-to-face classroom. Thus, the students could rectify their mistakes and resend the edited sentences for a second round of feedback. Such instant feedback on the activities, that is, the continuous interaction between the teachers and students, was an advantage of WA as a teaching and learning tool.

A majority of the respondents echoed that the teachers provided quick and immediate feedback, which enabled them to correct their mistakes instantly. The promotion of independent or autonomous learning is a defining characteristic of the current language education landscape worldwide. In line with the modern language classrooms, the respondents confirmed the independent learning they experienced in concrete terms with examples: checking the meanings of phrasal verbs using a dictionary, seeking the support of a competent English language user, conducting discussions with their peers in the group, and utilising teachers’ feedback to reflect on their examples, which are key characteristics of autonomous learning.

E. Inferential Statistical Analysis of the ATS

Null hypothesis III: The participants’ average ATS is less than the average (7.5).

As Table 9 shows, $t(31) = 1.578, p = .125$; therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted at a 5% significance level with respect to the average ATS (7.5). The students’ average ATS was equal to the average. Although their perception of the effectiveness of WA as a learning tool to learn phrasal verbs was high, the ATS was not statistically different from the average (7.5). The lower scores of the students could be attributed to factors such as low motivation level, challenges encountered while learning through WA, and the absence of effective teacher intervention strategy to scaffold and reinforce the target phrasal verbs. According to the interviewees, although the students liked the idea of using WA as a learning tool due to its advantages, they preferred face-to-face learning. One of the respondents said, ‘I feel that on WA, we are not very responsible in our learning. I feel better to be in class as the student is present and conscious of his/her learning and we are more focused as there is nothing that can distract him/her.’ Accordingly, using WA is challenging compared to face-to-face learning. Moreover, the distractions while learning through WA could have a detrimental effect on the learning process. One of the interviewees said, ‘I think WA can distract us from learning as I cannot focus on the learning because I can use it for socializing at the same time.’ Finally, some respondents claimed that they faced time management issues while using WA, and poor Internet connections at times interrupted their learning. These drawbacks represent some of the challenges in using WA as a learning tool.

TABLE 9
T-TEST FOR THE SPECIFIED ATS VALUE (AVERAGE = 7.5)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (two-tailed)
Achievement Test Score (0 to 15)	32	8.25	2.688	1.578	31	.125

F. Correlation Statistics Between CUWALT and ATS

Null hypothesis IV: Challenges that students face while learning phrasal verbs on WA have no effect on the ATS.

As shown in Table 10, the correlation coefficient is negligible at $r(30) = .083, p = .552$; therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted, no correlation was found between CUWALT and ATS, and CUWALT 1 and CUWALT 2 had no considerable effects on ATS. However, the ATS might have been affected by the other challenges that the interviewees mentioned, such as poor time management, external distractions, and poor Internet connection.

TABLE 10
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CHALLENGES IN USING WA AS A LEARNING TOOL (CUWALT) AND ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORE (ATS)

CUWALT		Correlation Coefficient	
Kendall's tau-b	Achievement Test Score (0 to 15)	.083	.552
			32

VI. DISCUSSION

The present study investigated whether WA can be effectively utilized as a pedagogical tool to improve students' learning of phrasal verbs. The results showed that WA could be an effective tool to learn phrasal verbs with its distinctive features such as flexibility, accessibility, and instant feedback, despite its disadvantages.

The findings corroborate those of Castrillo et al. (2014), Bansal and Joshi (2014), and Plana et al. (2013) in terms of students' positive attitudes toward WA and the motivational effects related to the concepts of collaboration and interaction. They also overlap with the finding of Al-Gasaymeh (2017) in terms of the positive feelings and intentions regarding using WA in formal learning.

However, the findings related to the ATS showed that the students did not significantly benefit from using WA to learn the English phrasal verbs, that is, the actual learning was limited. This supports the findings of Dehghan et al. (2017), whose participants did not improve their vocabulary learning through WA. These researchers found that the results were affected by challenges such as poor Internet connection, lack of commitment to the task, being distracted by socializing with others on the WA groups, and being overwhelmed with their education. These findings contradicted Bensalem (2018) and Jafari and Chalak (2016), who found that WA effectively enhanced learners' vocabulary. However, it confirmed part of the findings of Jafari and Chalak (2016), in that no substantial difference was found between male and female students' learning using WA.

VII. STUDY LIMITATIONS

First, the study was limited to only Level 4 of the GFP at the ELC. In the future, it can be extended to other levels in the GFP and to the PF program to yield more generalizable findings. Furthermore, the research can be conducted in other branches that fall under the umbrella of the University of Technology and Applied Sciences. Second, no teacher interventions were used to provide students with theoretical knowledge and sufficient practice on using phrasal verbs. Instead, only the phrasal verbs were shared in the respective WA groups. Effective teacher interventions could result in more detailed findings. Finally, the study found a tendency of students to copy answers and definitions from other group members when sharing the meanings and constructed sentences.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This case study employed a mixed-method research approach for data collection. The data analysis found that the ATS of both male and female participants had no statistically significant difference. Both demonstrated a positive perception about WA as a learning tool although they preferred face-to-face learning. However, the participants encountered some challenges in using WA, which nevertheless do not outweigh the positive aspects of WA as a learning tool. The key challenges included distraction, time management constraints, and poor Internet connection. These challenges had significant impact on the students' ATS.

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the limitations, first, a pre-test could be conducted to evaluate students' existing knowledge about phrasal verbs and thus obtain a clear picture of the sample groups. Second, effective teacher interventions such as audio or video materials about phrasal verbs or supplementary materials and teaching resources can reinforce the activities and help assess the effectiveness of WA as a learning and teaching tool in depth. Third, to avoid plagiarism among students, researchers could collect students' responses through a dedicated WA number and provide feedback individually, rather than on the group. This could prevent the embarrassment of students from teachers' feedback on the group as well as protect individual identity. Fourth, future research can focus on the different ways of enhancing the effectiveness of WA as a teaching and learning tool by focusing on overcoming the potential challenges. For example, certain higher educational institutes conduct various remedial programs for academically at-risk students to improve their language skills. Finally, researchers could evaluate how to implement WA as a main platform and a pedagogical approach to cater to academic programs for at-risk students. This would enable educational institutes to minimize the consumption of resources and provide an alternative learning experience to students.

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Students' Perceptions of Effective EFL Teachers in a University in Vietnam

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Abstract—Teachers are a vital element in education development as effective teachers are a central resource for the success of an educational organization. Effective teachers generally help to improve students' learning behaviors and academic performance, and thus attention needs to be given to examining teacher effectiveness as a key to guaranteed education quality. As students are the first and direct stakeholders, students should have the most influential voice in what is regarded as effective teaching. This descriptive study investigated the characteristics of effective English teachers as perceived by 89 students of English as a foreign language (EFL) at a public university in the South of Vietnam with a self-report questionnaire consisting of four aspects: English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, organization and communication skills and socio-affective skills. Overall, the students indicated positive perception towards the required characteristics of an effective English teacher. Two additional aspects of characteristics were identified including professionalism and personality traits. The results of this study can help teachers to become aware of important aspects of teaching qualities from students' points of view in order to improve themselves to meet standards for an effective EFL teacher.

Index Terms—Perceptions, Performance, Quality, Proficiency, Teacher effectiveness

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers play a determining role for the success of teaching and learning process. Effective teachers generally have profound knowledge of their subject content and effective skills (Clement & Rencewigg, 2020). The concept of effective teachers has been examined from different perspectives in different contexts, particularly in Western higher education settings; however, in terms of EFL teaching and learning in Vietnam, few studies have explored this concept from students' perspectives. A thorough understanding of students' perceptions of effective teachers can be a powerful tool for measuring effective teaching practices in the classroom. Identifying common characteristics valued by their students is useful in informing teachers about their strengths as well as their weaknesses. As teacher quality is important to enhance effective learning, it would be truly beneficial if teachers could know what students perceive as the characteristics of effective teachers. This study aims to examine how students perceive key quality characteristics of successful EFL teachers. The current study is significant to provide EFL teachers with insights in achieving the ideal image and qualities of an effective teacher in the 21st century education.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Effective Teaching*

Teachers are the key element in any educational institutions and effective teaching is necessary to guarantee the institutional success. Effective teaching can be defined in different ways, but teachers' influences on student success are the most accepted definition of effective or quality teaching. If success of students is the target of teaching and learning process, effective teaching is the means by which this important goal can be achieved. In extensive literature of teaching effectiveness (Bulger et al., 2002; Kola et al., 2015), effective teaching generally involves a combination of several major attributes including quality of instruction, pedagogical knowledge, classroom management, and classroom climate.

Quality of instruction is always emphasized for effective teaching (Sogunro, 2017). Teachers should articulate their expectations of assignments or tasks through clear directions. There are various instructional strategies and practices including motivating and engaging students, organizing information for understanding and remembering and monitoring and assessing learning (Rueda et al., 2021).

Pedagogical knowledge is a complex integration of pedagogical knowledge and subject matter knowledge (Shing et al., 2015). With good pedagogical knowledge, teachers are able to choose appropriate instructional strategies such as using educational games embedded within a structure including cooperative learning, inquiry, or project-based learning to successfully teach a subject such as English.

Classroom management is the process of organizing and managing class activities through a process of promoting positive students behavior and achievement (Chandra, 2015). There is a wide variety of skills and techniques used by teachers to facilitate optimal conditions for classroom management. Classroom management is also about creating the

right environment, setting clear expectations, and thoughtfully choosing learning materials and activities (Mohammed, 2021).

Classroom climate generally refers to “intellectual, social, emotional, and physical environments in which our students learn” (Ambrose et al., 2010, p. 170), which generally is determined by the quality of relationships between individuals at an educational institution (Zohoorian & Faravani, 2021). Effective teachers need to create a positive classroom climate for helping students achieve success. When students feel valued, they are more likely to be self-efficacious, active and effective in their learning.

B. Effective EFL Teachers and Their Characteristics

In general context, good teachers from different disciplines may share similar qualities or characteristics. Borg (2006) examined ways in which foreign language teachers are seen to be different to teachers of other subjects. The factors that distinguish the experience of foreign language teachers from that of teachers of other subjects include the nature of the subject matter itself, the interaction patterns necessary to provide instruction, the challenge for teachers of increasing their knowledge of the subject, and the need for outside support for learning the subject. According to Bell (2005), foreign language teaching is a complex, multidimensional process which requires teachers to clear and enthusiastic in teaching that provides learners with the grammatical, lexical, phonological, pragmatic, and socio-cultural knowledge and interactive practice they need to communicate successfully in the target language.

Although there seem to be universal general principles of effective teaching used to specify an effective teacher, EFL teachers are likely to have several distinctive characteristics, which may be related to the nature of English as a subject. In the current study, the four aspects of teaching effectiveness are examined, including English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, organization and communication skills and socio-affective skills (Park & Lee, 2006).

C. Measurement of Effective Teaching

Evaluating teaching effectiveness is a complex task and there are quite a few of methods used to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching including formal or informal classroom observations, students’ academic achievement, and student perceptions of teacher effectiveness. Because students are directly impacted by teacher effectiveness, it is important to include students' perceptions of effective teachers in the knowledge base (Geiger et al., 2019).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

In the current study, a descriptive survey design with an online questionnaire was employed with EFL students of a public university in the South of Vietnam. A student perception survey is feasible and efficient as it can help to engage most of the students and the results can be quickly analyzed.

B. Participants

Participants of the study were EFL learners in a public university in the South of Vietnam. All the current students in the academic year 2021-2022 were invited via the university mailing list to participate in the survey. In response, 89 participants completed the survey. The basic characteristics of the participants are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHICS DETAILS OF PARTICIPANTS (N = 89)

Characteristics	Number	Percentage
Gender		
Female	63	70.8%
Male	26	29.2%
Year of study		
First-year students	13	14.6%
Second-year students	13	14.6%
Third-year students	49	55.1%
Fourth-year students	14	15.7%

C. Instrument

The online questionnaire used to gather data for this study was adapted from a previous study (Park & Lee, 2006), which consists of four sections of closed-ended questions and the last section with one open-ended question. Section 1 is about English proficiency with 5 statements; Section 2 about Pedagogical knowledge with 13 statements, Section 3 about Organization and communication skills with 7 statements and Section 4 about Socio-affective skills with 8 statements. The participants are asked to indicate the level of importance of each statement, using a five-point Likert scale from 0 (not important at all) to 4 (the most important). The last section asked the participants to provide free responses about important characteristics of an effective teacher from their experience.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results From Closed-Ended Questions

The results and discussion have been organized into four main characteristics of an effective English language teacher. Generally, the mean scores are relatively high with the total average mean score of 3.52. The statement related to Organization and communication skills “Prepare the lesson well” had the highest score with 3.88, and the statement “Provide constant feedback” in the section of Pedagogical knowledge had the lowest mean score with 3.18.

(a). English Proficiency

It is natural that being competent in English plays a pivotal role as an English teacher. In this study, most participants perceived the characteristics of English proficiency as being very important as presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY (N = 89)

Characteristics	M	SD	Scale				
			0	1	2	3	4
Read, write, speak, and understand spoken English well.	3.62	.631		1	4	23	61
Have good knowledge of English grammar.	3.42	.704		2	5	36	46
Know English vocabulary well.	3.40	.719		2	6	35	46
Have correct accent and pronunciation.	3.28	.812		4	8	36	41
Possess extensive culture comprehension.	3.12	.963	2	4	12	34	37
Average mean score	3.37						

Of the five characteristics about English proficiency, “Read, write, speak, and understand spoken English well” had the highest mean score, with M = 3.62. As generally required level of proficiency, EFL teachers need to be fluent in four language skills for their classroom instructions. This result is in line with previous study (Wulyani et al., 2019), indicating that an effective teacher should be efficient in basic communication in English.

It is also interesting to note that relatively high percentage of the participants perceived an effective English teacher to “have good knowledge of English grammar and “know English vocabulary well”. The results partly reflect the current context of EFL teaching in Vietnam, when grammar-translation method is still much emphasized (Kieu, 2010; Vu & Peters, 2021).

The lowest mean score (M = 3.12) was for the characteristic statement “Possess extensive culture comprehension”. It is likely that the student participants in the current study tended to perceive cultural knowledge not a part of the language proficiency.

(b). Pedagogical Knowledge

Pedagogical knowledge generally refers to the specialized knowledge of teachers for creating effective teaching and learning environments for all students (Dadvand & Behzadpoor, 2020). Of the characteristics about pedagogical knowledge, the participants in this study perceived “Motivate students by supporting their self-efficacy” as being the most important with the mean score of 3.49 (See Table 3). The result is highly expected as teachers’ key role is to develop students’ competence, interest in subject taught, and perception of self-efficacy (Johnson, 2017).

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE (N = 89)

Characteristics	M	SD	Scale				
			0	1	2	3	4
Motivate students by supporting their self-efficacy.	3.49	.740		2	7	25	55
Praise students for good ideas or for their efforts.	3.37	.871	2	1	8	29	49
Promote communicative language learning through activities and discussion.	3.35	.799		2	12	28	47
Create and maintain a good classroom atmosphere.	3.35	.854		4	10	26	49
Encourage the students to learn English outside the classroom.	3.34	.768		3	7	36	43
Teach subject matter in ways that are accessible to all learners.	3.34	.839		6	3	35	45
Provide constant feedback.	3.21	.859	1	3	10	37	38
Focus on learning outcomes and growth.	3.19	.864	1	2	14	34	38
Avoid direct criticism of students when they make errors.	3.17	1.014		10	9	26	44
Use various materials including video, audio, and multimedia.	3.13	.894	1	3	15	34	36
Develop students' language skill through working in pairs or groups.	3.07	.951	2	4	13	37	33
Let students have some control over the learning process.	3.07	.823		3	18	38	30
Assess what students have learned rationally.	3.06	.817		4	15	42	28
Average mean score	3.24						

The statement “Praise students for good ideas or for their efforts” also had relatively high mean score (M = 3.37). It is reasonable that positive comments or praising is often highlighted as a specific tool that teachers should use to reinforce students’ behavior and learning (Mardiah, 2020).

The two statements “Promote communicative language learning through activities and discussion” and “Create and maintain a good classroom atmosphere” had the same high mean scores of 3.35. It is likely that the students in this study expected their teachers to cherish a supportive and productive learning environment through effective engaging activities. The results are relatively similar with several authors (Munna & Kalam, 2021), emphasizing the importance of applying different pedagogical strategies to enhance classroom climate.

The other two statements “Encourage the students to learn English outside the classroom” and “Teach subject matter in ways that are accessible to all learners” also had relatively high mean scores of 3.34. “Focus on learning outcomes and growth” of the learners as being relatively important with the mean score of 3.19. The result is expected as learning outcomes are commonly prioritized in teaching and learning process as revealed in different studies (Maher, 2004; Mahajan & Singh, 2017).

The other characteristics in the pedagogical knowledge perceived by the participants as being important include “Avoid direct criticism of students when they make errors” and “Use various materials including video, audio, and multimedia”. It is explainable that the student participants preferred their teachers to avoid direct negative feedback which may decrease the students’ participation in class discussion (Mrachko et al., 2017); however, this explanation needs further investigation.

The two statements “Develop students’ language skill through working in pairs or groups” and “Let students have some control over the learning process” had the same mean scores of 3.07. These characteristics of pedagogical knowledge are necessary for effective teaching as reviewed in literature (Dincer et al., 2013; Zamani & Ahangari, 2016).

The statement “Assess what students have learned rationally” had the lowest mean score of 3.06. The result can be understandable as class examinations are commonly students’ anxiety or stress which requires various techniques to create a healthy competitive environment in the classroom (Agrawal & Goel, 2016).

(c). *Organization and Communication Skills*

The way a teacher plans and develops a lesson generally influences the lesson quality and the learner’s achievement in the subject a great deal. In addition, an effective teacher must possess strong communication skills as these are essential in contributing to effective teaching (Nesari & Heidari, 2014; Yusof & Halim, 2014).

As presented in Table 4, the characteristics “Speak clearly” and “Use easy language to aid students’ understanding” with the relatively high mean scores (M = 3.66 and 3.57, respectively) were understandable. It is natural that classroom instructions should be clear, concise and well-organized, and teachers of English undoubtedly need these to support learners to follow lessons effectively (Wang et al., 2014).

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF ORGANIZATION AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS (N = 89)

Characteristics	M	SD	Scale				
			0	1	2	3	4
Speak clearly.	3.66	.602			6	18	65
Use easy language to aid student's understanding.	3.57	.672		2	3	26	58
Prepare the lesson well.	3.52	.659		1	5	30	53
Stress the most important points.	3.52	.740		2	7	23	57
Present the content in a well-organized way.	3.47	.709		2	5	31	51
Vary the speed and tone of voice according to the situation.	3.37	.845		5	6	29	49
Use non-verbal behavior to solicit student attention and interest.	3.24	.798		4	8	40	37
Average mean score	3.48						

The two statements “Prepare the lesson well” and “Stress the most important points” had the relatively high same mean scores of 3.52. The result is understandable as generally every teacher should be responsible for their lesson planning and instruction quality (Sogunro, 2017).

The statement “Use non-verbal behavior to solicit student attention and interest” had the lowest mean score of 3.24, although the value is relatively high in the range. The explanation can be that teachers in the study tended to focus on verbal instructions as the need of target language exposure in an ELT environment. This explanation, however, needs further evidence.

(d). *Socio-Affective Skills*

It is crucial that teachers have some basic socio-affective skills to interact with their students and maintain the educational process effectively. These skills include a wide range of items such as motivating students, sparing time for students when they ask for help, being enthusiastic for teaching, having positive attitudes towards students, responding to students’ needs and providing a stress-free classroom atmosphere (Park & Lee, 2006). In this study, the majority of the student participants perceived “Treat students fairly and equally” as being the most important with the mean score of 3.64 (see Table 5). It is important that equal treatment of students should be emphasized in classroom management as generally reviewed in literature (Margret & Faas, 2014).

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF SOCIO-AFFECTIVE SKILLS (N = 89)

Characteristics	M	SD	Scale				
			0	1	2	3	4
Treat students fairly and equally.	3.64	.608		1	3	23	62
Listen to students’ points of view.	3.52	.624		1	3	34	51
Be approachable and friendly.	3.49	.725		1	9	24	55
Be patient.	3.47	.692		1	7	30	51
Be helpful to students in and outside the classroom.	3.28	.769		3	8	39	39
Alleviate students’ anxiety in class.	3.09	.807		2	19	37	31
Have a good sense of humor.	3.09	.949	1	4	18	29	37
Have an interest in students, for example, address individual students by name.	3.08	.882	1	3	16	37	32
Average mean score	3.33						

The other characteristics “Listen to students’ points of view” and “Be approachable and friendly” also had relatively mean scores of 3.52 and 3.49, respectively. It is relatively consistent in a previous study (Song et al., 2020) that students always expect their teachers to be caring and supportive.

The two statements “Alleviate students’ anxiety in class” and “Have a good sense of humor” had the same mean scores of 3.09. The result is somewhat different from the literature, generally indicating that teachers’ sense of humor is like a miracle in creating effective teaching and learning environments (Motiagh et al., 2014). It is likely that the students in this study perceived their teachers over cautious or serious with their teaching process.

The lowest mean score of 3.08 was for the characteristic statement “Have an interest in students, for example, address individual students by name”. This result is unexpected to some extent as in most literature about teachers’ roles, the learning of individual names generally has deep value for students in a class (Cooper et al., 2017).

B. *Results From Open-Ended Question*

Besides the survey questions, the participants were also invited to suggest the necessary qualities of an effective EFL teacher from their own experience. Their answers were classified into the four main themes including teaching skills, knowledge and skills of English, professionalism and personality characteristics.

Teaching skills are teachers’ professional competencies to help students to achieve learning goals. As explained by several researchers (Gultom et al., 2020), several important teaching skills include the skills of asking questions,

explaining, providing reinforcement, guiding group discussions, and managing classes. In this study, some of typical answers were as follows.

Teachers should be active, applying suitable methods, particularly in heterogeneous classes.

Good teachers are able to focus on the learning ability of every student and have appropriate teaching methods for each one.

Asking questions to elicit the lesson points and facilitate the students' learning are important qualities for an effective teacher.

Knowledge and skills of English refer to English competence. In this study, the majority of the student participants indicated teachers' ability to use English fluently and accurately as the most important quality of an English teacher.

An effective English teacher must have good English knowledge and skills.

For me, the most important quality of a good English teacher will be English proficiency. No one can bear that an English teacher is not fluently or has grammar mistakes.

I think some most important characteristics of an effective English teacher are having good knowledge of English, having good presentation skills, and knowing how instruct the lessons in English effectively.

Teachers' professionalism refers to various behaviours from appearance and punctuality to using proper language and building strong relationships with colleagues and students (Wardoyo et al., 2017). In a specific context, the students required their teachers to be well-dressed, go to class on time, be well-prepared for every lesson, and follow the course schedule strictly.

From my point of view, effective English teachers should be well-organized and well-disciplined.

I prefer my teachers to respect punctuality and follow the formal style of clothing.

Good teachers need to follow the schedules and be well-planned for their teaching.

Students generally appreciated personality characteristics of their teachers that could facilitate their English learning. Typically, the students loved their teachers to be friendly, patient, enthusiastic and responsible. It is also important for teachers to treat students fairly and equally.

In my experience, an effective English teacher should have some important characteristics such as being kind, friendly, enthusiastic and inspiring.

Patience and friendliness create an effective English teacher. In addition, good teachers need to be well-responsible.

In my opinion, an effective English teacher should be supportive and caring.

V. DISCUSSION

Effective English teachers have been studied in numerous studies, and this study has further confirmed some significant findings. Teacher effectiveness is important because thanks to it, student learning can be motivated and enhanced. It is important to note that the student participants positively perceived about an effective teacher's characteristics. The findings cover the four groups of characteristics about English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, communication and socio-affective skills. On the whole, the average mean scores of these characteristics are relatively high. The students emphasized some characteristics such as treating students fairly, communicating effectively and being proficient in all four skills of English. These findings were much in accordance with a previous study (Metruk, 2021).

It is relatively unexpected that the students focused most on the skills of organization and communication. This result is relatively different from a number of studies which revealed that teachers' high level of English proficiency is the most important indicator of an English teacher quality (Masduki et al., 2022). It is explainable that in this study, the students preferred their teachers to be more conversant in class instruction as this might help them understand things effectively. However, this explanation needs further investigation.

Students' less emphasis on pedagogical knowledge for an English effective teacher could be attributed to teachers' limited ability to develop necessary pedagogical skills for effective teaching. The result is relatively in accordance with previous research (Benson et al., 2020), indicating the students' poor attitudes towards science as a result of teachers' low pedagogical skills.

The students' free responses helped to enrich the quantitative data from the survey and identified two additional aspects including professionalism and personal characteristics. The results of the study corroborate the previous research undertaken in different contexts (Catano & Harvey, 2011), emphasizing several most-wanted qualities such as individual rapport, enthusiasm, sharing and being responsible.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study investigated and analyzed EFL students' perceptions of effective teachers' characteristics in a public university in the South of Vietnam. The findings showed that of the four aspects of effective teaching, the group of organization and communication skills scored the highest, followed by English proficiency, socio-affective skills, and pedagogical knowledge, respectively. Two other identified aspects were professionalism and personality characteristics.

This study can help teachers to become aware of important aspects of teaching qualities from students' points of view in order to improve themselves to meet standards for an effective EFL teacher.

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Humour in Chetan Bhagat's *The Girl in Room 105* and *One Arranged Murder*: A Study With Special Reference to His Creation of Dark Humour and Satire

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Abstract—Humour is the predominant element in all the novels of Chetan Bhagat. His novels contain ‘black humour’ which is a form of humour that presents sorrows and sufferings as very mean or that regards human existence as ironic and pointless but somehow comic. ‘Black humour’ is also called ‘Black Comedy’ or ‘Dark Humour’, and the idea that people are powerless victims of fate and character is frequently used to illustrate farce and low humour. The novelist uses humour to reflect the realistic picture of contemporary society. Humour can be more successful in one’s native language. Though the novelist writes in English, he uses very simple language which seems to be one’s own native tongue. The present paper is an attempt to explore humorous elements in Chetan Bhagat’s most recent two novels, ‘*The Girl in Room 105*’ and ‘*One Arranged Murder*’, with special reference to black humour and satire.

Index Terms—Elements of humour, black humour or dark humour, irony and satire, humour and wit, farce and sarcasm

I. INTRODUCTION

Humour is the tendency of experiences to provoke laughter and provide entertainment (Singh, 2012). The term ‘Humour’ was used during the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. It was believed that the balance of four major fluids of the body- blood, phlegm, yellow bile and black bile-determined an individual’s health and temperament. These humours released vapours that affected the functioning of the brain. In keeping with his or her predominant humour the individual was sanguine, phlegmatic, choleric, or melancholy. Ben Jonson was the most famous practitioner of the comedy of humours. “The theory had such wide acceptance that it wormed its way into popular culture and literature. Individuals (or literary characters) came to be grouped according to their humours” (Prodhani, 2012, p. 130). Dark humour or Black humour is also known as Gallows or Morbid humour – a phrase first used by Styant (1962) in his book *The Dark Comedy*. It denotes tragi-comic humour; plays that combine humour with a pessimistic viewpoint while also expressing sadness, abject misery, and hopelessness. Notable specimens are Chekhov’s plays, which were written between 1860 and 1904. Satire is a genre of literature in which vices, follies, abuses, and weaknesses are exposed for what they are, ideally with the goal of upsetting people, businesses, governments, or society as a whole to further progress (Cuddon, 1998). The basic aim of satire is to bring changes in society with positive criticism. In western literature, the effort was made to create humour by the characters playing the role of the lower class. With the change in the social system, it was found that against the administrative system, satire began to appear. Gradually, humour becomes the medium of social reform rather than being only the tool of laughter. In this way, satire becomes one of the main ingredients of literature. As humour feeds laughter, so, satire provides laughter ridiculing some vice of some particular person or some society as a whole. Thus, it is applied in the literature to remove the follies or vices from society.

Chetan Bhagat is a prominent Indian English novelist who depicts the urban middle-class people of modern Indian society, especially the young generation as a whole, not in fragments. He portrays the picture of the young generation along with their necessities and problems with an effort to solve them. Therefore, every novel of his is entertaining. Bhagat keeps the readers’ attention throughout the novels through the use of simple humour. Chetan Bhagat has formed

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many Indian readers' reading habits creating light moments for them. The funny elements in his novels have not decreased but increased his readers.

The Girl in Room 105 and *One Arranged Murder*, two of Chetan Bhagat's most recent books, are primarily humorous in nature. Both the novels are replete with black humour and satire. This paper will try to study humour with the reference to black humour and satire in the above-mentioned two novels.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Famous Indian-English author Chetan Bhagat writes on urban middle-class members of contemporary Indian society, particularly the younger generation. Bhagat uses straightforward humour throughout his writings to hold the readers' attention. Partap and Padmasree (2016) stated that humour is a predominant element in Chetan Bhagat's all novels. They further demanded that the novels have 'black humour'. Kiangte (2018) in her research commented that Bhagat has made an effort to create a new paradigm about India, whose economy and political system have an impact on a generation that is sensitive to the globalization of the economy. Bhagat's novel has a positive outlook since it encourages individuals to strive for achievement and provides them a hope and a vision for the future. Due to this, it appears that current kids who live in cities have a positive attitude toward suffering (Pareek, 2016). According to Patil (2012), the Indian English novel has been completely transformed by Chetan Bhagat, whose work has had such a profound impact that Hindi movies are now adapting his books for the big screen. Parida (2017) in his research stated that Bhagat uses humour to bring out the stark reality in the lives of educated youths, their human concern, and their struggles and dilemmas through the perfect use of humour and satire that creates much laughter among the readers. Avtar and Talan (2012) tried to depict the reasons behind why the young class is attracted to Chetan Bhagat through his novels. The best-selling category of Indian English literature has been created by Chetan Bhagat by combining the highbrow and lowbrow genres. One of the vital features of his novels is the sense of lively humour. Out of many reasons the researchers find out, one is his application of healthy humour and optimistic approach to life. In her critique, Sablok (2012) highlighted Chetan Bhagat's accomplishments as an author and social activist. In the introduction, the writer stated the function of Chetan Bhagat's work. She views Bhagat's books as highly entertaining but at the same time headed with a serious purpose. Sivanandan (2014) in his research demanded that Chetan Bhagat needs to be praised for the application of humour elements in all his novels. It makes sense that there would be a lot of humour in the books if young people were the main focus. The undercurrent of humour in the novels is black humour, which predominates in his writing. He uses humour to highlight the harsh truth of life, which doesn't always have a happy conclusion. Supporting Chetan Bhagat's use of humour and inspiring his young fans, the researcher says that the youth of today could be quirky, humorous, and light-hearted, however when it is time to make decisions, they show their worth.

III. METHODOLOGY

As the subject of the study is narrative, usually the method of narrative analysis is observed throughout the paper. The two novels *One Arranged Murder* and *The Girl in Room 105* were the primary sources for the majority of the study's information. A significant amount of secondary data has also been gathered from reputable publications and books. These sources of data are found in both physical and digital libraries and are studied thoroughly. To establish the study more logical and reasonable some texts are quoted directly from the novels as it is.

IV. DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

Chetan Bhagat uses humour to represent a realistic picture of contemporary society. Though humour is mostly successful in the native language, but Chetan Bhagat's use of very easy and simple English has made it like the native language. In an interview for THE HINDU (on May 22, 2019), to questions of reporter, Sudevan, the novelist Chetan Bhagat replies –

My last book, *The Girl in Room 105*, is a murder mystery. So, I am doing it. But I am older now. There is a charm in being a buffoon in 25. But when you are 45, you should age a little gracefully. I am also not the same person I was. So, you don't relate to those kinds of frivolousness and you want to be a little more serious. Having said that, my books will always have humour.... I want a Chetan Bhagat genre. I don't want to be in a genre. I want to find genre. It's very hard actually to put my books in genre. Are they romance? Are they social issues? Are they humour? It's a Chetan Bhagat book. And you will know it if you have read the book (Sudevan, 2019).

Under the headline *One Arranged Murder: Vikrant Massey stars in teaser for Chetan Bhagat's new book* in Hindustan Times (August 19, 2020), "Vikrant Massey turns narrator for Chetan Bhagat as the author teases his new book, *One Arranged Murder*" (Desk, 2020). Over the course of that week, Chetan posted updates about the book on Instagram. He revealed the book's title and cover *One Arranged Murder*. Regarding the book, he had informed PTI –

One Arranged Murder is a gripping murder mystery set in the backdrop of an arranged marriage. Not only does it have intense suspense, it is also filled with humour, love and relatable Indian characters — something

common to all my books. The test readers gave a phenomenal response and I can't wait for everyone to read it (PTI, 2020).

Chetan Bhagat replied to a question by Rekha Balakrishnan on his ninth novel *One Arranged Murder* – Though this is my second murder mystery after *The Girl in Room 105*, this is a better book, crisper, and gripping with more humour. Though I was quite sceptical to launch the book in the middle of the pandemic, the response has been fabulous. People are at home, keen to try new things, and also read a book (Balakrishnan, 2020).

A. *The Girl in Room 105*

The novel *The Girl in Room 105* is replete with ample humour exposed through satire, irony, and sarcasm. Keshav Rajpurohit and Saurabh Maheshwari are the two main characters in the novel who are flatmates and bosom friends. Most of the humorous conversations and situations are created by these two friends in the novel. At the very outset of the novel two friends are found talking between themselves. Saurabh says to Keshav, “*You swore on me you wouldn't have more than two drinks*” (p. 6). Keshav replies, “*But did I quantify the size of the drinks? How much whisky per drink? Half a bottle?*” (p. 6). Keshav creates a humorous situation in a debate scene where he utters loudly “*Yes, superb! Shabash,*” (p. 9) and blows a whistle with the help of fingers and mouth. As Saurabh scolds Keshav for his nasty phone talk with Raghu, Keshav says, “*Golu ji. When you scold me, you look too cute. Your round face becomes red like a tomato ji*” (p. 17). When Keshav says to Saurabh, “*You have become even more fat, Golu,*” “*You love your mithai, no?*” (p. 18), Saurabh replies sarcastically “*Better than loving what you can never have*” (p. 18).

Getting a message from Zara Lone's number, Keshav goes to her room with Saurabh at midnight to wish her a birthday. The security police checked them where Saurabh flashed Keshav's old ID. “*He hid the 'valid until' date with his finger. It is amazing how even under alcohol's influence, the brain knows how to cover its ass from authorities*” (p. 37). Reaching the hostel, Saurabh begins to climb the mango tree behind her room to enter it. “*The mango tree creaked. They are designed for monkeys, after all, not overweight, ninety-kilo humans*” (p. 42). Saurabh's physical appearance is depicted more humorously as:

I looked at Saurabh. His fat, round face made him look like a Pixar teddy bear (p. 186).

I am working on it. One day I will have a six-pack like you. Actually, I do have one. It's just hidden under some tissue.

That tissue is called fat. And it is not some tissue, it is a lot of it (p. 136).

Saurabh came to stand in front of me. In his white sweater, he looked like a polar bear. Polar bear placed his paws on my shoulders (p. 218).

His wife wants us to go to the same place, I pointed to Saurabh. Saurabh smiled shyly. *In his puffy red sweater, he did look like a henpecked husband* (p. 223).

His fondness of food, a habit of over-eating, and his nature also sometimes become a matter of laughter. The following statements of Keshav and Saurabh present it.

I shunted the plate of food towards him. Saurabh looked at the plate like he had found his missing child after several years (p. 165).

What kind of investigation will tuition masters like us do, anyway? Saurabh said, grabbing the second bhatura before he had finished the first (pp. 165-166).

You are so inspiring, Saurabh said, finishing the last almond in his left hand while using his right to pick up a fistful of raisins. *I tried to give Saurabh a dirty look for picking up so much food, but he ignored me* (p. 239).

Can you stop eating so much? What did you weigh last time? Ninety-six kilos? *Ninety-five-and-a-half. Anyway, breakfast is the most important meal of the day. One should eat it well,* Saurabh said, and took a bite of his toast.

Golu, you eat every meal too well.

And you hardly eat, Saurabh said, taking a bite big enough to finish off half the toast (p. 242).

Though Saurabh eats more calories but burns very less. He is totally careless with his body fitness. In the scene of a gymnasium, two friends are seen exercising. The following statements of Keshav in this scene establish the truth regarding it and makes the readers laugh.

I lifted a ten-kilo dumbbell and handed it to Saurabh. Saurabh found it too heavy and went to replace it with a two-kilo one.

Hmmm... Saurabh started doing bicep curls with a weight that a toddler could pick up. *Both of us looked at each other in the gym mirror* (p.136).

The scene in Nemchand Pakoda Shop in Paharganj where Keshav and Saurabh meet terrorist Sikander, stepbrother of Zara Lone is also humorous; which is also an example of dark humour. When Sikander takes out his revolver,

Saurabh's mouth fell open. Even though Sikander had not told us to, Saurabh raised both his hands up in reflex, a result of watching too many movies. One of his hands held an onion pakora.

He's gone, I said to Saurabh. *You can bring your hands down* (p. 172).

Sometimes the conversation between Keshav and Saurabh becomes very amusing as:

You really think you can hack the matching algorithm on Tinder?

What if I could? Imagine. Every girl, no matter if she swiped left or right, would match with me.

'And when they see your real picture, won't they figure out they swiped left on you earlier?'
'They may reconsider me, too. You have to get them into the shop and display the goods. Maybe they will buy.'
'You are the goods?' I said and laughed.
'When I get a hot babe in my arms, then you laugh. Okay?'
'I am teasing you,' I said and pulled both of Saurabh's cheeks. 'You are the best goods any girl can get.'
'Yeah, yeah, make fun of me. I also know I won't get any girl. Tinder or otherwise.'
'What nonsense.'
'Thank God for arranged marriages in India. If not Tinder, my parents will find someone. Indian parents have been the original left and right swipers for their kids for centuries.'
 I laughed (p. 262).
'Saurabh has a favourite app,' I said. 'Helps him make new friends.' 'Which one?' Safdar said. 'Nothing,' Saurabh said, kicking me under the table' (p. 273).

In Zara's room, she is found dead. Though Saurabh wants to leave the room but realizing Keshav's logical arguments, he stops and when Keshav says, *"Your prints are on the easy chair now, He immediately released his grip on the armrests"* (p. 45). The situation, though a tragic one, but Saurabh's movement provides humour to the readers. Chetan Bhagat proves him as a black or dark humourist here. Such a humorous situation is created by the novelist in Houz Khas police station also. To the questions of Inspector Vikas Rana, Saurabh spoke like Ranbir Kapoor in the film Jaggaa Jasoos.

'Ye ... ye ... yes, sir.'
'So why is your voice shaking?' Inspector Rana said.
'Ju ... ju ... just like that, sir' (p. 53).

Indian police and the police station is satirized with humour as the novelist says,

Police stations in India are a good way to time travel. If you want to see Indian life in the Seventies, with no computers and tons of brown paper files, a police station is a good place to visit. Of course, the Hauz Khas station had a bit of modernity too. They had two computers, both with fat CRT monitors. They ran on Windows software from the Nineties. At nine in the morning, the station was jam-packed with people, as if the police were distributing free 10 GB data cards (p. 54).

In the police station, Keshav watches TV where he finds himself in the news. He says,

"I was famous. I was being talked about on TV, but not like one of those IIT guys who open billion-dollar startups, become CEOs or launch political parties. My claim to fame was breaking into girls' hostels" (p. 62).

The reports of Indian news channel reporters are satirized with the following report,

'Well, yes, IIT Delhi has a strict policy of not allowing men into girls' rooms. So, Keshav came in through the window by climbing a mango tree. Unfortunately, we were not allowed into the campus, so we can't show you the mango tree.'

Of course, it was unfortunate. The country could not see the mango tree. Or the mangoes that grew on it (p. 62).

Anchor Arijit's demand and Keshav's opposition to it give a true picture of Indian TV news channels. Arijit demands, *"Ladies and gentlemen, we have a big story here, and your channel has been the first to show it."* To it Keshav clarifies *"That was a lie. I had seen thirty reporters at the police station itself. Everyone had covered the story at the same time"* (p. 63). What do the reporters want and how they react, if the police do something or do not do anything, is humorously mentioned in the speech of Rana, *"They want us to arrest someone. Right now. If I arrest no one, we are lazy. If I arrest all the people I suspect, I am confused and brutal. What am I supposed to do, for heaven's sake?"* (p. 68). Inspector Rana of Houz Khas police station stops his misbehaviour and begins to treat Keshav well when he comes to know that his father is an RSS Pradhan in Rajasthan and he is in the good books of many powerful political leaders. Bhagat says, *".....The only way to make power behave in India is, well, more power."* (p. 66) Inspector Rana is satirized in the following statements:

'You think Rana can be bought?' Saurabh looked at me like I had asked him if petrol could catch fire (P.259).
Tomorrow morning, Rana would be the star cop in Delhi. Which other inspector had the guts to release a watchman and toss a multi-millionaire into jail?

'I am thinking double promotion,' Rana said, his back to us.

'Not triple?' Saurabh said.

'What?' Rana said. Before he could get the sarcasm, his phone rang. The Delhi Police PR department had called to assure him that the entire Delhi media was on its way (p. 299).

'I am happy to say we have solved the Zara Lone murder case. The murderer is Raghu Venkatesh, Zara Lone's fiancé and owner of a tech company in Hyderabad. As you can see, the courageous Delhi Police is not scared of arresting rich people. Mr Raghu Venkatesh is under arrest. Watchman Laxman Reddy will be released immediately (p. 301).

Indian coaching class and its advertising system as well as owner Chandan Arora of Chandan Classes is satirized. It is very clear from the following:

'Two weeks. In the middle of the peak months. I allowed you. I did,' Chandan said, with blended gutkha and saliva landing everywhere within a four-foot radius of his mouth (p. 245).

'Of course, sir,' I said. I coughed twice. When you fake sickness, you have to cough (p. 245).

'Yes, sir. Anyway, I will go to help him around the hospital.' 'I am still weak, sir,' I said.

I coughed five times. Chandan pushed his swivel chair back, as if a few inches further from me would make him escape my germs (p. 246).

'Look at the student numbers. Dropped to 376 from 402 a quarter ago,' he said. When he made the 'r' sound in 'dropped', a tiny speck of paanmasala escaped his mouth and landed on top of my wrist. Saurabh saw it and made a disgusted expression. He passed a tissue to me to express his sympathy (p. 177).

After leaving the police station, I had recounted everything to my parents. I had to even explain everything to Chandan Arora, who had been calling me continuously. 'I am with you,' he had said, gutkha in mouth, when he spoke to me on the phone. 'You can say to media that you work for a reputed coaching class company. Chandan Classes. We are going national, you know.' I had to tell him I couldn't talk to the media, let alone use this as a PR opportunity to promote his classes (p. 72).

Indian parents' communalism and narrow-mindedness towards their children's friend, especially girl-friend is satirized in the following:

'Where are you from?' my father said, the must-ask question for all Indian elders. May be parents should just insist on address-proof or a copy of the Aadhaar card when they meet their child's friend for the first time (p. 111).

My father absorbed her last name with the help of a long, deep breath. Yes, she's a Muslim, papa, relax. They don't bite, I wanted to say (p. 112).

Sometimes the conversation between Keshav and Raghav as well as the comment of Saurabh on it also becomes humorous. A few of them are as:

'Listen, Raghu, I will come and...' I said things I don't want to repeat here. Mostly because I don't remember them. I think it involved me doing unmentionable things to Raghu's mother, sister and probably grandmother. I said all this in explicit Hindi, using words that would make even the truck drivers of Rajasthan blush.

'And I will take a danda and...' I said as Saurabh took the phone from me. He cut the call and kept my phone in his pocket (p. 16).

'Are you going to send him a hug and a kiss too?' Saurabh said, when he saw my message. 'What?' I said, keeping my phone away. 'What is this? Love fest between the exes?'

'Are you getting possessive? About me talking to Raghu?'

'What nonsense.'

'You are my Golu baby, I love you man' (p. 230).

The scene in which Keshav and Saurabh meet each other in front of the gate of Arjun Vihar as planned before disguised as army officials; Saurabh as Major Yadav and Keshav, his junior as Captain Ahluwalia is greatly humorous.

'Good evening, sir, good to see you,' I said. We had decided that since Saurabh was fatter, he had to be my senior.

'What timing, young man, good to see you,' Saurabh pronounced rather strangely, in what he thought was a colonial British accent, and patted my back hard, somewhat overdoing the Army commander bit.

'I just finished my evening walk, sir,' I said. 'Come, young man, come home for a drink,' Saurabh said (p. 247).

'Major Yadav. Not this one,' I said. 'Captain Ahluwalia. Not this one either,' Saurabh said (p. 247).

The scene where Keshav and Saurabh are found investigating army Faiz's flat at Arjun Bihar is also humorous. Both the situation as well as the conversation between the two investigators are interesting. Here the army man Faiz Khan is satirised in the conversation of Keshav and Saurabh like below-

We ran across to the children's room. Under the Spiderman, Superman and other figurines, we found twenty more biscuits, neatly arranged at the bottom. Of course, the biscuits were not Parle-G.

'Everything for desh,' I said (p. 253).

The undisciplined and impatient gentlemen of India are satirized in the following statement of the narrator:

The moment the seatbelt sign was switched off, passengers got up and began elbowing and jostling their way down the aisle. Everyone behaved as if they all had some emergency, like their homes had caught fire, and they had to get out of the plane five seconds before the others (p. 269).

B. One Arranged Murder

The ninth novel authored by Indian novelist Chetan Bhagat is titled *One Arranged Murder*. The book is a continuation of Bhagat's *The Girl in Room 105*. Like the novel *The Girl in Room 105*, the novel *One Arranged Murder* is also replete with ample humour exposed through satire, irony, and sarcasm. Saurabh's physical appearance, his habit of over-eating, and his nature also become sometimes a matter of laughter in this novel. Some statements of Keshav and Saurabh present it. At the very outset of the novel Keshav says about Saurabh, "... Of course, Saurabh is more likely to enter a ladies' toilet by mistake than a gym" (p. 1). "I am Saurabh..... I like food and lots of food and even more food. I also enjoy alcohol and my idea of a good weekend is sleeping for two days straight!" (p. 4). Saurabh's phone talking to his fiancé Prerna is very humorous. The narrator says, "It's like meeting Prerna rewired Saurabh's entire DNA. One

night I heard him talk in a singsong voice mothers use for six-month-old infants.” “Ole my Prernu bebu. You became tai-ll-ed. Why you wol-k so hard my sona bebu' he said” (p. 5). The scene in Lodi restaurant is also amusing where both the lovers Saurabh and Prerna meet along with Keshav, the former’s friend. Prerna tells Keshav pointing out Saurabh’s mistake of not introducing them. In a hurry Saurabh tries to introduce them when he gets confused and doesn’t find the appropriate word for their present status of relation. The appearance and nature of Saurabh’s parents are also the same as Saurabh. The narrator says,

Saurabh's parents had arrived in the morning. They loved food too. They fell in love with the Malhotras the moment they were served kaju katli even before they entered the house. The well-rounded parents sat with their well-rounded son as they awaited their well-rounded bahu. Okay, I'm being a bit mean here, but at least well-rounded sounds better than obese or fat (p. 46).

For over-eating, Saurabh gets a stomach problem for which he wants to buy three medicines for quick recovery that makes the reader laugh when Keshav says, “You have three stomachs? Why do you need three medicines?” (p. 77). Saurabh’s fondness of eating is witnessed when both friends went to Namrata Taneja’s office of EATO. When they were served food, *Saurabh took a fistful of nuts and goji berries in his hand, hoping to drown his sorrows in calories.* (p. 97) Saurabh’s saying, “I used to love to eat it when I was a child.” is questioned by Keshav as “Is there anything you don’t love to eat, Saurabh?” (p. 130) The narrator (Keshav) further says,

When Saurabh is confused, stressed or tense, he turns to one solution. He decides to cook. Somehow, all his remedies to life’s problems are linked to food. The more difficult the situation he is in, the more elaborate the dish he chooses to cook (p. 137).

..... To him, it was perfectly plausible to relocate for food. There are sadhus who meditate on one leg for years in the Himalayas to attain salvation, and then there is Saurabh who attains nirvana from perfect tandoori kulchas (p. 219).

.... Saurabh placed two momos in his mouth one after the other. His face too looked like a giant momo (p. 262).

The fact is clearer from the statements of Saurabh himself. ‘Yeah, but I need food to think, bhai. Why didn't we plan for breakfast?’ (p. 127).

Saurabh’s fondness for uncontrolled eating and negligence for body fitness is observed in the following statement of the narrator Keshav, his friend -

I had come to his new apartment. The only decoration so far was a giant fridge. It was three times the size of what we had in Malviya Nagar. It could store enough rations to see him through World War III. He had found a deal and taken a two-bedroom apartment on the seventeenth floor of a fancy condominium. Its key selling point was a pool and a gym. I'd bet both my kidneys Saurabh would never use either for the entire two-year duration of his lease (p. 269).

Sometimes the conversation between Keshav and Saurabh becomes humorous. A few of them are as:

'Is that cologne?' I said

'Yes' Saurabh said.

'Were they distributing it for free?'

'It's always nice to smell good.'

'And you realised it just now? After twenty-eight years of living your life cologne-free?' (p. 5).

'Looks like you have already made up your mind.'

'Well, the French fries look good too.'

I meant made up your mind about Prerna, Golu' (p. 42).

You have three stomachs? Why do you need three medicines?'

'Each has its own function. I'll explain on the way. Let's go' (p. 77).

Saurabh’s inferiority complex towards older persons as his nature is drawn humorously when he is described as: “Good afternoon, Uncle,’ Saurabh said. He greets elders with respect out of reflex, even if they are murderers” (p. 235). The lovemaking of Anjali with Keshav in his room leaves a lot of red traces on his face and other parts of the body which are unknown to Saurabh and he thinks of them as the biting of bedbugs; it makes the readers laugh.

'Do you have bedbugs in your room?' Saurabh said.

'What?' I said

'Your neck. Also, your arms. They haven't even spared your legs,'

Saurabh said with his mouth full. An-jali's love making had left its presence.

The 'bedbugs' had caused considerable damage.

'We need to do pest control. But why pay for it when we are leaving in four days.'

'Exactly,' I said.

'Apply calamine lotion.'

'Absolutely' I said, hoping I would see my bedbug again soon (p. 262-263).

Some events and situations are also humorous in the novel. Keshav and Saurabh are detectives. They have opened an agency named ‘Z’ Detectives. Many cases are being tried to solve here after the Zara Lone murder case solution. But

some unimportant and very mean kind of case comes to them which makes them angry and frustrated which makes the readers laugh. Such a case comes from a car owner who over the phone asks to investigate his driver for cheating him in filling the fuel to the car. *"Myself Pramod Gupta. I suspect my driver has not been filling petrol for the money he takes from me?"* (p. 3). The scene in which Keshav and Saurabh enter Adi's studio where by mistake Saurabh's elbow hits a piano key and makes the room filled with a loud musical sound. Again, *"Saurabh became silent. For a while, all we could hear was our own breaths. And then something else—a fart. Yes, my best friend farted, in the worst place at the worst time"* (p. 128). He farts in the compact wooden closet which troubles Keshav in that serious situation which makes the readers laugh. The novelist has created 'Black' or 'Dark' humour in this scene. In the same scene, Saurabh discovers a lot of underwear from the Calvin Klein brand. *"And so much underwear," Saurabh said, holding a stack of Calvin Kleins. "Who is he? An underwear smuggler?"* (p. 130).

The scene that happened in the Model Industrial Park in Amritsar located on Mehta Road is also very amusing to readers. When Keshav and Saurabh go there by car for investigation, a group of goons chases them on suspicion.

'Stop, behenchod, stop,' Musclemann said with great politeness. He shouted at his workers, 'Catch these behenchods. Malhotra owes me money, that's why I have kept his land. And he has the nerve to send his people' (p. 212).

The conversation between them after it is more amusing:

'Who were they?' the driver said, after he looked back and confirmed we weren't being followed.

'His in-laws,' I said, pointing at Saurabh.

'Shut up, bhai,' Saurabh said, panting hard like he was having a cardiac arrest.

'There's a reason I ask you to lose weight,' I said.

'Sure, because goons from a drug factory chase us regularly, right?' Saurabh said, hand on heaving chest (p. 213).

This event is also an example of black humour.

A relationship grows between Keshav and Anjali, Prerna's cousin, which becomes a matter of Saurabh's jealousy. The following day Keshav gave his jacket to Anjali to relieve her from the cold; Saurabh, again and again, refers in jealousy thinking that Keshav is going to love and marry her.

'Can you please close your window? I am freezing,' I said

'You wouldn't be if you hadn't left your jacket behind with her,' Saurabh Said (p. 246).

'You seemed fine last night' Saurabh said, looking down at his phone as he booked a cab to go to work.

'Yeah, caught a cold' I said.

'Keep distributing your jackets. What else will happen?' Saurabh said (p. 249).

Some dialogues of ACP Vikash Rana are also humorous. When he comes to know that Saurabh shifts to Ramesh Malhotra's house to live with them, he sarcastically says, *"Well done, ghar jamai"* (p. 108). He tells inspector Singh, *"Don't get touchy now, Singh. My wife does this. I will tell her the maid has cooked well, and she will say, "Do you mean I don't cook well?" Annoying, it is. Just use them. They are already in the house (p. 109).*

V. CONCLUSION

Chetan Bhagat is a successful creator of humour who creates it in all his novels more or less. He entertains his readers and keeps them far from being bored reading his novels. He represents the struggles, desperation, and failures of the young generation through humour. For this quality of his, he is known as a black humourist also. The novelist conveys his serious and valuable messages in the light of humour. He further conveys the message to readers creating humour and wit in his novels that any difficult situation can be and should be handled keeping a smile on the face. He is very expert in the creation of black humour and satire in his novels. It is observed that his two most recent books, *One Arranged Murder* and *The Girl in Room 105*, are no exceptions.

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Vocatives of Entreaty in Arabic: Evidence for PP Selection

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Abstract—Across languages, it is argued that vocative phrases are composed of a vocative head that selects a noun phrase (NP) or a determiner phrase (DP) as its complement. Based on data from Standard Arabic, in addition to selecting NPs and DPs, the study reveals patterns where a vocative head may select a prepositional phrase (PP). This class of vocative constructions appears in situations where speakers are calling for help and is referred to as *nidaʔ ʔalʔistryaθa* ‘Vocative of Entreaty.’ This study focuses on the syntax of *nidaʔ ʔalʔistryaθa* ‘Vocative of Entreaty’ and expands the boundaries that limit the selection options of vocative heads to NPs and DPs. For this purpose, the study utilizes the Minimalist program (Chomsky, 1995) for data analysis and follows Hill (2013) in analyzing vocatives as speech act projections. This study is significant because it challenges all previous accounts on vocatives (Haddad 2020; Abdelhady 2020; Al-Bataineh 2019) and reveals new patterns where a vocative particle becomes obligatory in vocative phrases, provided that its complement is a PP. This type of data has implications for proposals related to case assignment patterns of nominals that are commanded by VOC.

Index Terms—Vocative Phrases, Speech Acts Layer, Speakers, Arabic, Minimalism

I. INTRODUCTION

The syntax of vocative phrases is a hot area of research (Hill, 2013; Hill, 2007; Hill, 2017; Akkus & Hill, 2018; Hill, 2022; López, 2020). Based on cross-linguistic data, Hill (2013) defines vocative phrases as phrases that are “by default, organized around a noun (or a pronoun), either a name or a common noun, which may or may not be modified by adjectives, other nouns, [...], prepositional phrases or relative clauses” (42). Across languages, this definition proves correct (e.g., Hill, 2017; Soltan, 2016; Akkus & Hill, 2018; Al-Bataineh, 2019; Haddad, 2020; Abuladze & Ludden, 2013; Girvin, 2013). However, in Standard Arabic, a class of vocatives seems to deviate from this definition, as illustrated in the following examples (1).

(1)

- a. *ya la-muhamad li-sayiid.*
 VOC.PART¹ to-Muhamad.GEN to-Sa'id.GEN
 ‘Hey Muhammad Sa'id (seeks your help.)’
- b. *ya li-llaah li-l-muslimiin.*
 VOC.PART to-God.GEN to-DEF-Muslims.GEN
 ‘Hey God Muslims (seek your help.)’
- c. *ya li-xaalid.*
 VOC.PART to-Khalid.GEN
 ‘Hey Khaled (I seek your help.)!’
- d. *ya li-muhamad li-salim min xaalid.*
 VOC.PART to-Muhamad.GEN to-Salim.GEN from Khalid.GEN
 ‘Hey Muhammad Salim (seeks your help) from Xhalid.’

(Al-Samirai, 2000, pp. 335-336)

The examples in (1) challenge previous accounts on vocatives because the vocative phrases are not organized around a noun or a pronoun. The examples show a vocative phrase that is organized around a prepositional phrase (PP). Those examples depart from previous accounts on vocatives (e.g., Hill, 2007; Akku & Hill, 2018; Abdelhady, 2020; Soltan, 2016). Compare the following examples in (2).

(2)

- a. [Mary], when did they leave? DP
- b. [My dear Mary], what came on you? AP-N

¹ VOC: vocative, PART: particle, N: noun, CP: complementizer phrase, ADVP: adverbial phrase, A: adjective, GEN: genitive, M: Masculine, F: Feminine, DEF: definite, S: singular, PL: plural; DU: dual, VP: verb phrase, DP: determiner phrase, NP: noun phrase

- | | | |
|----|--|---------|
| c. | [Doctor Smith], may I talk to you? | DP-N |
| d. | [The students from France], where is your translator? | N-PP |
| e. | [The students who just arrived], you must stay in this room. | N-CP |
| f. | [You there], what do you think you're doing? | DP-AdvP |
| g. | [Smarty], can you keep quite now? | A/DP |

(English)
(Hill, 2013, p. 43)

Hill (2013) shows possibilities where a vocative phrase appears, is created around a DP (2a), an adjectival phrase modifying a noun (2b), a DP modifying a noun (2c), a noun selecting a propositional phrase (PP) (2d), a noun selecting a complementizer phrase (2e), a DP with an adverbial phrase f), and an adjective or DP (2g). However, the possibilities in (2) are not inclusive (cf., (1)) and do not capture this case: P+NP/DP.

Even though Al-Bataineh (2019) notes that this type of vocative exists in the Arabic language, he excludes it from his study, claiming that “[Vocative of Hailing] is the only vocative construction utilized to attract the attention of a person in the discourse setting” (p. 2). This claim, however, is not accurate. The study overlooks a pattern that does not fit with the machinery proposed in that study (i.e., a vocative can be assigned a nominative or an accusative case only). This study aims to explore how PP patterns are generated in the language faculty by highlighting the syntactic properties of *nida? ʔalʔistryaθa* ‘call for help’ in Arabic. The study, additionally, aims to explain how a genitive case is assigned, and it seeks to provide an understanding of the function of prepositions and if they block pragmatic roles (addressees) to extend to DPs selected by a prepositional head. To further advance this proposal, we aim to revisit the components of vocative phrases and the structure of vocatives in the Arabic language.

This study is organized as follows. The second section provides a background on vocative phrases and their components. The third section reviews studies on vocatives with a focus on vocative phrases in the Arabic language. The fourth section presents an analysis of the syntax of *nida? ʔalʔistryaθa* ‘call for help’ and shows if this type of vocative differs from nominal vocative phrases (Jaradat et al., 2022). The final section concludes the study.

II. BACKGROUND

To understand the syntactic nature of vocatives, we define vocative phrases, their components, and their functions. Afterward, we present how current syntactic theories analyze vocative in generative grammar. For this purpose, we review the basic machinery of the Minimalist Program (MP) and its extension at the syntactic-pragmatic interface.

Researchers deal with vocatives from various perspectives: morphological markings, syntactic restrictions, pragmatic functions, semantic features, and others. In this part of the research, we provide a comprehensive overview of vocatives by exploring aspects that will guide us through this research.

Among the earliest attempts to define vocatives, focus on how vocatives take place in language use. According to Zwicky (1974), vocatives refer to a phenomenon “set off from the sentence it occurs in by special intonation [...] and it doesn’t serve as an argument of a verb in this sentence” (p. 787). This definition illustrates how vocatives appear in sentences. Nevertheless, the definition does not capture the intricacies of vocatives. In addition, Levinson (1983) looks at vocatives as “noun phrases that refer to the addressee but are not syntactically or semantically incorporated as the arguments of a predicate; they are rather set apart prosodically from the body of the sentence that may accompany them” (p. 71). Both views focus on how speakers utilize vocative phrases in their language use, and that vocative phrases occur with phonological markings; nevertheless, the definitions minimize the syntactic part of vocatives because vocatives do not appear as arguments of predicates.

From a semantic point of view, Schaden (2010) views vocatives as “noun-phrases that identify or describe the addressee” (p. 176). For him, if a noun describes the addressee, it is a vocative construction. While Moutaouakil (2014) states that a vocative is a pragmatic function similar to other functions like Topics and Focus, and it cannot be “considered as a semantic function because it is not part of states of affairs of predication” (p. 140), Schaden (2010) identifies three semantic functions for vocatives: predication, activation, and identification (p. 183). The basic idea of those semantic distinctions is related to the addressee. For him, predication and identification refer to scenarios in which the addressee is anticipated. On the other hand, identification vocatives refer to cases where the addressee should be recognized. Since the focus of the current study is on the syntactic part of vocatives, we ask the reader to see Schaden (2010) for further details.

For the purpose of this study, we adopt Moutaouakil's (2014) functional definition of vocatives as “a constituent referring to [an] entity addressed in a given discourse setting” (p. 140). See the following examples.

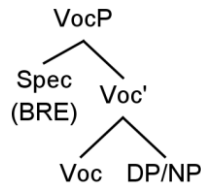
- (3)
- | | | | | |
|----|-----------------------------------|-------|---------|----------------|
| a. | (O)lele (majko), | pak | trjabva | datra ʔvam. |
| | oh mother-VOC | again | must | SUBJ leave-1SG |
| | ‘Oh, my, I have to leave again’. | | | |
| b. | Va ʔh, na | kogo | ni | ostavi? |
| | Oh | to | whom | us.left-2SG |
| | ‘Oh, whom did you leave us with?’ | | | |

(Bulgarian)

(Hill, 2007, p. 2081)

In generative approaches to vocatives (e.g., Hill, 2007; Hill, 2017; Akkus & Hill, 2018), researchers deal with how vocatives are computed in the language faculty. In those studies, a vocative is a constituent that revolves around an addressee (a noun/a pronoun). Based on data from Romanian, Bulgarian, and Umbundu, Hill (2007) proposes that vocative phrases are generated by the same syntactic computations that generate core syntactic structures (verbs).

(4)



(Hill, 2007, p. 5)

The tree in (4) indicates that in a vocative phrase, a vocative head (VOC) selects a DP or a NP. Feature checking applies. Al-Bataineh (2019) captures this process by stating that “in the case of NP, feature checking involves a movement of N to VOC, and in the case of DP, feature checking requires a movement of DP to SPEC, VOCP or distance Agree” (p. 7). To sum up, the syntactic structure of vocative phrases centers around a nominal element.

Hill (2007) adds that vocative “computations apply at the edge of discourse” (p. 2078). In her proposal, vocative phrases are functional domains. That is, they have a functional head. Those heads select a DP and assign pragmatic roles. In other words, vocative phrases are generated in a way like verbs. However, they differ in that they are generated at the edge of discourse. Accordingly, Hill (2007) adopts Speas' and Tenny's (2003) configuration of speech acts (SAs) above the CP (5) to account for pragmatic roles (p-role) of vocatives.

(5) [SA*P Speaker SA* [SAP Utterance SA Hearer]]

The configuration in (5) shows that a speech act head has three argumental positions that enable checking p-roles, like theta roles of in the vP shell hypothesis (Larson, 1985). Those p-roles are SPEAKER, HEARER and SENTIENT. In Hill's (2007) proposal, a vocative phrase checks the hearer p-role. In this study, we adopt this proposal; however, we need to explain how the p-role, HEARER, is checked for DPs headed by a preposition.

III. STUDIES ON ARABIC VOCATIVES

Many studies have analyzed vocatives in the Arabic language (e.g., Moutaouakil, 2014; Haddad, 2020; Al-Bataineh, 2019; Abdelhady, 2020; Soltan, 2016; Jaradat et al., 2022; Shormani & Qarabesh, 2018). In this section, we review three major studies on Arabic vocatives (i.e., Al-Bataineh, 2019; Haddad, 2020; Moutaouakil, 2014) to build a foundation for analyzing Vocatives of Entreaty and reconciling our data with the most current proposals.

Moutaouakil (2014, p. 139) sets a foundation for analyzing vocatives in the Arabic language in terms of Functional Grammar. The study highlights that a vocative is a pragmatic function that is affected by the discourse setting (as pointed out by Hill, 2007). In addition, based on traditional Arabic grammarians (e.g., Sibawayh, 1970), he defines the boundaries for three types of vocatives (addressee): *?al-munada* (addressed) (6), *?al-mustayaaθ bih* (the one who is called for help) (7), and *?al-maduub* (the one who is bemoaned) (8).

(6)

- a. *Zayd-u* *nawiln-i* *al-mulh-a.*
Zayd-NOM give-1-ACC DEF-salt-ACC
'Zayd, give me the salt.'
- b. *ya* *talry-a* *al-?djarah-ti, ?mztl.*
VOC-PART climbing-ACC DEF-tree-GEN come.down
'You who are climbing the tree, come down.'
- c. *?hana* *waqt-un-nawm-i,* *?ayyuha l-tjfl-u.*
arrivedtime-NOM DEF-sleep-GEN O DEF-child-NOM
'Now is the time to sleep, children.'

(Vocative of Hailing)

(7)

- a. *ya* *li-Zayd-m* *li-Halid-m.*
VOC.PART to-Zayd-GEN to-Halid-GEN
'O, if only Zayd were by Halid's side.'²
- b. *ya* *la-Amr-in* *li-ma* *?saban-a.*
VOCPART to-Amr-GEN to-what happened.PERF-1PL
'O, if only Amer were here, with all that has happened to us.'

² The translation is based on the source.

(Vocative of Entreaty)

- (8) *wa* *Zaydah*
 VOC.PART Zayd-ah
 ‘O Zayd, as exclaimed by a widow at the graveside.’

(Vocative of Bemoaned)
 (Moutaouakil, 2014, p. 139)

As it is clear from the above examples, the three types of vocatives have similarities and differences. The first set of examples shows a vocative particle. The vocative particle is optional in (6a). There is also a noun that receives an accusative (6b) or a nominative case (6c). In (7), the pattern is different in that the vocative particle is mandatory, and the vocative receives a genitive case because it is selected by a preposition. The final example in (8) shows a vocative particle that has a different function in expressing the feeling of the speaker. Moutaouakil's (2014) study defines constraints on using vocatives, highlights boundaries for using eight different vocative particles (*ʔa*, *ʔay*, *ya*, *ʔaya*, *haya*, *ʔay*, *ʔa* and *wa*), demonstrates that vocatives of hailing have two case markings (nominative and accusative) and sets the conditions of their assignment, and shows the structural positions available for vocatives. While Moutaouakil's (2014) study covered most descriptive aspects of the vocatives of hailing, the study has limitations. First, the study does not reveal how vocatives are generated in light of current theories. Second, the study does not analyze the Vocatives of Entreaty.

Al-Bataineh (2019) analyzes case assignment patterns of Hailing from a Minimalist perspective, following (Hill, 2007; Hill, 2013; Hill, 2017). In this study, Al-Bataineh (2019) argues that the vocative particle in vocatives of hailing is a transitive probe with a valued accusative case feature, unvalued second person, and distance feature. Furthermore, he looks at the structure of the addressee. He claims that the D head in a DP has an unvalued case feature, but it has a second person and a binary distance feature. Based on those sets of features, he analyzes different patterns on case assignments. Thus, he states that the appearance of a case (nominative/accusative) on nominals is not random and is governed by syntax.

The proposal accounts for case variation in vocative constructions. Those patterns include case variation in indefinite vocative phrases (9), proper names (10), accusative-like cases in construct state vocatives (11), and nominative case patterns on demonstrative phrases (12).

- (9)
 a. *ya* *rajul-a-n*, *ʔayliq l-baab-a*.
 VOC.PART man-ACC-n closeDEF-door-ACC
 ‘Man, close the door.’
 b. *ya* *rajul-u*, *jlis*.
 VOC.PART man-NOM sit.down
 ‘Man, sit down.’

(Al-Bataineh, 2019, p. 16)

- (10)
 a. *ya* *zayd-a-n*
 VOC.PART Zayd-ACC-n
 ‘Oh Zayd (among other Zayd’s).’
 b. *ya* *zayd-u*
 VOC.PART Zayd-NOM
 ‘Oh Zayd!’

(Fehri, 2012, p. 195)

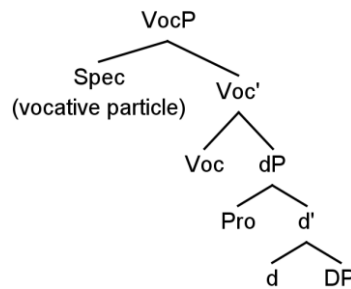
- (11) *ya* *sadiiq-a* *ʕamr-i-n*, *saacid sadiiq-a-ka*.
 VOC.PART friend-ACC Amr-GEN-n help friend-ACC-2s (GEN)
 ‘Friend of Amr, help your friend.’

- (12)
 a. *haa ʔ-i-hi* *al-fataat-u*
 this-F-S DEF-girl-NOM
 ‘this girl’
 b. *haaʔ-olaaʔi* *r-rijaal-u*
 these (M-P) DEF-men-NOM
 ‘these men’
 c. *haa ʔ-aani* *al-kitab-aani*
 these (M-DUAL-NOM) DEF-books (M-D-NOM)
 ‘these two books’

(Al-Bataineh, 2019, p. 18)

Al-Bataineh (2019) argues that those patterns can be accounted for by unifying Hill's (2017) proposal on vocatives with Larson's (2014) theory on DPs in which he views determiners as verbs. See the tree diagram in (13).

(13)



(Al-Bataineh, 2019, p. 18)

For indefinite vocatives (9) and proper names (10), Al-Bataineh (2019) argues that the syntax proper marks them as accusative only if they are merged with an overt D -n. Otherwise, a nominative case appears by default. Furthermore, he argues that for vocatives heading Construct States, head-to-head movement takes place. That is, N moves to D. This process results in assigning the accusative case to N. Finally, for demonstrative phrases, he argues that head movement (D-to-d movement) is blocked because of an intervening head (such as DEM), resulting in a marking of the nominal with a nominative case.

While this account of case checking sounds plausible, the obvious drawback to this analysis is that it cannot capture the structure of Vocatives of Entreat (Hill, 2013; Al-Bataineh, 2019). First, the vocative phrase in Vocatives of Entreaty selects a PP (contra Hill’s, 2013 and others). Second, Vocatives of Entreaty have genitive case markings (contra Al-Bataineh’s, 2019 DP proposal that a vocative should check either nominative or an accusative case). How can we account for patterns in which a vocative appears in a genitive case marking?

Haddad (2020) argues that vocatives should not have fixed positions in the left periphery, as Hill (2013) points out in her study. Based on data obtained from Twitter, he claims that vocatives are “parenthetical adjuncts whose relationship with their host clause is minimally constrained” (p. 1). He builds his argument on the idea that vocative phrases can stand alone (14). Haddad (2020) shows that in (14), the addressee may be called in different ways, where the elements in brackets are optional. Thus, vocative phrases such as the one above “do not have to be part of a larger utterance and thus no connection with the host clause is required at all” (p. 18).

- (14) <ya:> ziya:d <ya: ziya:d>
 <VOC.PART> Ziyad <VOC.PART Ziyad>
 a. Excitement: ‘Ziad, it is so good to see you!’
 b. Disbelief: ‘Ziad, I can’t believe you did that!’
 c. Desperation: ‘Ziad, what shall I do with you?!’

(Haddad, 2020, p. 18)

In addition, Haddad (2020) claims that scope information is another piece of evidence that supports his argument. He notices that “vocatives cross-linguistically fall out the scope of negation.”

- (15) *fi: ya: faba:b vi:ru:s s'i:ni: ?ism-u koro:na.*³
 there voc guys virus Chinese called-3sg Corona
 ‘There is, guys, a Chinese virus called the corona.’

(Haddad, 2020, p. 19)

The argument focuses on vocative phrases that cannot be negated. Thus, any attempt to negate the vocative phrase in (15) results in an ungrammatical construction. He solidifies his argument by other tests, including the lack of agreement between vocative phrases and the host clause and the infinite use number of vocatives (for further information, see Haddad, 2020). For a counterargument against Haddad’s (2020) proposal, see Abdelhady (2020) and Abdel-Hady and Branigan (2020).

IV. VOCATIVES OF ENTREATY

Vocatives of Entreaty appear with a vocative particle and a PP. The surface structure sounds challenging because the nominal is marked with a genitive case. The previous proposal rejects the semantic account and adopts a generative account claiming that if the DP shell hypothesis is merged with the vocative phrase structure, it can account for case alternation of vocative phrases. Still, as we have seen, this proposal has a limitation when exposed to the data in (16).

- (16)
 a. *ya li-muhamad li-sayiid.*
 VOC.PART to-Muhamad.GEN to-Sa'id.GEN
 ‘Hey Muhamad Sa’id (seeks your help.)’
 b. *ya li-llaah li-l-muslimiin.*
 VOC.PART to-God.GEN to-DEF-Muslims.GEN
 ‘Hey God Muslims (seek your help.)’

³ The example is simplified, focusing only on the vocative phrase.

- c. *ya* *li-xaalid.*
 VOC.PART to-Khalid.GEN
 ‘Hey Khaled (I seek your help.)!’
- d. *ya* *li-muhamad li-salim min xaalid.*
 VOC.PART to-Muhamad.GEN to-Salim.GEN from Khalid.GEN
 ‘Hey Muhammad Salim (seeks your help) from Xhalid.’

(Al-Samirai, 2000, pp. 335-336, repeated)

In this section, we point out the differences that call for revisiting previous accounts on vocatives. We explore in depth the status of case markings, vocative particles, and prepositions.

V. COMPONENTS OF VOCATIVES OF ENTREATY

Vocatives of Entreaty require specific elements; those components are like regular vocatives even though they behave differently. Other components are exclusive to vocatives of Entreaty. In this part, we present the components of the Vocatives of Entreaty and their features.

While *ya* is a multifunctional particle in the Arabic language (Abdelhady, 2021), there are two reasons why *ya* is considered a vocative particle in this type of construction. In the absence of *la*, the vocative retains its nominative case. In other words, the vocative appears with a default case marking.

- (17)
- ya* *ʕaly-u* *li-l-fuqara?*
 VOC.PART Ali-NOM to-def-poor
 ‘Hey, Ali the poor (seeks your help).’

Notice that in (17), *ʕaly-u* is marked with a nominative case. This default case appears when Vocatives of Entreaty appear without *la* (this pattern is not common; however, it points out that Vocatives of Entreaty are marked by default with a nominative case, just like regular vocatives). However, because of *la*, case markings differ.

Second, unlike the Vocative of Hailing, in Vocatives of Entreaty, the particle is mandatory. Omitting the vocative particle results in ungrammatical constructions.

- (18)
- a. *ya* *ʕaly-u* *li-l-fuqara?*
 VOC.PART Ali-nom to-DEF-poor
 ‘Hey, Ali the poor (seeks your help).’
- b. * *ʕaly-u li-l-fuqara?*
 Ali-NOM to-DEF-poor
 ‘Hey, Ali the poor (seeks your help).’

- (19)
- a. *ya* *li-l-ṭabiib* *li-l-mariid*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-doctor to-DEF-patient
 ‘Hey doctor the patient (seeks your help.)’
- b. * *li-l-ṭabiib li-l-mariid*
 to-DEF-doctor to-DEF-patient
 ‘Hey doctor the patient (seeks your help.)’

The examples in (18) and (19) show that the particle *ya* is obligatory. Because this type of vocative is built around a fixed structure; that is, it is unlike regular vocatives where the vocative phrase is an adjunct. The vocative phrase is not optional. Therefore, the particle itself is not optional either. Omitting the particle will not facilitate understanding the construction as a vocative phrase. This is evident in examples (18b) and (19b). Those patterns are contra Hill’s (2013) claim that vocative particles are optional particles in vocative constructions.

To account for the Vocatives of Entreaty in Arabic, we need to understand the status of the *li*. Consider the following examples.

- (20)
- a. *ya* *li-xaalid.*
 VOC.PART to-Khalid.GEN
 ‘Hey Khaled (I seek your help.)!’
- b. * *ya* *xaalid.*
 VOC.PART Khalid.NOM
 ‘Hey Khaled (I seek your help.)!’⁴

- (21)
- a. * *ya* *on-xaalid.*
 VOC.PART on-Khalid.GEN
 ‘Hey Khaled (I seek your help.)!’

⁴ The example is wrong only in vocatives of entreaty, but it is valid as a vocative of hailing.

- b. * *ya* *ʕind-ʕaalid*.
 VOC.PART near-Khalid.GEN
 ‘Hey Khaled (I seek your help.)!’

(22)

- a. *ʔal-kitab* *li* *ʕalid*
 DEF-book for xalid
 ‘The book is for Khalid.’
- b. *kitaab ʕalid*
 book xalid
 ‘Khalid’s book’

We argue that the preposition is not optional (20). In addition, *li* cannot be replaced with other prepositions (21).

Vocatives of entreaty utilize a special call for someone to help another who is in distress. That is, the speaker calls *l-mustayaaθ bih* ‘the addressee’ with a request to offer help for *l-mustayaaθ lah* ‘someone who is in need for help. See the following example in (23).

- (23) *ya* *li-l-ʕabiib* *li-l-mariid*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-doctor to-DEF-patient
 ‘Hey doctor, the patient (seeks your help.)’

The example above shows two definite DPs, *ʕabiib* ‘doctor’ (*l-mustayaaθ bih*) and *mariid* ‘patient’ (*l-mustayaaθ lah*). The speaker calls the doctor to help the patient. The first feature to mention here is that those DPs have fixed positions. That is, we cannot shift the addressee with the distressed. Doing so results in a different interpretation in which the roles are shifted.

- (24) * *ya* *li-l-mariid* *li-l-ʕabiib*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-patient to-DEF-doctor
 ‘Hey doctor, the patient (seeks your help.)’

The fixed positions entail that we have new semantic roles in the speech act layer: HEARER and PATIENT. If this conclusion is on the right track, then the p-roles (Hill, 2007; Hill, 2013) should be extended to include more roles: SPEAKER, HEARER, PATIENT AND SENTIENT.

While the addressee is mandatory, the distressed can be omitted. That is, this type of vocative utilizes a minimum structure. This structure should include at least the vocative particle and addressee, but the distressed can be omitted, or it can be invisible. The following example is illustrative.

- (25)
- a. *ya* *li-l-kiram-ɪ* *li-l-muħtaziin*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-generous-GEN to-DEF-needy
 ‘Hey the generous, the needy (seek your help).’
- b. *ya* *li-l-kiram-ɪ*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-generous-GEN
 ‘Hey the generous, (we (seek your help)).’
- c. * *ya* *li-l-muħtaziin*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-needy
 ‘Hey the generous, the needy (seek your help).’
- d. * *ya* *li-l-kiram-ɪ* *ya* *li-l-muħtaziin*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-generous-GEN VOC.PART to-DEF-needy
 ‘Hey the generous, the needy (seek your help).’

Notice that in (25), vocatives of Entreaty are composed of the addressee (hearer) and the distressed (patient). While it is plausible to omit the distressed (25b), it is implausible to do so for the hearer (25c). Note that the vocative particle cannot precede the distressed (25d).

Like vocatives of hailing (c.f., Shormani & Qarabesh, 2018; Al-Bataineh, 2019; Haddad, 2020), the addressee can be coordinated. It should be noted here that the vocative particle is optional in the second conjunct. The following examples illustrate this aspect.

- (26)
- a. *ya* *li-l-fabab-ɪ* *wa ya* *li-l-fabaat-ɪ*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-boys and VOC.PART to-DEF-girls-GEN
li-l-waʕan-ɪ
 to-DEF-homeland
 ‘Hey boys and girls, the homeland (needs your help.)’
- b. *ya* *li-l-fabab-ɪ* *wa* *li-l-fabaat-ɪ*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-boys and to-DEF-girls-GEN
li-l-waʕan-ɪ
 to-DEF-homeland

(Faouaid, 2020)

‘Hey boys and girls, the homeland (needs your help.)’

(Adapted from Faouaid, 2020)

Moreover, the addressee can appear as a modified/complex DP. That is, a series of an adjective can modify the noun, but those adjectives should be definite.

(27) *ya li-qadat-i ?al-zuyuuf-i ?al-?ab?aal li-fu?uubr-him*
 VOC.PART to-leaders-GEN DEF-armies-GEN DEF-brave to-people-3PL.GEN
 ‘Hey leaders of the heroic armies your people (seek your help).’

(Faouaid, 2020)

As we observe, in the above example, the nominal *qadat* ‘leaders’ is modified by *?al-zuyuuf-i ?al-?ab?aal* ‘the brave armies.’

To sum up, vocatives of Entreaty have three basic elements: the vocative particle, the preposition *la/li* and the addressee, and the distressed. Based on our data, we argue that the vocative head may select two arguments. While the addressee is obligatory, the distressed can be invisible. Some of those elements are mandatory, and some of them are optional. The positions of the vocative DPs are fixed.

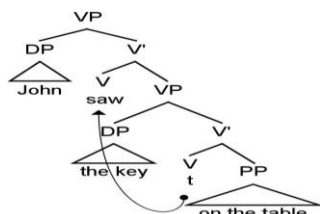
VI. GENERATING VOCATIVES OF ENTREATY

According to studies on vocatives (e.g., Hill, 2007; Hill, 2022; Hill, 2013; Speas & Tenny, 2003; Al-Bataineh, 2019; Abdelhady, 2020), a vocative phrase consists of a vocative head; this head behaves like a verb in that it selects DP/NP. We look at the vocative head in light of such a parameter, but we argue that VOC, in Vocatives of Entreaty, has two valences. The first valency is for the *l-mustayaaθ bih* ‘the addressee’, and the second one is for *l-mustayaaθ lah* ‘the distressed’. If this proposal is on the right track, we can reconcile Hill’s (2013) proposal that “vocatives are organized around a noun” with the vocatives of Entreaty, which utilize PPs. We argue that the genitive case appears when *la* is present. But, when *la* is not used, the default nominative case appears, as suggested by earlier proposals (Al-Bataineh, 2019).

(28) *ya li-l-?abiib li-l-mariid*
 VOC.PART to-DEF-doctor to-DEF-patient
 ‘Hey doctor, the patient (seeks your help).’

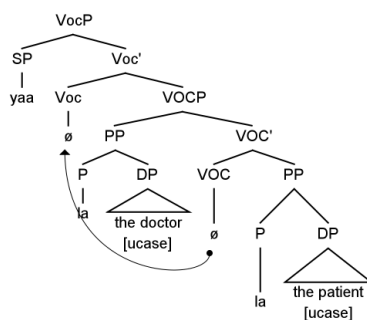
In short, our proposal resembles VPs with multiple arguments (29).

(29)



To clarify the mechanism, consider the following example above. We argue that the DP has an unvalued case feature [ucase]. X is a transitive probe. It has a valued [genitive] feature. X probes for the closest DP to check its feature. This results in assigning the genitive case to the DPs.

(30)



The first piece of evidence comes from the observation that the vocative particle cannot appear in the specifier position of VOC that selects ‘the patient’. We attribute this to that the specifier position is not vacant; it is occupied by the XP ‘the doctor’. Secondly, notice that we argued earlier that *l-mustayaaθ bih* ‘the addressee’ can appear with the nominative case on the condition that *la* is not present. This case is not applicable for the *l-mustayaaθ lah* ‘the distressed’.

That is, *la* is mandatory for *l-mustayaaθ lah* ‘the distressed’. This proves that *la* originates in a low position.

Furthermore, we argue that the vocative particle is mandatory because of feature checking. P is a transitive probe; it searches for the closest active goal. The unvalued case feature of the DP is valued as genitive, and it becomes invisible for voc. This goes side by side with the Earliness Principle, which states that “operations must apply as early as possible in a derivation” (Radford, 2009, p. 238).

Our proposal suggests that VOC assigns theta-roles. This hypothesis is not far from reaching. According to Hill (2013) and Hill (2007), a vocative phrase may occupy the specifier position of the *hearer’s* head in a speech act projection; Following Larson (2014), we argue that “[the] third set argument, typically introduced by an oblique, preposition-like element such as *than*, as or *except*, it seems appropriate to recognize oblique thematic-roles for predicate arguments” (p. 11). This conclusion is confirmed by Al-Bataineh (2019) for Vocatives of Hailing. While Al-Bataineh’s (2019) observation is on the right track, it does not show how the third set of arguments may appear under Vocatives of Hailing because Vocatives of Hailing, like most vocative phrases, cross-linguistically is limited to two arguments. However, our data show that three roles are assigned in Vocatives of Entreaty, including a role that specifies the call (the specifier position of VOC), a role for *l-mustayaaθ bih* ‘the addressee’ (θADDRESSEE) and a role for the *l-mustayaaθ lah* ‘the distressed’ (θDISTRESSED/EXPERIENCER). Our proposal, then, redefines a vocative phrase as a phrase that is organized around an addressee; the addressee can be a phrase that includes a nominal element (e.g., a PP) that is able to hold the semantic role of an addressee (that is a functional head selecting the nominal element cannot assign thematic roles).

VII. IS THERE A RECONCILIATION?

To reconcile our proposal with earlier proposals on vocatives, we can view *la* as a vocative head. This does not alter the fact that *la* will assign a genitive case to its complement. Abdelhady (2020, p. 171) shows that, in Jordanian Arabic, speakers may use *walak* to call their addressee. See the examples below.

(31)

- a. *wa-l-ak, taʕaal la-huun!*
 VOC.PART-PREP-2M.SG come.2M.SG to-here
 ‘Hey! come here.’ (to a male addressee)

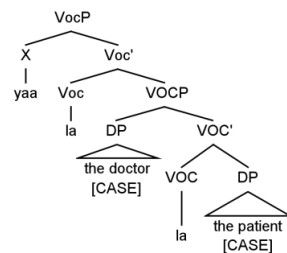
(Abdelhady, 2020, p. 171)
(Jordanian Arabic)

- b. *wa-l-ik, taʕal-ii la-huun!*
 VOC.PART-PREP-2F.SG come.2F.SG to-here
 ‘Hey, come here.’ (to a female addressee)

(Abdelhady, 2020, p. 171)
(Jordanian Arabic)

He highlights (contrary to Soltan, 2016) that “the *walak* indicates that the speaker is calling an addressee to pay his attention toward performing a command. *walak* shows a complex relationship with the addressee.” That is, the vocative phrase shows agreement with the addressee (cf. (31a) and (31b)). Abdelhady (2020) views *la* as a vocative head, *wa-* as a vocative particle and *-ak/-ik* as a DP. In light of this proposal, the example in (28) will be generated as follows.

(32)



Adopting this pattern results in viewing Vocatives of Entreaty in light of current theories, where a vocative head selects a DP. However, this claim is not supported in the literature. In the Arabic language, prepositions can select DPs just like a verb, and the head (that has a verbal interpretation), selecting a PP as its complement, can be invisible. See the examples below.

(33)

- a. *bi-ʔabii ʔanta wa ʔummii*
 on-my.father (I protect) you and my.mother
ya rassuul ʔallah
 voc.part prophet God
 ‘O prophet of Allah, I protect you by scarifying my father and mother’

(Taima, 2022)

- b. *bi-llah la-ʔaʔtahiddanna bi-ʕamali.*
 By-God (I swear) to-work.hard in-my.job
 'I swear by God to work hard in my job.'

(Taima, 2022)

As we notice, the DPs *bi-ʔabii* 'by my father' and *bi-llah* 'by God' are selected by an invisible verbal head that has the interpretation of *protect* for the former and *swear* for the later.

We argue that this invisible verbal element in VOC is what leads to the selection of the PP as a complement in Vocatives of Entreaty; that is, we argue that an invisible verbal element *ʔunadii* 'call' is what triggers this selection. Therefore, we argue that VOC can select a prepositional phrase. Our proposal enhances Al-Bataineh's (2019) proposal by showing that vocatives are not limited to nominative and accusative case patterns; vocatives can have genitive markings. The proposal shows that there isn't any restriction for vocative heads to select a PP.

VIII. CONCLUSION

To sum up, in this study, we investigated the syntax of Vocatives of Entreaty in Arabic from a Minimalist perspective. Unlike regular vocative phrases, Vocatives of Entreaty are organized around a PP and the vocative is marked with a genitive case. The study also shows that Vocatives of Entreaty may select two arguments (visible/invisible).

Vocatives of Entreaty are challenging to previous accounts. This type of vocative is marked with a genitive case, a scenario skipped from Al-Bataineh's (2019) proposal that accounts only for nominative and accusative case patterns of vocatives. This type of vocatives cannot appear at any part of the sentence. This confirms Hill's (2007) proposal but questions the parenthetical nature of vocatives (Haddad, 2020). The study argues that to account for Vocatives of Entreaty in Arabic, we should look at vocative phrases as Shells that have thematic roles. This is needed in our data because Vocatives of Entreaty require three arguments within its phrase structure: a role that specifies the call (the specifier position of VOC), a role for *l-mustayyaaθ bih* 'the addressee' (θADDRESSEE) and a role for the *l-mustayyaaθ lah* 'the distressed' (θDISTRESSED/EXPERIENCER).

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Insertion Function in Code-Mixing Use on WhatsApp Group Chats Among University Students

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Abstract—Code-mixing is viewed as using two or more languages in daily interaction. Code-mixing is highly intriguing to investigate as it has become an unquestionable option for particular speech communities worldwide. However, an analysis of insertion in code-mixing phenomenon on WhatsApp Group Chat of university students has not been supported by current empirical studies. The evidence indicates that the insertion of code-mixing usage is a great tactic to show the speaker's communication strategy, intimacy, and limited linguistic competence. This study aimed to analyze the types, functions, and values of insertion in code-mixing use on WhatsApp Group Chat among university students. This study used the descriptive-qualitative method. Twenty-two students of two WhatsApp Group Chats were chosen as respondents in this study. Moreover, the researchers used documentation, interviews, and field observations to obtain data from respondents. The findings demonstrate that insertion functions in code-mixing use on WhatsApp Group Chats are solidarity, intimacy, interjection, a limited vocabulary, clarification, and group identity expressions.

Index Terms—insertion, code-mixing, sociolinguistics, WhatsApp group chats

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a medium and a primary need of humankind to express a wide range of ideas in the human mind. Language is integrally linked to human life due to its role as a signer in many different things of human life. The use of the language is highly adapted to the development and real needs in various fields of human life (Menggo & Suastra, 2020). Recently, it has been suggested that speakers are able to converse two or more languages depending on the needs of the speakers of a particular speech community. Being bilingual or multilingual speakers might sharpen their linguistic competence (vocabulary, syntax, and semantics), the appropriate language context use, more complex thinking patterns, and fully appreciate of people from different cultures, ethnics, and countries (Aggun, 2021; Menggo et al., 2021).

In daily life, bilingual or multilingual speakers cannot avoid using the insertion of code-switching and code-mixing words, phrases, or clauses in their communication (Muico et al., 2021; Wulandari, 2021). According to Muico et al. (2021) and Wulandari (2021), code-mixing is the most effective way for multilingual speakers to convey messages, maintain smooth communication with the interlocutor, and preserve the mother tongue. The idea of code-mixing as preserving the mother tongue is in line with research conducted by (Haryati & Prayuna, 2020), who claimed that code-mixing and code-switching are used to preserve local language in multilingual societies. Moreover, code-mixing emerges when a conversation uses both languages concurrently in which the speaker and hearer switch from one to the other in their single utterance (Marzona, 2017; Octavita, 2016). Mixing two or more languages in a single speech is known as code-mixing. This notion is understood that the speaker and interlocutor can mix or hybridize words, phrases, and clauses from one language to another in one sentence.

Code-mixing and code-switching have become a lifestyle for people worldwide, particularly among young speakers, including those in Indonesia. Young speakers are accustomed to using code-mixing and code-switching in everyday communication since they want to show up more prestigious among their peers, their identity, solidarity, and intimacy (Sundoro et al., 2018; Syafryadin & Haryani, 2020). In Indonesia, the code-mixing case of Indonesian-English or English-Indonesian is commonly used in informal interaction settings. As a result, Indonesian-English or English-Indonesian code-mixing is one of the phenomena that attract the attention of young speakers, exceptionally high school and university students.

Nowadays, code-mixing tends to involve not only oral communication but also written communication through the use of social media platforms, such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, Line, WhatsApp, YouTube, Commercial Advertisement, and many more (Setiawati & Farahsani, 2021; Sutrisno & Ariesta, 2019). WhatsApp is one of the

favorite social media used by young speakers in Indonesia due to simple to use and provides adequate time and space for various types of communication demands, including code-mixing use. WhatsApp is a free messaging application that works across various platforms and is popular among students (high school up to university) for daily chat and sending a range of electronic messages to their colleagues, such as photos, videos, audio, written chat, and many more (Nurazizah et al., 2019).

Numerous previous studies examined the types of code-mixing in written communication in various WhatsApp group chats in Indonesia (Ameliza & Ambalegin, 2020; Haryati & Praywana, 2020; Meliana et al., 2021). However, those prior studies have not deeply examined the data relating to the types, functions, and values hidden in the insertion used in code-mixing on the WhatsApp group chat of university students. According to this argument, this research is required to reveal the intended functions and values.

Indeed, understanding the different types, functions, and reasons how university students use insertion in code-mixing use on their WhatsApp Group Chats is greatly useful to the researchers in revealing the purpose of this study. The respondents, of course, did not use the insertion in code-mixing use without clear and logical arguments. Therefore, the researchers compiled three research questions in this study: What are the respondents' types, functions, and strong arguments for using insertion in code-mixing on their WhatsApp Group Chats? Referring to the research questions stated, this study aims to analyze and disclose the types, functions, and reasons for the insertion of code-mixing use on respondents' WhatsApp Group Chats.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Sociolinguistics

Humans are social beings who cannot survive without the assistance of others. Therefore, humans must engage in social interactions with other humans, either individually or in groups in society. Language acts as a medium to facilitate the intended interaction process, ensuring that no vacuum occurs during the interaction. Furthermore, language is a symbol, and humans derive meaning from creating and interpreting signs in their interactions (Menggo et al., 2021). Language as a communication medium is intrinsically connected to a community's activities. Sociolinguistic studies are an absolute and urgent mandatory requirement for all speakers to accommodate society's activities and language needs.

Sociolinguistics focuses on how language is used according to the context and orientation of the people who use it (Agustin et al., 2020). This understanding indicates that sociolinguistics is how people convey and construct aspects of their social identity through their language. In line with this view, several other sociolinguists affirm the same notion that sociolinguistics is a study of the relationship between language and society (Holmes, 2013, p. 1). Furthermore, Wardhaugh (2006, p. 13) defined sociolinguistics as the analysis of the relationships between language and society, with the intent of enhancing understanding of the functioning of language and how languages function in communication; a similar primary objective in the sociology of language is to explore how a society with its system can be best defined through the study of language.

Wardhaugh's (2006) concept is slightly different but still the same as Hudson's (1996, p. 4) concept, emphasizing the distinction between sociolinguistics and language sociology. According to Hudson (2011, p. 4), sociolinguistics studies language concerning society, whereas language sociology is the study of society with language. In other words, speakers in sociolinguistics understand language and society to learn a great deal about what kind of reason language is, whereas speakers in language sociology change the orientation of their concern. Moreover, Meyerhoff (2006, p. 1) also affirmed that sociolinguistics is about how individual speakers use language in a different context, field, and speech community. The concept of these experts (Holmes, 2013; Hudson, 1996; Meyerhoff, 2006; Wardhaugh, 2006) indicates that sociolinguistics is a guide for speakers in using language concretely in community interaction so that social interaction can be harmoniously interwoven without any problems due to errors and mistakes in the use of the language itself.

B. Code-Mixing Concept in Sociolinguistics

Language is used to help humans exchange opinions, views, beliefs, thoughts, and all kinds of life experiences of fellow human beings. The diversity of human life affects the variation in the use of language in facilitating the various intentions of its speakers. Language variation is interpreted in terms of the community's social diversity and the accuracy of language functions in real interaction (Menggo et al., 2019; Mwalongo, 2017). If the language speakers are a homogeneous group in terms of ethnicity, social status, and field of work, then variation or diversity will not exist, meaning that the speakers use the same language or are monolingual. One of the language variations is code-mixing in specific speech communities, based on community social diversity and their activity functions.

Code-mixing is frequently encountered in bilingual or multilingual communities to facilitate smooth interaction. Code-mixing is when two or more languages or language styles are mixed-used by speakers in their speech act (Mabule, 2015; Salsabila et al., 2021). Besides, Helmie et al. (2020) affirmed that code-mixing is the use of two or more languages in an utterance by switching one or more linguistic features from one language to another without changing the meaning of the sentence since the features only support the sentences of other languages which are inserted.

Moreover, code-mixing combines linguistic features, such as morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, or clauses in one language with another language (Syafryadin et al., 2020). In this case, the speakers seem to be allowed to combine more than one language into a single sentence in their interaction. Based on Ansar (2017) and Syafryadin et al. (2020), it could be claimed that code-mixing is a phenomenal term for bilingualism or multilingualism in which the speaker uses various languages in a single conversation or sentence without attempting to change the meaning of the sentence because the features used only support the sentence of another language, which is embedded in their conversation.

C. Code-Mixing Types, Form, and Function on WhatsApp Group Chat

WhatsApp Group is a virtual public space that allows each speaker to share information with other WhatsApp Group members. WhatsApp group chat is a widely used virtual public space for college students to express their various intentions in their conversations. WhatsApp group chat is also a popular virtual public space for many speakers, including lecturers, in their academic interaction needs with students. WhatsApp can be found on smartphones used as a college student's preferred communications platform, downloaded for free from the Google Play Store. WhatsApp allows students to easily send text messages, pictures, audio, video, and other communication media files (Ahmed, 2019; Nurazizah et al., 2019). WhatsApp Group Chat makes interaction more interactive and exciting, stimulating college students' digital awareness, understanding of vocabulary choice, grammatical accuracy in English writing, and strengthening listening skills, as well as encouraging self-evaluation of code-mixing use in everyday speech (Sherine et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020).

On the other hand, this study was limited to exploring the insertion of students' code-mixing use (types, form, function, and reasons for using code-mixing) in their WhatsApp Group Chat. This scope limitation is due to code-mixing, predominantly found in writing chat (formal and informal settings) on college students' social media networking sites, including Instagram, Twitter, Facebook, WhatsApp, and other relevant social news outlets. The university students' writing chats were found in three code-mixing types: insertion, alternation, and congruent lexicalization (Jimmi & Davistasya, 2019; Mabule, 2015; Syafaat & Setiawan, 2019). Insertion is the process of code-mixing assumed to be similar to borrowing at inserting an alien vocabulary or phrasal class into a structural system. They are inserting content (words) from one language into a structural system from the other. When words and expressions from one language are integrated into another, this is called insertion. The alternation of two uses of two unclear language structures in a single sentence is referred to as the alternation. Alternation occurs between clauses, which is used when a speaker combines his or her language with a phrase from a different language in a single sentence. Congruent lexicalization is when two languages share grammatical structures that can be filled lexically with elements from their respective languages. Congruent lexicalization occurs when vernaculars and languages with similar structural attributes mix.

There are five forms of code-mixing (Rosmiaty et al., 2020). These five forms implement the three types of code-mixing previously described. The five forms of code-mixing use include words, phrases, hybrid, repetition words, idioms, and clauses. The code-mixing form of the word is understood as incorporating other language words into a single sentence. Phrase insertion is a group of semantically and often syntactically restricted words and functions as a single unit in a sentence.

Moreover, in a hybrid code-mixing form, the speaker inserts words and adds affixes of a specific language into another. Then, repetition or reduplication word code-mixing form is the speaker repeats a word of a specific language in a single sentence. Moreover, clause code-mixing form is the speaker inserts a clause (dependent or independent) of a particular language in a single sentence. Besides, each function in communication is served by Code-Mixing. Code-mixing performs some functions, such as quotation, address specification, repetition, interjection, message qualification, personalization, and facility expression (Mabule, 2015; Rosmiaty et al., 2020). These functions facilitate students' smooth written communication process in their WhatsApp Group Chats.

III. METHODS

A. Research Type

This research employed a descriptive-qualitative research type. This research type was chosen due to the aim of analyzing college students' written communication. This study focused on WhatsApp Group Chats from December 2nd-12th, 2021, from Twenty-two students in the English education study program of the Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng, Indonesia. These Twenty-two students were running a community service program in several villages in East Manggarai district, Nusa Tenggara Province, Indonesia.

B. Research Respondents

Twenty-two students from two WhatsApp Group Chats from two classes of the sixth semester of English department students were chosen as the sample by using a purposive sampling technique. This technique was chosen due to the researchers' consideration that twenty-two students were divided into two groups of community service programs under the guidance of the researchers. One of the researchers was also a member of the WhatsApp Group of these two groups

C. Instruments

The researchers were the primary tool in this research, relying on the study's characteristics. Humans can be data collection tools since they are interactive and adapt and use their sense of touch (Bungin, 2005). This primary instrument was supplemented by secondary devices, such as interviews, recording, and documents from respondents' WhatsApp Group Chats.

D. Data Analysis Procedures

Qualitative data analysis was performed using the following procedures: first, the researchers identified and classified the respondents' WhatsApp Group Chats; second, the researchers reduced and removed irrelevant code-mixing data from WhatsApp Group Chats; third, the researchers grouped and assigned each code-mixing type; and fourth, the researchers identified the data. After grouping all of the data, the data were identified and analyzed using the code-mixing theory used in this study.

E. Ethical Code of Research

This research has adhered to the norms for conducting research in Indonesia. It has been accepted by the Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng, Indonesia, research committees.

IV. FINDINGS

The researchers classified the data in this session based on the types and functions for the insertion in code-mixing use. The data was provided from two classes of WhatsApp Group Chats. The researchers discovered the insertion of code-mixing use in its different forms and functions in respondents' interactions. The researchers identified the types of code-mixing encountered in WhatsApp Group Chats using Muysken's theory (Muysken, 2000), such as insertion, alternation, and congruent lexicalization, which can take the form of words, phrases, hybrids, repetition words, idioms, and clauses. However, this study merely focuses on insertion only due to the researchers' limitations.

Types of insertion in code-mixing utterance

The table below is the checklist form of the insertion in code-mixing that the researchers used to analyze the different types of respondents' utterances used in WhatsApp Group Chats. The data was displayed in its entirety, and then a check mark was placed on the type insertion corresponding to the utterances.

TABLE 1
RESPONDENTS' UTTERANCES ON WHATSAPP GROUP CHATS

No	Respondents' Utterances	Types of Insertion					
		W	P	C	I	H	R
1	Eh, ICT sudah ada <i>link zoom</i> -kah?		√				√
2	Ahahahha.... Btw , kapan kalian turun ke lokasi KKN?		√				
3	Ingat tadi bag yang saya bilang kaka Pin. Besok I look ew	√		√			
4	Saya tidak like eee	√					
5	Hemm, we will go together besok emm		√				
6	We meetnya di kampus ya						√
7	Guys tadi sore saya lihat Cogan di halte, dia pake baju orange sumpah cool ngeri	√					
8	Sa sudah booking bebs	√					
9	Tidak baby	√					
10	Tinkiu guys kalian sudah membuat aku tertawa lagi		√				
11	Video call -kah		√				√
12	Wtf. I'm happy with my bad life. You know , ini semakin tidak jelas adek		√				
13	Ahaha... masalah personal dengan lingkungan e. still cannot running well . Saya belum bisa good adaption	√	√				
14	Kita punya problem yang sama. Terutama bahasanya mereka. Aku takut di <i>mbecik</i> dengan bahasanya mereka le. I'm scared	√		√			
15	Duhh, so sad kamu ya. Kami guys , Orang Muda Katolik di sini semangat2 semua...program kerjanya kami mereka help ..pokoknya the best-lah	√	√				√
16	Kami yang lain window shopping saja ya						√
Total		8	8	2	1	4	-

Note: W= Word, P = Phrase, C = Clause, I = Idiom, H = Hybrid, R = Repetition

V. DISCUSSION

The researchers classified the data in this session based on three research questions constructed: the types, functions, and values of insertion used in code-mixing utterances on respondents' WhatsApp chat groups.

A. The Types of Insertion in Code-Mixing

There are six types of insertion in code-mixing use found in Table 1 above: word, phrase, clause, hybrid, Idiom, and repetition. Insertion is the process of inserting items from one language, either lexical items or other components, into the structure of another language (Hakimov, 2021). The insertion type can be taken the form of a word, phrase, clause, hybrid, Idiom, or repetition in the code-mixing process (Syafrizal & Sari, 2017). These insertion forms are an

unavoidable part of code-mixing speakers' meaningful interaction. Word insertion in code-mixing context aids understanding of the message conveyed by the speaker toward the interlocutor. Word is the smallest unit of language consisting of a morpheme or more than a morpheme (Fromkin, 2003). The insertion of words in the context of code-mixing denotes and conveys particular meaning to language users. The researchers found 8 data of word insertion in respondents' WhatsApp Group Chats (Table 1). Those data are the mixing of English words in Indonesian utterances, in which the respondent chatted in Indonesian, then they mixed English words in their conversation when they were chatting on WhatsApp Group. For example, in **data 4**, one of the respondents mixed an English word "like" in the middle of his Indonesian utterance when he chatted on WhatsApp Group; "*Saya tidak like eee*" [I do not like] that means one respondent (he) conveyed his feeling that he did not like something. In this case, the type of code-mixing that the respondent used is word insertion code-mixing because the mixing happened in the sentence form of a word.

Another example found in **data 9**, the respondent also mixed the English word "baby" in Indonesian utterance; "*tidak baby*" [No, baby]. Those data (4 and 9) were examples of insertion words, which happens when the speaker inserts a word element of a foreign language in someone's utterance. Regarding data of word insertion found on respondents' chat, it might be claimed that in the routine communication of the larger community, including the respondents in the study, the insertion of words in code-mixing with variations in the native accent of each speaker is unavoidable. Word insertion happens when the speaker inserts a word element of, whether in a local dialect or foreign language, in his or her utterance (Ng & Chuchen, 2016; Sutrisno & Ariesta, 2019).

The researchers found 8 data of phrase insertion in respondents' chats (Table 1). These data are the mixing of English phrases in Indonesian utterances in which the respondents chatted in Indonesian, and then they mixed an English phrase in their conversation when they were chatting on WhatsApp Group. For example, in **data 2**, a respondent used the phrase insertion in her chat; she mixed the phrase "*btw/ by the way*" in her Indonesian utterance "*Ahahahha... Btw, kapan kalian turun ke lokasi KKN?*" [By the way, when are you going to the community service program?]. "By the way, or btw" is a common phrase used by society, particularly by university students, to ask her friends when they go to a community service program location, and she mixed her language in phrase form. "Btw" is an example of an insertion phrase since it is ungrammatical, which means there is no subject or verb, then respondents inserted this phrase in their utterance. Another example found in **data 10**; "*Tinkiu guys kalian sudah membuat aku tertawa lagi*" [Thank you guys for making me laugh again]. This sentence's phrase is "Tinkiu guys". That is, she expressed gratitude to her friends for praising her so she could laugh again. But an error occurred in typing the phrase "thank you" in the chatting. She used "tinkiu" which should be "thank you". However, the goal remains the same: express gratitude or thank you. These two data indicate that phrase insertion affects students' code-mixing use on their WhatsApp Group Chats. Phrase insertion here is a sequence of words, which is semantically and often syntactically restricted, functioning as a single unit. The speaker inserts two or more grammatically related words that form a sentence, clause, or another phrase (Roslan et al., 2021; Rosmiaty et al., 2020).

Clause insertion was found in data 3 and 14 (Table 1). Clauses are parts of phrases that include a subject and a predicate but do not fully express the idea (Andersen & Holsting, 2018; Sarvasy & Choi, 2020). Andersen and Holsting (2018) and Sarvasy and Choi (2020) further affirmed two types of clauses: independent and dependent clauses. An independent clause is a simple sentence, and it can stand on its own. On the other hand, a dependent clause cannot stand independently. It needs an independent clause to complete a sentence use. Clause insertion data (data 3 and 14) discovered the mixing of English clauses in Indonesian utterances in which the respondents chatted in Indonesian and then mixed an English phrase in their conversation when chatting on WhatsApp Group.

In **data 3**, the respondent mixed an English clause when she chatted in her WhatsApp Group. She putted "*I look*" in her Indonesian utterances "*Ingat tadi bag yang saya bilang kaka Pin. Besok I look ee.*" [Remember what I said about the bag, Sister Pin? I am going to look it tomorrow]. The meaning of this sentence is that she will see the bag that she previously chose and tomorrow she will see it directly. "I look" is an independent clause as a complete sentence because it has subject and predicate. Then, in **data 14**, the respondent also mixed her language in clause form. She expressed her feeling by using clause insertion, "*Kita punya problem yang sama. Terutama bahasanya mereka. Aku takut di mbecik dengan bahasanya mereka le, I'm scared.*" [We are dealing with the same problem. Particularly their language. I am afraid of being cynical with their language]. There was a mixing of languages in Indonesian utterance informed of clause of sentence described. "I'm scared" is seen as an independent clause as a complete sentence since it has a subject and predicate. Besides, clause insertion is also found in code-mixing in three languages: Indonesian, Manggarai (native dialect), and English. "Mbecik" is a Manggarai word that means gossip or small chitchat.

The respondent has inserted a clause of a foreign language by using his or her native language. Regarding data on clause insertion found on respondents' chat, it is reasonable to claim that phrase insertion impacts university students' code-mixing use. Clause insertion provides a pragmatic and functional viewpoint in facilitating the communication space of the speakers (Karapetyan & Apresyan, 2017; Schroeder, 2021).

Idiom insertion encountered in **data 16**, one respondent used the Idiom; "*window shopping*" in her Indonesian utterances: "*kami yang lain window shopping saja ya.*" [We are just window shopping for you]. Window shopping is defined as looking at products displayed in store windows without intending to buy them. In this case, the respondent chatted with her friends on a WhatsApp group that she had just become window shopping when her friends wanted to shop. Therefore, this sentence is included in idiom insertion because the idioms cannot be interpreted as individual

words, the Idiom has created a new meaning, and it happens when the speaker inserts his or her native language in an idiom form of another language. This viewpoint is consistent with Almohizea (2016), who stated that an idiom is a group of words established by usage as having a meaning that cannot be inferred from the meanings of the individual words. The Idiom is a phrase or sentence that must be learned as a whole unit because each part of the phrase or sentence in the Idiom has a different meaning (Kaya & Yilmaz, 2018; Rafatbakhsh & Ahmadi, 2019). On the other hand, Idiom is defined as a group of words that each has their meaning. It signifies that the idioms cannot be regarded as individual words since the Idiom has created a new meaning.

A hybrid insertion is indicated by **data 6** and **11**. **Data 6** provides respondent mixed her language between Indonesia-English in hybrid insertion, namely "We meet-nya di kampus em." [We meet on campus]. This sentence had the meaning of a respondent agreeing to meet with her friends on campus for tomorrow. Nevertheless, in this sentence, she mixed the word "meet" with the addition of the affix "-nya" of her Indonesian. So, this sentence is categorized in hybrid words. **Data 11**; video call-kah [please, video call, guys]. This sentence is labeled as a hybrid insertion since the respondent combined the English word with Indonesian utterances in the form of affixes. A hybrid is a compound or derived word with a single element from a different language. A hybrid occurs when combining two elements from a different language creates a new meaning (Samosir et al., 2020; Senaratne, 2016). Hybrid can be formed through affixations (prefix, infix, suffix, confix, and simulfix) from two languages to form new meanings. However, the hybrid form in this study is the insertion of English words get the addition of Indonesian affixation, that is, the suffix of *-nya* on the word *meet-nya* (data 6) and *video call-kah* (Data 11).

B. The Function of Insertion in Code-Mixing Chats

Based on data (Table 1) affirmed, five functions of insertion in code-mixing sentences from respondents' utterances, such as repetition, interjection, message qualification, personalization, and facility of expression. Repetition functions to clarify what the speakers intend, strengthen or emphasize the message, or mark the joke. Furthermore, repetition functions include clarifying what is said or emphasizing a message delivered, stabilizing and smoothening a request or order, and grammatical functions, including plurality and intensification of particular words or phrases used (Fitria, 2020; Retnawati & Mujiyanto, 2015).

From **data 14**, one of the respondents chatted on WhatsApp Group; "*Kita punya problem yang sama. Terutama bahasanya mereka. Aku takut di mbecik dengan bahasanya mereka le. I am scared.*" [We are dealing with the same problem. Particularly their language. I am afraid of being cynical with their language]. The underlined phrase "I am scared" serves as a repetition of "aku takut." This sentence was a mix of three languages: Manggarai 'mbecik' cynical, Indonesian, and English, and it is meant that the respondent was afraid or felt scared because "mbecik" in English means "gossip" in the local language that the respondent did not know. Then this sentence is repeated in English. Doing repetition made the message receivers understand more and easy to know what respondents intended in WhatsApp Group Chats through mixing codes. Based on **data**, 14 indicated that respondents used this repetition in their WhatsApp Group Chats to clarify, re-explain, simply confirm or affirm ambiguous meaning found in interaction. Repetition is one of the methods to facilitate fluent communication between speaker and hearer.

The interjection function is also strengthened by data 2, 5, and 15. The respondents used the expression "ahahaha...hehehehe" in their WhatsApp Group Chats (data 2). This expression used the interjection of pleasure in the form of the word "hahahaha." This expression used the interjection of pleasure in the form of the word "hahahaha," where the interjection generally expressed someone's pleasure, which was expressed through laughing. Another example was from **data 5**; respondents used interjection in WhatsApp Group Chats, like "Hemm, we will go together besok emm." (We will go together tomorrow). This sentence implies a "hemmm" interjection, which the respondent uses to convey or express surprise at something that occurred. The word "hemmm" could also represent a reflective pronoun, such as ourselves. Data 15 demonstrates yet another interjection function, "Duhh, so sad kamu ya. Kami guys, Orang Muda Katolik d sini semangat2 semua...program kerjanya kami mereka help...pokoknya the best-lah." [so sad you are. We guys, the young Catholics here, are all enthusiastic... our program, they help... they are the best]. The word "duh" was used as a complaint interjection in this expression. The word "duh" conveys a desire to complain about a given condition. However, in this setting, such an interjection meant expressing sadness to the informants' friends who were experiencing difficulties.

Interjection data indicates that interjections are frequently used in spoken or written form in informal interaction settings. An interjection has been used widely on social media, including WhatsApp Group Chats, by university students. Interjections occur when a speaker articulates a strong feeling or emotion toward something. This idea aligns with the function of interjection, namely to insert sentence fillers or sentence connectors, but it also has a function to express emotions, such as excitement, joy, surprise or disgust, anger, pleasure, enthusiasm, and many more (Goddard, 2014; Jing, 2017).

Message qualification expression is found in data **12**, which states, "Wtf. I am happy with my bad life—[Wtf. I'm happy with my bad life. You know it is getting less clear, sister]. The respondent conveyed the topic discussed with her friends in English and Indonesian. Then, from **data 14**, respondents also chatted like "*Kita punya problem yang sama. Terutama bahasanya mereka. Aku takut di mbecik dengan bahasanya mereka le. I am scared.*" This sentence was also classified as a message qualification since the topic of this utterance used the English word "problem", while the address was explained in Indonesian. These two data are included in message qualification since these examples used

two languages in a single sentence, where English serves as the topic of a conversation and Indonesian explains that topic. These data concur with the primary function of message qualification, which is to clarify specific information and provide additional explanations for further interactions by employing and adhering to another language qualification that encourages hearers to be more understandable in that other language (Halim & Maros, 2014). Besides, message qualification aims to convince the interlocutor's attention to fully comprehend which information and what part of the conversation the speaker is referring to.

The personalization and objectification function facilitates speakers to understand the insertion of data found in the conversation. This function communicates or conveys what the speaker is trying to think about an object or situation (Horasan, 2014; Kasim et al., 2019). **Data 7 and 13 indicate** the personalization and objectification function in code-mixing conversation. **Data 7** shows respondents' personalization; "*Guys tadi sore saya lihat Cogan di halte, Dia pake baju orange sumpah cool ngeri*" [Guys, I saw Cogan at the bus stop this afternoon; he was wearing an orange shirt and looked cool]. In this sentence, the respondent stated her opinion about someone. In her opinion, someone whose name is Cogan looked so cool than others. What she said is based on her opinion, not necessarily her opinion about Cogan is the same as other friends. Another example is from **data 13**, in which the respondents mixed the English language with Indonesian utterances when they chatted on WhatsApp Group. "*Ahaha... masalah personal dengan lingkungan e. still cannot running well. Saya belum bisa good adaptation*" [Problems with the environment on a personal level. Still unable to run efficiently. I have not been able to adapt well].

Based on this sentence, the respondent's message performed as personalization because the underline clause above presented the student's opinion about her activity there, in which she said that she still could not run well. She said that her opinion, based on her feeling and not necessarily her opinion, is the same as the opinion of other friends. This idea concludes that personalization and objectification function as the speaker's subjective statement as personalizing marker.

The facility of expression data was also encountered in this study. The findings were shown by **data 1**; "*ICT sudah ada link zoom-kah?*". The respondent used the English word "ICT" in his Indonesian utterance. He used that term because the respondent could not find the correct Indonesian word to say "ICT". Then, from **data 8**, "*Saya su booking bebs*" [I have booked baby]. This utterance included facility of expression because of the "*booking*" term used in her Indonesia utterance. The respondent could not find the appropriate term to utter "booking" in Indonesian. Another example was from **data 11**, "*Video call-kah guys*" [please, video call, guys]. Respondent uses video calls because she cannot determine which terms in the Indonesian context have the same corresponding meaning.

Those data were an example of the facility of expression, and generally, the respondent used the facility of expression because they could not express a similar meaning or found it challenging to find the same corresponding meaning to utter in Indonesian. As a result, the respondent mixed the language into English because these words are already known to be used in English. This viewpoint confirms the relevance of facility expression in the frame of reference of code-mixing use. Marasigan (1983), as cited by Kay et al. (2022), affirmed that facility expression facilitates a speaker to use another language due to difficulty finding the right words when speaking or writing. As a result, the expression facility arises due to the inability to find the appropriate term in the current conversation, so speakers are allowed to use the common word in a foreign language.

According to the data discussion, speakers are expected to have a detailed understanding of the insertion forms, whether words, phrases, clauses, hybrids, idioms, or repetition, in the construction of code-mixed utterances. Moreover, recognizing how to use the five insertion functions in code-mixed chats is essential for speakers and interlocutors to avoid interpreting communication messages that are not relevant and appropriate when carrying out communicative activities.

Furthermore, according to the interview findings, there were several motives why respondents used insertion in code-mixing on their WhatsApp Group Chats. Interviews with ten respondents were conducted to delve deeper into the data analysis findings on the respondents' WhatsApp Group Chat documents. The researchers concluded that respondents who use insertion in code-mixing utterances in the form of words, phrases, clauses, idioms, and hybrids have several rational arguments, including (1) solidarity (being empathic about something), (2) interjection, (3) group identity (respondents are from the English department), (4) intimacy (demonstrating a sense of intimacy when chatting in WhatsApp Groups), and (5) limited vocabulary when replying to group chats. Here are some examples of excerpts from interviews about why respondents used code-mixing in WhatsApp Group chats to strengthen the data analyzed previously by the researchers.

Respondent 1: Basically, the rationale I use insertion in my code-mixing conversation when chatting in WhatsApp Group is that it is easy to use, my expression, quite familiar with group members, the conversation started with code-mixing of Indonesian and English, challenging to find an appropriate term in Indonesian or English when responding rapidly toward group chat, makes the communication running well since I can use the Indonesian language.

Respondent 2: When chatting in WhatsApp Groups, I feel entirely comfortable using code-mixing because the message can be well-delivered, and I can use Indonesian and English simultaneously without missing the meaning of the message. **Respondent 3:** This is because I have friends who use English, so I respond in both Indonesian and English. Second, from myself, because I occasionally want to converse with them in both languages. **Respondent 4:**

That is a straightforward method of presenting my arguments. This enabled me to make my chat more varied and

colorful. This method is also an effective way to learn because I can share new words or sentences with others who speak English.

The above discussion data focuses on five types of insertion in code-mixing utterances on WhatsApp Group Chat, which is one type of code-mixing use in real-world interactions. Although this research is limited to code-mixing utterances on WhatsApp Group Chat for university students, it nonetheless contributes to the advancement of macro-linguistic theory, primarily sociolinguistics on bilingual or multilingual speakers whose daily interactions cannot be avoided. Due to these limitations, it is suggested that future researchers explore other insertion functions in code-mixing utterances in other interaction spaces.

VI. CONCLUSION

The result of analysis data showed that respondents frequently used five types of insertion in code-mixing utterances on WhatsApp Group Chat: words, phrase, clause, Idiom, and hybrid types. While for the functions of insertion used in code-mixing utterances are repetition, interjections, message qualification, personalization, and facility of expression. The respondents use those functions to facilitate fluent communication between speaker and hearer. In addition, to make the message clearer and capable of being well-understood by the listener, those functions can avoid misunderstanding and ambiguity between speaker and hearer in their daily communication. Besides, the reasons respondents use code-mixing on their WhatsApp Group Chat have several rational arguments, including solidarity, interjection, group identity, intimacy, and limited vocabulary and lexicon when replying to group chats.

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An Exploration of Student Interpreters' Attitudes Towards the Undergraduate Interpreting Training Programmes at Yemeni Universities

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Abstract—This study investigates the attitudes of trainee interpreters towards their training programmes at Yemeni universities. 61 interpreters in Taiz province participated in the study. A 16-item questionnaire was designed to explore their attitudes towards their programmes. The findings of this study show that the interpreters are not satisfied with the current programmes. The results also show that the programme does not adequately enhance the interpreting competence of would-be interpreters. The programme is mainly concerned with the enhancement of the linguistic and cultural competencies, paying less attention to other components of interpreting competence such as instrumental, psycho-physiological, and strategic. The results also show that respondents are not satisfied with the content of instructional modules, activities used in the training, the time allocated for practicums, and the amount of technology integration. This study has also investigated the interpreting directionality of beginner and advanced student interpreters at Al-Saeed University by quantitatively analysing their final scores in interpreting modules. Beginner and advanced groups in the current study demonstrate different levels of interpreting competence in both directions. The results from various statistical tools show that student interpreters, whether beginners or advanced, are more competent to interpret into their mother tongue, while very few of them show balanced skills in both directions. Additionally, the overall scores of beginner and advanced student interpreters in both directions do not reflect the expected level of proficiency.

Index Terms—Interpreting, training, programme, Yemeni Universities, interpreting competence

I. INTRODUCTION

The last decade witnessed the introduction of many translation and interpreting programmes at Arab and Yemeni universities. Currently, more than twenty public and private universities in Yemen offer undergraduate and post graduate programmes in translation and interpreting. The race to introduce these programmes has been partly dictated by the pressing demand for competent translators and interpreters in local, regional, and international markets. Graduates of these programmes have greater opportunities for employment than graduates from other language departments at faculties of education and arts, where the focus is usually on either language education or literary studies. In general, colleges of languages and arts at Yemeni universities offer an eight-semester undergraduate BA major in foreign languages with a specialisation in translation and interpreting from Arabic into English, and vice versa. Student translators/interpreters are required to complete more than fifteen modules about the theory and practice of translation and interpreting studies. The training also includes practical modules in legal, business, political, religious, and literary translation. Additionally, student translators/interpreters must complete several courses in interpreting.

In the training programme, three modes of interpreting are generally included: simultaneous, consecutive, and sight translation. Although most conferences now include simultaneous interpretation, the terms "simultaneous interpreting" and "conference interpreting" are not always synonymous. Consecutive interpreting (CI) is commonly employed in press conferences, business meetings, and summits, among other settings. It may also be used in certain types of conferences where financial constraints limit possibilities for simultaneous interpretation. Almost all other types of interpretation, in one way or another, end up being a variation of consecutive or simultaneous. The COVID-19 pandemic compelled many institutions globally to revisit their programmes for interpreter training and introduce remote interpreting as a component in the training. Remote consecutive, simultaneous, or sight interpreting typically use web conferencing tools such as Zoom, Microsoft Teams, Google Meet, Skype, or telephone.

Sight interpreting and translation (SIT) is commonly used in public service assignments, involving, for example, witness statements. As a multimodal activity (Havnen, 2019), SIT involves the oral "rendition of a written text at sight" (Pöchhacker, 2016, p. 20) from one language into another. Other types of interpreting include dialogue interpretation, or liaison interpretation, which is commonly used in public service settings such as medical assignments, police interviews, legal meetings, prison visits, school meetings, and etcetera.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Since the start of the Yemeni war between the Saudi-led coalition and the politicised armed Houthi movement in 2015, Yemen witnessed the worst humanitarian crisis in the country's modern history, according to several neutral international reports. To respond to the massive crisis, international organisations from various countries rushed to provide humanitarian aid to millions of Yemenis in dire need of food, healthcare, potable water, and education. There has been great demand for translators and interpreters to facilitate communication between these organisations and the local people in cities, towns, and remote villages, as well as to provide humanitarian watchdog organisations with reports about the atrocities committed by all involved parties. Many international organisations were working on the ground long before the start of the war. Over the years, professional translators and interpreters have been working for these organisations operating in Yemen. Unfortunately, thousands of qualified translators and interpreters, as well as instructors and professors, have been forced to leave the country. Amidst the shortage of qualified translators and interpreters, relief organisations began recruiting nonprofessional translators and interpreters. Many universities in Yemen in general and in Taiz province in particular, the latter having been under siege for more than seven years, introduced translator and interpreter training programmes despite many struggling with lack of funding and academic personnel. Before 2015, there were two programmes for translators and interpreters in higher education institutions in Taiz province, one at the University of Science and Technology, and the other at Al-Saeed University. According to Al-Shehari (2019, p. 25):

The Yemeni situation is a crisis translation situation (O'Brien, 2016) that involves both an ongoing conflict and an epidemic, in which the Yemeni population relies on the support of multilingual NGO operators, most of whom have limited proficiency in Arabic and near-zero professional T&I experience.

This cross-sectional study aims to investigate the current interpreting programmes at Yemeni universities to determine the extent to which interpreters graduating from these programmes are prepared to start a career in the language and translation industry. This study also aims to investigate the interpreting directionality and competence of student interpreters enrolled in translation and interpreting programmes at Al-Saeed University in Yemen in 2019-2020. This study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What are the attitudes of Yemeni interpreters towards their interpreting programmes at Yemeni universities?
2. Do Yemeni beginner and advanced student interpreters exhibit similar or different levels of competence while interpreting in both directions?
3. Is there a statistically significant correlation between Arabic-English and English-Arabic interpreting competence between beginner and advanced student interpreters?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A considerable number of studies have investigated translation programmes in different Arab countries. Some of these studies examined translation programmes at Arab universities in Yemen, Egypt, Morocco, Palestine, and Saudi Arabia (Al Aqad, 2017; Alaoui, 2008; Al-Mubarak, 2017; Gabr, 2002; Mohammed, 2020). Other studies have dealt specifically with the teaching of certain translation modules, such as the status of machine translation in Saudi Arabia (Almutawa & Izwaini, 2015), the use of project-based learning in teaching electronic tools for translators (Alkhatnai, 2017), the use of corpora tools when translating between Arabic and English (Mohammed, 2022) and the attitudes of female students in a Saudi university towards the use of computer-aided translation (CAT) tools in the classroom (Alotaibi, 2014).

Interpreter training in tertiary education contexts has not yet been adequately studied. Although courses in interpreting are offered in current translation programmes at many Yemeni and Arab universities, these courses are generally offered at a later stage in the programmes (i.e., in the third and fourth years). Available literature on interpreting studies in the Arab world either addresses the general challenges of interpreting programmes at Arab universities, or deals with specific aspects of a programme, such as teaching methodology or market relevance. Studies on interpreting competence focus mainly on the analysis of linguistic errors of trainees, directionality in interpreting, and quality assessments of interpreting products. Following is a survey of some of these studies.

A. *Interpreter Training and Education*

Very few institutions adopt a holistic approach to interpreting education and training. Many programmes focus on the training of community interpreters more than that of professional interpreters who may practice in various contexts and situations. Mo and Hale's study investigated the perspectives of community interpreters towards interpreting programmes in an Australian context (Mo & Hale, 2014). While Australia has been a pioneer in community interpreting and education, and it has a national accreditation system, at the time this study was conducted, the country did not have pre-accreditation education or training requirements. To obtain accreditation, aspiring practitioners must take an exam conducted by the Australian national standards and certifying authority for translators and interpreters (NAATI), complete a vocational diploma, or enrol in undergraduate or postgraduate degree programs. Mo and Hale's (2014) study concluded that although the interpreting curricula include practical units, and units on ethics, the vocational programmes lack theoretical and research-related units. This indicates that the proportion of practice time in the curricula is insufficient. The introduction of components in which trainees can practice under the guidance of

professionals may solve the problem. Another study was also conducted on the teaching of interpreting between Arabic and English at the Granville College of TAFE (Technical and Further Education) (Gamal, 1998) in Australia. The college has been offering courses in community interpreting since 1996 in Arabic, Turkish, Farsi, and other non-European languages in migrant communities. The programme, unlike those offered in the Arab world, places special emphasis on dialectology because a community interpreter will frequently interact in communities where people speak local vernaculars of different Arab cities. Hence, trainees are encouraged to experience as many dialects as possible.

Many universities in the United Kingdom and the United States of America have realised the significance of interpreter training programmes. As a result, they have introduced programmes in many target languages, including Arabic. Training in multiple languages usually requires customisation to serve various language streams and to familiarise trainees with the process of intercultural communication. Along these lines, Weiss (2012) has applied customisation in the design of a course for interpreter training at the School of Languages and International Studies at the University of Central Lancashire in Preston, UK. The course has been tailored to ensure that all language streams learn the necessary skills for both simultaneous and consecutive interpreting. Customisation enhances cooperation among students of the different language streams, such as Arabic, Chinese, French, German, and Polish, and has a positive impact on the employability of alumni.

As for interpreting education in the Arab world, Al-Maryani (2019) examined the situation of simultaneous interpreter education in Iraq. Despite the increasing demand for interpreters to meet the market needs in the military, political, and economic sectors, the training programmes generally fail to meet the requirements of global changes. The study recommended the review of syllabi, the appointment of well-trained staff, the integration of technology, and raising the overall standards of the programmes. Few studies have examined the assessment of student interpreters at Arab universities. Assessments of the performance of student interpreters often lack the use of objective criteria and are sometimes left to the discretion of instructors. Ahmed (2020) examined the use of rubrics in the assessment of simultaneous interpreting outputs of students at an Egyptian university. The findings of the study showed that the use of systematic and holistic approaches not only enhance the performance of students and increase the consistency in grading, but also the quality of training.

Other studies have reported on the types of activities and modes of training that should be adopted to compensate for the lack of practical training in formal institutions. Li (2015) investigated the use of mock conferences as a situated learning activity in a graduate interpreting programme in China. Similarly, Goutondji (2014) investigated the use of mock conferences for practical instruction of postgraduate interpreter trainees in a simultaneous interpreting programme at the University of Pretoria in South Africa. Al-Zahrani (2007) suggested a list of exercises that can be employed in the training of SI and CI, such as note-taking, listening and memory, shadowing, dual-task training, paraphrasing, abstracting, closing, sight translating, digit processing, and lag and anticipation exercises.

The role of technology in interpreter training is also emphasised in several studies. These studies tackled aspects such as the use of video cameras in simultaneous interpreting laboratories (Yang, 2018); the use of digital pen technology for note-taking in consecutive interpreting and assessment (Orlando, 2010); the use of corpora tools in terminological preparation to achieve greater accuracy in simultaneous interpreting (Xu, 2018); and the use of comprehensive types of applications such as the Black Box and virtual interpreting environment (VIE) in interpreter education and training (Sandrelli, 2005; Sandrelli & Hawkins, 2006).

As for interpreter competence, studies tend to revolve around linguistic dimensions. Some of these studies examined the errors of Saudi and Iraqi student interpreters (Ibrahim & El-Esery, 2014; Al-Jarf, 2018; Musa & Al-Maryani, 2021). Common errors reported in these studies include insufficient vocabulary knowledge, comprehension problems, incorrect terminology, meaning transfer errors, terminology of chemical and disease names and acronyms, disfluencies, and syntactic errors. Issa's study analysed the challenges that conference and television interpreters encounter. The rendition of culture-bound references, idioms, and jokes are some of these challenges (Issa, 2018). Other challenges are associated with external factors such as noise, speaker-related issues, and interpreter-related factors. In a similar study, problems encountered by volunteer translators and interpreters in Yemen were investigated (Al-Shehari, 2019). In another study, strategic competence of community interpreters was investigated in their translation into Arabic of a talk show called *Her Excellency* (Ahmed, 2016). Some of the strategies followed in interpreting the show into Arabic include close and expanded renditions, substitution, summarisation, and cultural mediation, among others. As for professional and ethical competence, few studies have dealt with the qualities of a professional interpreter in a healthcare context. Hadziabdic and Hjelm (2014) conducted a study on the skills a healthcare interpreter should possess from the perspectives of Arab seekers of health services in Australia. The personal qualities of an interpreter, according to the study, are not only confined to language skills. Other factors include origin, religion, dialect, political affiliations, and gender, among others; these factors may be decisive in the recruitment of an interpreter in a healthcare context.

Another aspect that draws attention in interpreting research is that of directionality. Many studies have investigated whether interpreters exhibit similar, different, or balanced competencies while translating from and into their native language. Analyses of directionality and interpreter competence of undergraduate students in Arab universities have shown that student interpreters are more competent when they interpret into their mother tongue (Al-Salman & Al-Khanji, 2002; Al-Jarf, 2022). A similar study investigated directionality among Chinese first-language interpreters in Chinese-English simultaneous interpreting. The study concluded that professional simultaneous interpreters who have

been frequently interpreting in both directions have shown equal abilities in both languages. However, only 30% of the sample of the study showed balanced knowledge. 70% of the sample showed more competence in interpreting into Chinese (Chang, 2005). Familiarity with context might, however, play a role in the accuracy of interpreting irrespective of directionality. Results from a study that was conducted in a postgraduate interpreting course at the University of Pretoria in South Africa (Dose, 2017) showed that familiarity with the context of a scenario plays a vital role in enhancing the quality of simultaneous interpreters' renditions and proves to be more beneficial while interpreting into the second language than into the native language.

The abovementioned literature demonstrates that most studies focus on the main challenges of university interpreting programmes, including mode of training, methodology, and logistical and infrastructure issues. Apart from the linguistic competence of trainees, other components of interpreting competence are generally overlooked in the literature. Omissions by student and professional interpreters may not be the result of their linguistic incompetence but could be due to external or psycho-physiological factors, such as stress. Training programmes should consider the various competencies that enable student interpreters to cope with the varied challenges they are likely to encounter in their careers.

B. Interpreting Competence

Several translator and interpreter training programmes are built around one of the key models of translation competence, which is defined by the PACTE research group as "the underlying system of knowledge, abilities and attitudes required to be able to translate" (Beeby et al., 2003, p. 43). Translation competence models are usually designed to include the skills, knowledge, and attributes of both translators and interpreters which do not undermine interpreting competence. The PACTE group uses a model for translation competence that consists of six components of competence, namely, bilingual, extra-linguistic, instrumental-professional, psycho-physiological, transfer, and strategic. Another well-known model of translation competence was developed by the EMT expert group. EMT was established by the European Commission's Directorate General for Translation to improve translator training. Their goal was to establish a European standard for a master's degree in translation. The EMT model also consists of six competences: translation service provision, language, intercultural, information mining, thematic, and technological. Additionally, some attempts have been made to create a separate model for interpreting competence. As early as the 1930s Sanz (1931; cited in Pöchhacker, 2016, p. 164) suggested several cognitive and moral qualities an interpreter needs in a professional setting. These abilities include memory, intuition, and intelligence. Moral and affective skills may include poise, tact, alertness, and discretion.

Kalina (2000, p. 5) defines interpreting competence as the ability to process texts using special strategies in communication scenarios where two or more languages are involved. She emphasises that these strategies are different from those used in monolingual situations. The interpreter acts as an interlingual mediator. This process is considerably constrained by time, "lack of semantic autonomy" and, "the potential interference between closely connected processes of production and comprehension" (Kalina, 2000, p. 5). Interpreting is not merely a linguistic phenomenon; rather, it makes use of psycho-linguistic and cognitive psychology as well (Kalina, 2000). Confirming that there are some competences, or what Kalina calls "basic competences" which translators and interpreters share, she also refers to the differences among them. The basic competences in her view are: linguistic, cultural, world, relevant special knowledge, text processing and production, stylistic, and dealing with interlingual problems.

Meng (2017, pp. 115-116) identified several components of interpreting competence including linguistic, cultural, professional and encyclopaedic knowledge, and excellent memory. An interpreter should also possess skills and abilities in notetaking, quick response, and emergency-dealing.

Meng's study concurs with Gile, who points out that interpreters have exaggerated the differences between translation and interpreting Gile (1995, p. 3). Gile attributes the differences to the cognitive stress that interpreters experience during time-constrained processes. Gile proposes the interpreter's effort model (Gile, 1995, pp. 158-159), which is based on the assumption that in interpreting, mental energy is required, and this energy is only available in short supply. Interpreting consumes most of this mental energy, sometimes requiring more than is available, causing performance to deteriorate.

For Pöchhacker, the most important knowledge components and skills an interpreter is required to possess are excellent knowledge of working languages, general world knowledge, a diverse range of interests, comprehension, analytical skills, memory, verbal fluency, expressive ability, language transfer, communication skills, stress resistance, stamina, good voice quality, confident delivery, and team spirit (Pöchhacker, 2015, pp. 17-18). In the case of sign language interpreting and dialogue interpreting, Pöchhacker also emphasises the significance of psycho-motor and interpersonal skills.

As for consecutive interpreting competence, Gillies (2019, p. 146) draws on Gile's (1995) study, dividing the interpreting process into two main phases; the first is listening and analysis, in which the interpreter is required to have skills of note-taking, short-term memory operations, and coordination (effort management); the second phase is that of production during which an interpreter is required to enhance their recalling and note-reading skills.

The validity of translation competence models in interpreter training also appears in the national standards and certifying authority for translators and interpreters in Australia (NAATI) which has designed a comprehensive certification scheme to evaluate aspiring interpreters. The model revolves around the concept of competence, and it

does not differ much from other certification systems for translators. A certified interpreter should have the following competencies: transfer, language, intercultural, thematic, ethical, research, service provision, and technological (NAATI, 2016). NAATI also requires specific competencies for other categories of interpreters such as certified conference, certified specialist (health, legal, etc.), certified provisional and recognised practising interpreters. Although the competency areas specified by NAATI for interpreters and translators are largely similar, the knowledge, skills, and attributes (KSAs) required by each category may differ, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND ATTRIBUTES IN NAATI'S INTERPRETING MODEL

	Knowledge	Skills	Attributes
Language Competency (in two languages)	Vocabulary knowledge Grammar knowledge Idiomatic knowledge Language trends knowledge	Language proficiency enabling meaning transfer	Attentive-to-detail Desire-to-excel Reliable Willing-to-learn Objective Respectful Collaborative Self-reflective Problem-solving Confident
Intercultural Competency	Cultural, historical and political knowledge	Sociolinguistic skill	
Research Competency	Research tools and methods knowledge	Terminology and information research skill Create and maintain a knowledge bank	
Technological Competency	Interpreting technology knowledge	Interpreting through communication media Information and communications technology (ICT) skill	
Thematic Competency	General knowledge Current events knowledge Subject-matter specific knowledge Institution-specific knowledge		
Transfer Competency	Interpreting modes knowledge	Discourse analysis skill Discourse management skill Meaning transfer Memory skill Rhetorical skill	
	Interpreting standards knowledge	Self-assessment skill	
Service Provision Competency	Knowledge of the business of interpreting	Interpreting business skill Communication skill Interpersonal skill	
Ethical Competency	Ethics knowledge	Professional Ethics	

Although the development of the various skills and attributes is not always possible in formal training programmes, these are sometimes acquired through experience and practice. Interpreter training in a higher education context should familiarise students with all the dimensions of interpreting competence. Some aspects can be developed in a physical or virtual mode through micro-learning groups, projects, tasks, and simulations. Practicum and mock conferences may also assist in sharpening the psycho-physiological attributes of would-be interpreters. Along these lines, this study investigates the current interpreting programmes at Yemeni universities to determine the extent to which they enhance the competencies, skills, and attributes of would-be interpreters.

IV. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The current study is descriptive-analytical. It investigates the status of interpreter training at Yemeni universities. The participants are 61 interpreters, who graduated from Taiz University, Al-Saeed University, and the University of Science and Technology between 2015-2019. This study employs a quantitative approach, using a survey composed of twelve five-point Likert items and four multiple-choice items covering the various dimensions of interpreting competence. The following steps were considered in the development of the questionnaire:

1. A 25-item questionnaire was initially prepared, and it was sent to two professors of translation studies who suggested the deletion of six items.
2. To ensure the clarity of all items, a pilot study was then conducted with eight interpreters from the same population as the participants. Three other items were deleted.
3. A 16-item questionnaire was administered to 61 interpreters, none of whom had participated in the pilot study. An exploratory factor analysis was also conducted, and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated. The results indicate an acceptable KMO index of (0.896). Results of the principal component factor analysis showed that the factor loads of the scale are acceptable, ranging between 0.74 and 0.96.
4. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated using Cronbach's alpha consistency, which revealed that the questionnaire had acceptable internal consistency ($r = 0.964$).

The survey used for this study has a structure that can be applied in terms of factor distributions and validity-reliability values. Apart from the satisfaction section of the questionnaire, another section was devoted to the various aspects of the training programme. Respondents were given four multiple-choice items in which they were asked about the training methodology, technology integration in the programme, entry requirements, modes of interpreting, and training activities, among others.

In addition to the survey, this study also investigated interpreting directionality and competence by analysing the final scores of two groups of student interpreters at Al-Saeed University during the academic year 2019-2020. The beginners' group included 17 student interpreters, and the advanced group included 12. Although the beginners' group had recently finished their first interpreting course at the time this study was conducted, they had already completed many language and translation courses. The advanced group, on the other hand, were in their final year, having completed almost all the requirements of the degree.

V. RESULTS

To investigate the attitudes of the interpreters towards their training programmes, the percentages of each item were calculated, as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF RESPONSES

No	Items	Percentages (%)				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The interpreting programme at my university does not put adequate attention to the structural (i.e., morphological and syntactic) differences between Arabic and English.	57	15	13	2	13
2	The programme does not enhance the lexical knowledge of trainee interpreters in the two languages.	55	23	8	7	7
3	The interpreting programme does not attempt to enhance the socio-cultural competence of trainees properly.	68	15	5	7	5
4	Differences between the textual and cohesive systems of the two languages are not considered.	72	22	2	2	3
5	Trainees are not introduced to various genres and text types.	65	18	3	12	2
6	A proper training in the mother-tongue competence is not offered.	72	15	3	7	3
7	Bi-cultural competence and research skills competence (e.g., encyclopaedic, and subject knowledge) are given less attention in the programme.	62	22	0	13	3
8	Trainees are not familiarized with problems-solving translation strategies such as syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic strategies.	52	32	3	7	7
9	The programme in its present form promotes the trainees' cognitive abilities like memory, perception, attention, and emotion.	8	8	7	12	65
10	The programme helps develop the attitudinal attributes of trainees such as intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigour, and critical spirit.	3	16	7	14	60
11	The programme enhances the trainees' creativity, logical reasoning, analysis, and synthesis.	13	5	5	13	63
12	Interpreting courses should not be taught at the current translation programme, and they need to be introduced in a separate programme.	20	32	3	17	28

As the data in Table 2 shows, the participants of this study believed that their interpreting programmes did not contribute much to the enhancement of their interpreting competence. Investigating the treatment of the linguistic competence of student interpreters has shown that 72% of the respondents see that the content places no special emphasis on the structural (i.e., morphological, and syntactic) differences between Arabic and English. 78% of respondents were dissatisfied with the role their programme played in the enhancement of their lexical knowledge in the two languages. 94% of the respondents reported that the textual and cohesive systems of the two languages were not adequately considered in the syllabus. Similarly, 83% of the respondents were of the view that their programme did not familiarise them with various genres and text types they are likely to encounter in their future career. Although interpreting programmes at Yemeni universities focus mainly on translation between Arabic, English and French, 87% of the respondents agreed that sufficient training in first-language competence was not offered.

The cultural and specialised competences of the trainees did not improve; 83% of the participants reported that the interpreting programme did not attempt to enhance their socio-cultural competence properly. Similarly, 84% held the view that the bi-cultural and research skills competences (e.g., encyclopaedic, and subject knowledge) were given less attention in the programme. As for strategic competence, 84% of respondents believed that they were not sufficiently familiarised with problem-solving translation strategies such as syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic.

Emerging statistics showed that the programmes analysed in this study undermined the psycho-physiological sub-competence of the student interpreters. 77% of the respondents reported that their programme did not encourage the development of cognitive abilities like memory, perception, attention, and emotion. 74% of the respondents reported that their programmes did not help develop attitudinal attributes of trainees such as intellectual curiosity, perseverance, rigour, or critical spirit. 76% of respondents felt that the enhancement of creativity, logical reasoning, analysis, and synthesis were undermined. The inclusion of translation and interpreting modules in one unified programme may contribute to the lack of interpreting competence of the trainees; this is what may have prompted 55% of respondents to hold the view that interpreting courses should be introduced in a separate, fully-fledged interpreting programme.

Apart from the satisfaction levels of the respondents with their interpreting programmes, the survey included a section on the status quo of the training programmes, their components, entry requirements, and questions about the tasks and activities used in training and technology integration. When asked to describe the interpreting situation at their university, most respondents described their training as a transmissive programme aiming to transfer knowledge from teachers to learners. A minority of respondents pointed out that theirs was a professional-oriented programme with a humanistic approach aiming to integrate students into a community of professional practice. In the view of the respondents, the psycho-cognitive aspects of the profession, including cognitive strategies and process capacity

management, were rarely considered in their programmes. Figure 1 shows the situation of interpreter training at the time this study was conducted.

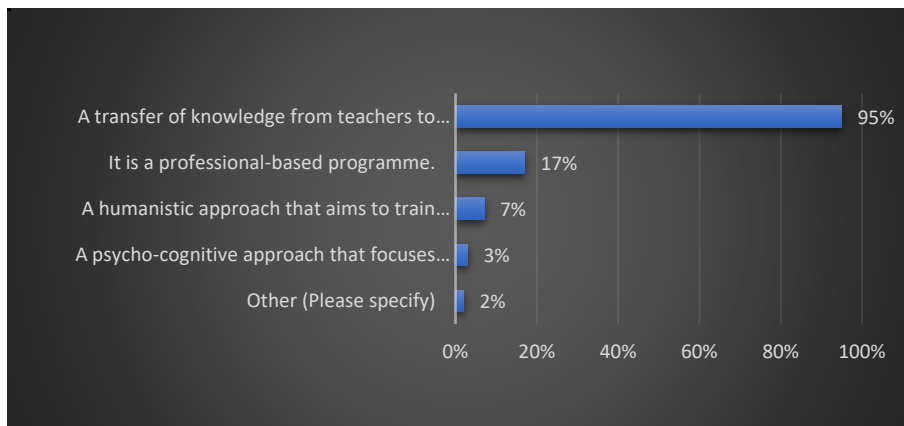


Figure 1. Current Situation of Interpreting Programmes at Yemeni Universities

Student interpreters reported that their training programmes mainly revolved around basic concepts in language and communication, language enhancement, and the enhancement of specialised and socio-cultural background knowledge. Professional ethics, international organisations, and skills training in simultaneous and consecutive interpreting were given less attention. Figure 2 shows the components of the training programmes as viewed by trainees.

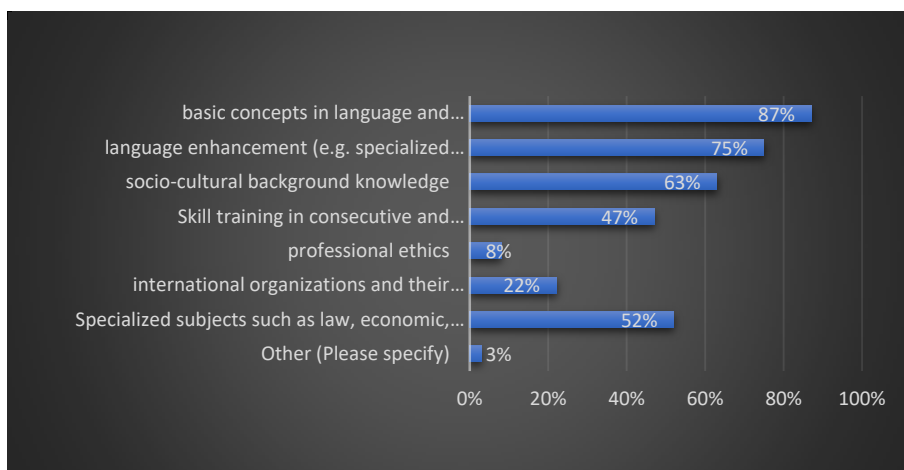


Figure 2. The Content of the Training Programmes

As for the tasks and activities frequently used in training; note-taking, simultaneous paraphrasing, role playing, sight translation, and mock conferencing were among them. Cognitive activities such as processing overload and shadowing hardly featured. Similarly, internships and practicum were rarely used. Figure 3 shows the frequencies of the various activities in the training programmes.

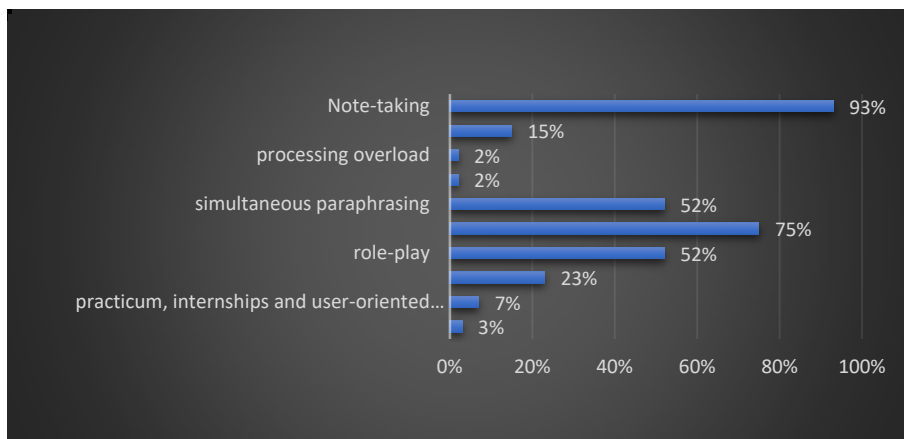


Figure 3. Tasks and Activities Used in the Programmes

As for technology integration, the results showed that the training modes were largely traditional. Face-to-face interpreting training was the most common, followed by telephone, video conferencing, and remote simultaneous interpreting. However, 50% of the student interpreters indicated that they did not receive any technology-enhanced training. In other words, the training took place in traditional classrooms without the use of technology. Figure 4 shows the frequency of technology integration in the interpreting programmes.

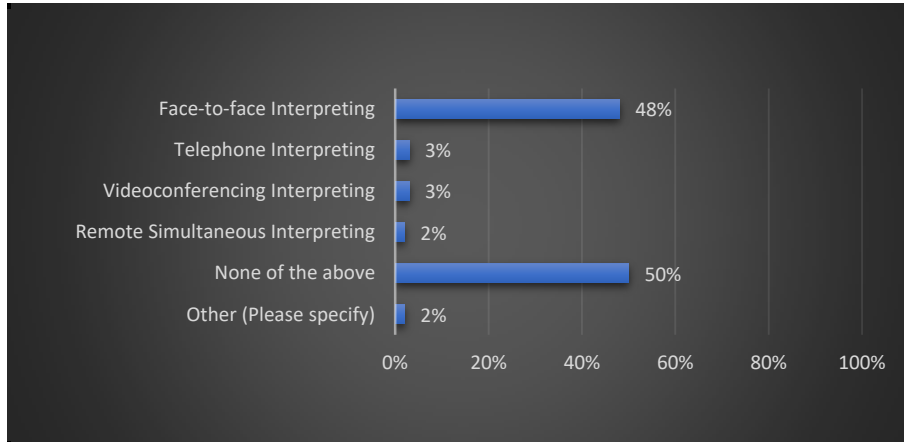


Figure 4. Technology Integration in the Interpreting Programme

To answer the second question of this study, “Do Yemeni beginner and advanced student interpreters exhibit similar or different levels of competence while interpreting in both directions?”, descriptive statistics of the scores of beginner and advanced student interpreters and T-tests were conducted. Descriptive statistics of the scores of the two groups appear in Table 3.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENT INTERPRETERS’ SCORES IN INTERPRETING MODULES

	N Statistic	Range Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Deviation Statistic	Variance Statistic
Beginners Arabic-English	17	14.16	21.00	35.16	31.2735	.87310	3.59990	12.959
Beginners English- Arabic	17	17.16	25.00	42.16	37.1153	1.14048	4.70231	22.112
Advanced Arabic-English	12	14.00	30.00	44.00	36.0000	1.40346	4.86172	23.636
Advanced English - Arabic	12	11.00	34.00	45.00	39.6667	1.07544	3.72542	13.879
Valid N (listwise)	12							

Findings reported in Table 3 show that for the beginners’ group, the typical English-Arabic score was 37.1153% and the typical Arabic-English score was 31.2735%. The mean scores reflect differences in interpreting ability in both directions. The variance and range scores show differences in interpreting competence within the group. To find out whether these differences are statistically significant, one-sample t-test was used, as shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
ONE-SAMPLE T-TEST OF BEGINNER STUDENT INTERPRETERS’ SCORES IN BOTH DIRECTIONS
Test Value = 30

	t	Df	Significance		Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			One-Sided p	Two-Sided p		Lower	Upper
Beginners Arabic-English	1.459	16	.082	.164	1.27353	-.5774	3.1244
Beginners English- Arabic	6.239	16	<.001	<.001	7.11529	4.6976	9.5330

The t-test results showed no significant differences in the students’ competence while interpreting from Arabic into English. However, statistically significant differences were found in their competence in interpreting from English into Arabic. That is, students’ interpreting competence differs significantly when they interpret into their mother tongue. Furthermore, some student interpreters are more linguistically competent in the use of mother tongue than others. A Pearson correlation was also used to determine any statistically significant correlation between beginner student interpreters’ Arabic-English and English-Arabic interpreting competence, as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE SCORES OF BEGINNER STUDENT INTERPRETERS

		Beginners Arabic-English	Beginners English-Arabic
Beginners Arabic-English	Pearson Correlation	1	.315
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.218
	N	17	17
Beginners English- Arabic	Pearson Correlation	.315	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.218	
	N	17	17

As the results of the Pearson correlation test show, there is no significant correlation between Arabic-English and English-Arabic interpreting scores of beginner student interpreters. The Pearson correlation coefficient is .315 and the 2-tailed significance is .218. This means that in the beginners' group, if a trainee's interpreting skill in one direction is good, it does not follow that their interpreting skills are equally good in the other direction. Similarly, should the interpreter's score be poor in one direction, it may not be poor in the other.

As for the advanced group, the typical Arabic-English and English-Arabic scores were 36 and 39.66, respectively. Results of the one-sample t-test appear in Table 6.

TABLE 6
ONE-SAMPLE T-TEST OF ADVANCED STUDENT INTERPRETERS' SCORES IN BOTH DIRECTIONS
Test Value = 30

	t	Df	Significance		Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			One-Sided p	Two-Sided p		Lower	Upper
Advanced Arabic-English	4.275	11	<.001	.001	6.00000	2.9110	9.0890
Advanced English - Arabic	8.989	11	<.001	<.001	9.66667	7.2996	12.0337

T-test results of the scores of the advanced interpreting group indicate significant differences in the students' competence in Arabic-English and English-Arabic interpreting. That is, advanced student interpreters differ significantly in terms of interpreting competence. This means that advanced students' ability in English-Arabic interpreting is better than Arabic-English. A Pearson correlation was also used to determine any statistically significant correlation between advanced student interpreters' Arabic-English and English-Arabic interpreting competence, as shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7
PEARSON CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE SCORES OF ADVANCED STUDENT INTERPRETERS

		Advanced Arabic-English	Advanced English - Arabic
Advanced Arabic-English	Pearson Correlation	1	.908**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		<.001
	N	12	12
Advanced English - Arabic	Pearson Correlation	.908**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	<.001	
	N	12	12

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

A significant correlation was found between Arabic-English and English-Arabic interpreting scores. The Pearson correlation coefficient is .908 and the 1-tailed significance is <.001. This means that in the advanced interpreting group, if a trainee's interpreting competence in one direction is good, their interpreting skills are equally good in the other direction. Similarly, should the interpreter's skills be poor in one direction, they are likely to be poor in the other direction.

To investigate the existence of any significant relations between the scores of beginner and advanced student interpreters, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, as shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8
ANOVA TEST FOR THE SCORES OF BEGINNER AND ADVANCED STUDENT INTERPRETERS

OS	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	369.590	166	369.590	6.599	.016
Within Groups	1512.157	27	56.006		
Total	1881.747	28			

As for beginner and advanced students' performance, the ANOVA revealed significant differences in the total test mean scores of the beginner and advanced groups in interpreting in both directions (Df= 166; F=6.599, P<.016). This means that beginner and advanced groups in this study show different levels of interpreting competence in both directions. Advanced student interpreters have better interpreting skills than beginner student interpreters, which could

be attributed to their experience, and to the fact that the former have completed more language, translation, and interpreting courses, and they have been exposed to more practical sessions than beginners.

VI. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study show that Yemeni interpreters are generally not satisfied with their training programmes at Yemeni universities. Quantitative data shows that these programmes do not contribute much to the enhancement of several dimensions of trainees' interpreting competence, including linguistic, cultural, and psycho-physiological, among others. These findings are consistent with those of other studies that investigated the translation and interpreting programmes at many Arab universities (Gabr, 2002; Alaoui, 2008; Mohammed, 2020). The findings of this study also show that Yemeni training programmes are mainly concerned with the transfer of theoretical knowledge; they are generally not profession-oriented and do not attempt to integrate students into a community of professional practice. The programmes typically focus on key concepts in language and communication, language enhancement activities, as well as on some specialised literary, legal, economic, and business texts. Trainees are neither familiarised with the ethics of the profession, nor the terminology of international organisations that normally recruit interpreters. The programmes also do not generally aim to enhance students' psycho-cognitive skills and strategies. In terms of activities, note-taking, role-playing, simultaneous paraphrasing and sight translation of texts, the selection of which is based on the trainer's discretion, are commonly used. These drawbacks of the programmes are reported in studies that were conducted in different Arabic countries including Al-Shehari (2019), and Musa and Al-Maryani (2021), among others. The problems that student, novice and professional interpreters encounter may be attributed to the training they receive at their universities. Although some differences were found between the scores of beginner and advanced interpreters, the performance of trainees in consecutive, simultaneous, and on-sight interpreting is unsatisfactory. In fact, the trainees' mean scores did not exceed the acceptable statistical level. These findings of this study are in agreement with other studies conducted on trainee and professional interpreters including, Farghal and Shakir (1994), Alduhaim and Alkhalidy (2019), and Al-Jarf (2022). Although the beginner and advanced interpreters, according to the emerging statistics, showed greater competence while interpreting from their second language to their mother tongue, the overall scores of the trainees in both directions do not reflect the expected level of proficiency. Few interpreters showed a balanced knowledge of their working languages during the interpreting tasks. The interpreting products abound with lexico-grammatical, cultural, and communication problems. This finding is in line with the findings of Al-Jarf (2022) about Saudi student interpreters, Farghal and Shakir (1994) about Jordanian advanced interpreters, Akki and Larouz (2021) about Moroccan interpreters, and Al Zahran (2021) on the structural problems that simultaneous interpreters encounter when translating between English and Arabic. Omissions that can affect the coherence and informativity of the discourse are also common (Alduhaim & Alkhalidy, 2019).

Given interpreters' dissatisfaction with their interpreting programmes, as well as the scores of beginner and advanced student interpreters in interpretation modules, this study recommends the adoption of a holistic training approach that takes into consideration all the dimensions of interpreting competence, including bilingual, intercultural, research, technological, thematic, strategic, professional, ethical, and service provision (Beeby et al., 2003; NAATI, 2016). Materials and activities should be customised to suit the individual needs of trainees. The selection of training materials should not be at the discretion of trainers; they should make use of available digital repositories such as UN and TED. A digital repository that includes Arabic videos about the Arab world could be prepared using YouTube and Arab channels such as Aljazeera, Al-Arabiya, Sky News, etc. This could include genuine consecutive and simultaneous translations of speeches, briefings, and interviews. Interpreter training has long focused on the teaching of simultaneous and consecutive interpreting using political speeches and materials. The ongoing crises in the Middle East necessitate the integration of community interpreting in the curriculum. The humanitarian crises in countries such as Yemen, Syria, and Libya indicate that interpreters, who not only understand politicians' words but can operate on the ground in war zones, are needed; they may be requested to interpret information about education, healthcare, famine, and aggression-related discourses in extremely risky environments. Furthermore, it is the contention of this study that adequate training is not possible without using technology-based approaches that utilise the power of interpreting training platforms and cloud-based training labs.

VII. CONCLUSION

This cross-sectional study investigated the current interpreting programmes at Yemeni universities to determine the extent to which these programmes contribute to the enhancement of student interpreter competencies, skills, and attributes. It employed a quantitative approach through a survey composed of 16 items covering various dimensions of interpreting competence. It also investigated directionality in interpreting among two groups of trainees, one novice and the other advanced. Various statistical tests were used to analyse the scores of student interpreters in training modules. The findings of this study have shown that student interpreters at three Yemeni universities were generally not satisfied with their programmes, because they did not contribute to the enhancement of their interpreting competence via various linguistic, cultural, psycho-physiological, and other dimensions. Although some differences were found between the

scores of beginner and advanced interpreters, the performances of trainees in consecutive, simultaneous, and on-sight interpreting were unsatisfactory.

This study has its own limitations. It only investigated the interpreting programmes at Yemeni universities from the perspectives of graduate interpreters. More studies are needed to examine the attitudes of other stakeholders towards the programmes. This may include professional interpreters, trainers as well as local and international organisations that employ the graduates of these programmes. This study also examined the interpreting competence of a limited number of beginner and advanced student interpreters and thus the findings cannot be generalised. Further studies could, for instance, evaluate interpreting competence of trainees at various universities in other provinces in Yemen, and the country at large, based on student scores in final examinations. The focus of future studies could shift away from the analyses of test and exam scores towards examining the quality of translated content based on a longitudinal trainee corpus, or a parallel corpus of interpretations performed by professional and expert interpreters.

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The Effectiveness of Writing Circles Strategy in Developing Academic Writing Skills in EFL Classrooms

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Abstract—This is an experimental study aiming to explore the effect of applying ‘Writing Circles’ strategy (WCs) in writing classrooms. WCs strategy is a type of collaborative methodology that relies heavily on peer-based collaborative learning. The study aimed to give a group of not less than 20 students from the college of languages and translation, Najran University, a chance to apply writing circles to explore how it affects their progress in writing. It also aimed to explore the role of WCs in scaffolding students’ communicative performance. Both quantitative and qualitative data analyses were employed in this research. Quantitative analysis of the study data was related to students’ performance, while qualitative data concerned students’ perceptions about their experiences in writing study and WCs application. Pre- and post-tests were given to the participants in order to check their progress after the application of the strategy. This parallel data, tests and reflection sheets, led to compatible results that proved WCs’s positive contribution to writing classrooms. It has a remarkable role in reinforcing writing skills, promoting interaction, and developing students’ communicative skills. Furthermore, the data showed students enjoyed working collaboratively in WCs which reflects positive and active atmosphere for language classrooms.

Index Terms—writing circles, collaborative learning, peer-based learning, academic writing

I. INTRODUCTION

When Covid-19 developed into a pandemic, Saudi schools and universities turned to online education as an alternative modern style of education. After students returned to traditional education, writing skill was one of the most affected parts for English language learners. This experimental study was planned to help students familiarize themselves with the demanding task of writing in a foreign language. In order to enhance this idea, a strategy that depends on pair and group work was applied. Vopat (2009) described writing circles as a very good method to encourage writing. This strategy was used for the sake of improving students’ writing skills as learning occurs within social event (Vygotsky, 1978; cited in Huber et al., 2020). The study aims to:

- Develop students’ writing skills in an innovative fruitful way through WCs method.
- Explore the role of WCs in scaffolding students’ communicative performance.
- Raise students’ awareness towards their weaknesses by editing for themselves and for their peers.
- Explore students’ perceptions towards WCs strategy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing in general and academic writing in particular, has been a challenging miserable chore (Plakhtonik & Rocco, 2012). Academic writing is “written for a specific audience and attempts to put forward a well-balanced view about the topic under investigation. It constantly refers to published work (with appropriate referencing), theory and results” (White, 2000, p. 133; cited in Plakhtonik & Rocco, 2012). This means that in order to encourage students to write, teachers need enjoyable supportive methods.

Collaborative learning has become a major aim for teachers as it leaves far-reaching effects. Skehan (2003) found that by applying a task-based strategy for English language learners, progress has been noticed in various dimensions including content, fluency, accuracy, and complexity with different degrees. However, Naghdipour and Kathim (2021) investigated undergraduate EFL learners’ progress in written linguistic accuracy of grammar, spelling and punctuation by tracing and comparing second year, third- and fourth-year students’ performance in writing. Their results revealed that learners improved their spelling and punctuation, but not grammar. They found out that fourth year students outperformed their colleagues of second and third year only on surface structure errors of spelling and punctuation.

Feedback is one of the major reasons that enhance writing and some teachers, unfortunately, ignore it. Unless students know their mistakes, they do not know how to go ahead. Cameron et al. (2005) proved that corrective feedback is very influential in improving students' writing. They proved that individual written feedback has helped students' writing accuracy and when it is accompanied by oral discussion of their errors with their instructors, it has even better results. A study that has taken a different angle to encourage EFL learners to write is experimented by Abdulmajeed (2016). The researcher tried to encourage his students by giving them positive rather than negative feedback on their writing. He measured accuracy and lexical complexity before and after giving students positive feedback. His strategy resulted in some progress in students' performance. He named it positive corrective feedback.

Writing Circles (WCs henceforth) has proved its efficacy in various contexts (Vopat, 2009; Huber et al., 2020; Plakhotnik & Rocco, 2012; Roberts et al., 2017, to mention but a few examples). WCs is defined as "small groups . . . meeting regularly to share drafts, choose common writing topics, practice positive response, and in general, help each other become better writers" (Vopat, 2009, p. 6). It is designed initially to help children write, edit and publish in a set of groups.

Attempted with adults, WCs has shown great effectiveness with accounting students in improving their writing skills in a recent study by Huber et al. (2020) in which the researchers assure that various techniques have been implemented to improve writing skill for accounting students such as scaffolding, web-based learning as well as writing modules but none of these techniques has gained the success achieved by WCs. What distinguishes WCs is the collaborative nature and peer review that it depends on.

Another study that has tried WCs with adult learners is by Plakhotnik and Rocco (2012) in which the researchers have applied this strategy on graduates enrolled in a master's program in urban education. In this study, writing circles are adapted to become writing support circles 'WSCs', implying that the strategy is meant to support learners in academic writing. The researchers have not implemented the strategy themselves but assigned some instructors to do it. However, besides improvement of academic writing, a number of lessons were learnt from this experience such as the role of teachers as facilitators to explain WSCs when they assign a homework to the participants and the need for explicit instruction and well-organised design of WCS to avoid any misunderstanding or useless application of the strategy (Plakhotnik & Rocco, 2012). The researchers have proved the importance of the guidance and facilitation of the instructors to the participants.

Furthermore, the purpose of the exploratory study implemented by Roberts et al. (2017) to elementary teachers' candidates is to enhance learners' perceptions about writing and authorship. The study emphasized the positive influence of collaborative learning on teacher candidates applying WCs, showing teachers' satisfaction with the strategy in response to an investigation of their perceptions. This study achieved its goals as it was found that a majority (68%) of the candidates reported improvement in writing. This study has come out with very interesting results besides academic achievement. The researchers claim that WCs has given the participants motive to help, sustain, and motivate each other to work through the WCs writing process. Since the participants were elementary teacher candidates and have tested its efficacy, they were enthusiastic to apply this strategy with their school children (Roberts et al., 2017).

Washburn (2008) has also proved the efficacy of WCs on encouraging vibrant participation on writing, as it encourages participants to exchange and discuss ideas. Supported by feedback, participants have benefited notably from this strategy. The researcher recommends WCs for any university that is interested in encouraging its members to write for publication.

Studies to boost EFL students writing skill attempted various methods that encourage collaborative and autonomous learning. Sukerti and Yuliantini (2018) implemented a project-based learning model to assist students to learn autonomously. Their strategy helped students improve their writing accuracy. Progress was noticed in grammar as a result of continuous feedback.

To conclude, writing skill is a challenging task that needs some effort from the side of teachers to encourage and motivate students to write. Hence, further research would be beneficial to explore the methods that could be employed to improve the quality of students' writing, enhance their engagement, and encourage their autonomy in language learning classrooms.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research is an experimental study applying Vopat's Writing Circles (WCs) method with some adaptation to suit the learning context. WCs is, as mentioned above, a strategy of small groups of students who meet regularly to help each other become better writers (Vopat, 2009). Vopat applied WCs to children, however, his strategy is efficient and applicable for all ages. For the purpose of this study, slight adaptations were made to suit the students' age.

Data collection was conducted over a period of ten weeks on the first term of the academic year of 2021, for three hours per week. It included three main stages; 1) Pretest that was given primarily to the participants in order to check certain items in writing such as sentence structure, vocabulary, grammar and punctuation, 2) Application of the theory phase and finally 3) A post-test was also given at the end of the course, following some practice in the form of 'ungraded' formative tests (see figure 1). A rubric was used, and students' scores were measured to check their progress and the benefit of the method. Further explanation of the strategy application will be introduced in the following sections.

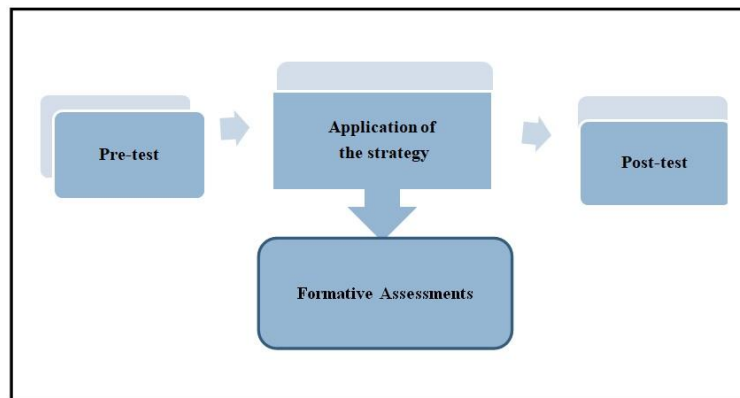


Figure 1 The Stages of The Study Data Collection

A. The Participants

WCs strategy relies heavily on peer- based collaborative learning. Thus, a group of 20 students from Najran University, faculty of Languages and Translation, were divided into 4 groups. The groups were given names to facilitate communication and to make it fun for learners. The participants were from level six to eight. These levels were chosen on the basis of the students' background on essay writing. According to the study plan, the students on level six must have covered writing courses that train them on paragraph writing to essay writing. Almost all participants are Arabic speakers. One student has a different language background, and she speaks Arabic as a foreign language.

Students registered on the course signed a consent to agree to have their writing used anonymously for scientific research and that they have to attend regularly and do all the required writing assignments.

B. Design of the Sessions

The course started by introducing the strategy to the students. The researchers introduced the course by giving a detailed plan of how they are going to help the students in this course. The assistance is by opening lectures of features of academic writing, followed by the steps suggested by Vopat (2009). Vopat suggested mini lessons at the beginning of each session, and the researchers used this part during the course either to introduce features of academic writing or to give students feedback on their writing and explain the linguistic features needed by the students.

In each session of the application of the strategy, the teacher introduced a type of essay, explained some academic aspects related to the type of the essay, then suggested some topics to write about. The groups were given freedom of choice of topics to stimulate discussion. Each group chose a topic to write about, then each student started writing about the chosen topic, sometimes group members edited for each other before handing the essay to the instructor (one of the two researchers). However, the general case was that the instructor collected essays for editing. The instructor gave feedback at the beginning of the coming session and the process went on in this way.

Feedback included in addition to ideas discussed in the essay, grammatical mistakes, vocabulary choice, spelling and punctuation problems. The same problematic areas would be the topic discussed in one of the sessions to scaffold students' performance. After explanation, students were given an exercise dealing with one of the problematic areas noticed in the previous written article.

Feedback is very important for students. Good feedback has many benefits such as helping students "close the gap between the current and desired performance" (Nicol & Dick, 2006, p. 207). Another benefit of good feedback is that it encourages positive motivation and self-esteem (ibid).

Moreover, formative assessment was done regularly to provide learners with feedback for the sake of improving the learning process. Specific writing rubric, similar to the rubrics used by writing instructors in the college, were used to assess students' writing in order to observe their progress. A reflection sheet was used, in the final stage, to examine participants' perception and interaction towards applying WCs in writing classrooms.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Regarding the overall efficiency of WCs strategy, both quantitative and qualitative data analyses were employed in this research. Quantitative analysis of the study data related to students' performance is presented firstly in this section. Then, qualitative data concerned students' perceptions about their experiences in writing study and WCs application is discussed afterwards.

A. Quantitative Analysis

For the purpose of this research, descriptive analysis of students' gain scores in each skill is presented to compare the students' scores on their attempts in essay writing in both pre and post-tests. The instructor checked the essays according to the rubric developed by the researchers. Paper marking considered content (ideas and information),

structure (organization of ideas and text), lexis (the richness and appropriateness of vocabulary) as well as the mechanisms that ensure accuracy of the language, which explicitly include grammar, spelling and punctuation.

The analysis includes scores gained in the six skills defined under the two main taxonomies recognized by the researchers “fluency-oriented” and “accuracy-oriented” tasks (see Figure 2). The skills include content, structure, spelling, grammar, punctuation, and lexis. In this section, both results of pre- and post- tests are discussed separately. Then, a comparison between the two follows.

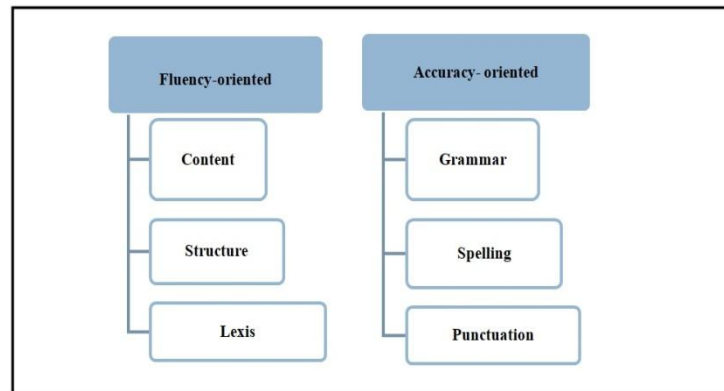


Figure 2 The Taxonomies of Skills Under Study

(a). *The Results of Pre-Test Performance*

After introducing the students to the course outlines and the strategy, they were given an individual task to write an essay about one of three assigned topics. In their first attempts that were referred to as pre-test, reluctantly, they wrote very short essays. The longest one was barely three paragraphs. They were asked to write between 200 and 300 words. The majority (85%) wrote between 150 and 200 words and some of them wrote even less. More than half (55 %) achieved scores below the medium (15). The total mark was 30, weighting 5 marks for each skill. The average of their scores in pre-test was only 16.85. The students who gained marks above the average were only 10 (50%).

The mistakes in their writing were massive and of all types. Most of the essays written by the participants did not have organized ideas and were not divided into introduction, body, and conclusion. Spelling and grammatical mistakes were frequent and common.

Additionally, mistakes resulting from mother tongue interference manifest themselves in the form of wrong use of pronouns, articles, prepositions, subject- verb agreement, word order and relative clauses. Consider the following example that works well for wrong punctuation:

- *I agree it separate the family the child and the old people may not see each other...*

Another example which also shows the effect of negative transfer of L1 on sentence structure is:

- *Online education is so helpful, with the pandemic Covid 19, when the school and university was closed, all the education be by online.*

Additional common mistake resulted from students’ lack of L2 vocabulary. Students use words that they know without paying attention to the lexical differences between words, e.g.:

- *In the last five years later happened the biggest event in Saudi Arabia. It (women driving cars) had a lot of noise (row) in middle east, ...*

These common mistakes could result from lack of crucial exposure and practice of the target language. During online experience, students had limited opportunities for language authentic experiences. Such negative effect of distance education was expected as teachers faced several problems in teaching as well as assessing students writing skills especially during pandemic period. One salient issue was plagiarism/originality of students’ writing (Dwiyanti & Suwastini, 2021). The absence of direct monitoring of the students writing caused ineffective teaching and made authentic assessment very challenging. Various issues were also identified by the educators and researchers regarding virtual learning whether before or during the pandemic including time management, technological knowledge, digital division (access to technology), students’ social skills, curriculum and material design, online assessments, and the provision of effective feedback (Gaytan & McEwen, 2007; Dung, 2020; Tamah et. al., 2020; Dwiyanti & Suwastini, 2021). Thus, more attention and further research are needed to address the increasing concerns about the quality of online education and to deal with the challenges faced by the teacher and the learner during such experience.

(b). *The Result of Post-Test Performance*

The last essay collected from the students marked a considerable change from the first one. The students at the end of the course became used to writing. They recognized the main features of the academic writing regarding formality, objectivity as well as complexity in essay writing. They showed awareness of the main components of essay writing. Their writing included more ideas and at least there is basic information about the given topic. Ideas were organized and distributed according to the parts of the essay. Lexis was enriched compared to their word choices in their first attempts.

All students achieved scores above average mark (15/out of 30). The average of their scores in this stage was 23.9. Remarkable improvement at all levels of language skills was recognized from their performance in the last attempts.

Moreover, the strategy was found to support students to learn autonomously. In this study, students self-directed their writing task, and managed writing and editing processes starting from choosing the topic, negotiating ideas, giving feedback, to revising and writing the final draft. They seemed to develop different communicative skills. They helped each other, engaged in groupwork, negotiated roles, and led themselves to accomplish their writing tasks.

Several studies such as Plakhotnik and Rocco (2012) and Huber et al. (2020) support this claim that proved the effectiveness of WCs in promoting autonomous learning. This finding is also in line with the scope of several studies on language education that call for implementing techniques that encourage autonomous learning (e.g., Ajideh, 2009; Masouleh & Jooneghani, 2012; Sukerti & Yuliantini, 2018). Such studies assert the importance of shifting the focus from the learning outcomes into the learning process and from teacher-based learning to learner-based (or teacher-less) learning to equip students with skills required in different environments.

In this attempt, participants have written better with regard to content. Further concepts were used to support their ideas e.g.:

- *There are many other reasons why there has been an increase in travelling, especially these days. One of them is business, or to explore multiculturalism and finally for medical reasons.*

However, as for students’ problematic areas with regard to grammar, spelling and punctuation, as well as vocabulary, the time of the program was not sufficient to treat individual problems. Consider the following example:

- *Having friends from different countries and interacting with people from different society will teaches you more than studying.*

Thus, students were referred to different resources such as books and websites to try to work on these problems. They were also encouraged to attend further classes and events to strengthen such weaknesses.

(c). *The Comparison of the Results (Pre- and Post- Tests)*

A general comparison of mean values for the students’ performance in writing before and after WCs strategy application showed that WCs strategy is effective in enhancing and supporting students and in raising their learning autonomy. The majority of students (75%) achieved generally better marks in their post- test at all levels of linguistic aspects under study including fluency and accuracy-oriented skills. The data revealed that students’ performance improved in the six abovementioned skills (see Figure 3).

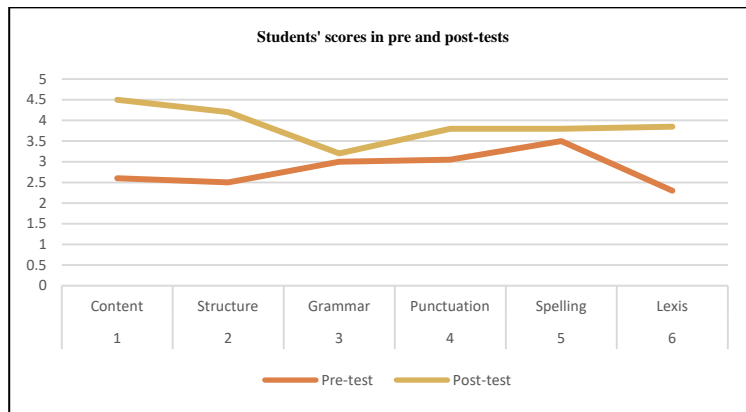


Figure 3 The Comparison of the Students’ Performance in Pre- and Post- Tests.

A paired t-test of pre- and post-test scores was used to measure the significance of difference in students scores. The data showed a statistically significant difference in the mean (students marks) before and after the intervention as $p < .05$ level; $P = 0.017$ (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
THE DATA OF STUDENTS' SCORES IN PRE AND POST-TESTS

No	Skill	Pre-test			Post-test		
		Total	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD
1	Content	52	2.6	0.59824304	90	4.5	0.6882472
2	Structure	51	2.5	0.82557795	84	4.2	0.61558701
3	Grammar	60	3	0.72547625	64	3.2	0.61558701
4	Punctuation	61	3.05	0.75915465	76	3.8	0.89442719
5	Spelling	71	3.5	0.99868334	76	3.8	0.89442719
6	Lexis	46	2.3	0.57124057	77	3.8	0.74515982

The difference was clearly manifest specifically in the performance of post-test regarding “fluency-oriented” tasks of writing that include content, structure, and lexis (see Figure 4). While the other three examined skills including grammar, punctuation, and spelling indicated similar scores in both pre and post-tests (see Figure 5).

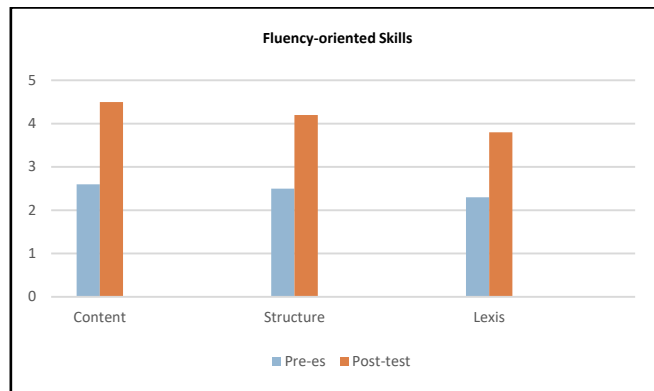


Figure 4 A Comparison of Students' Scores in Pre and Post-tests (Fluency-oriented Skills)

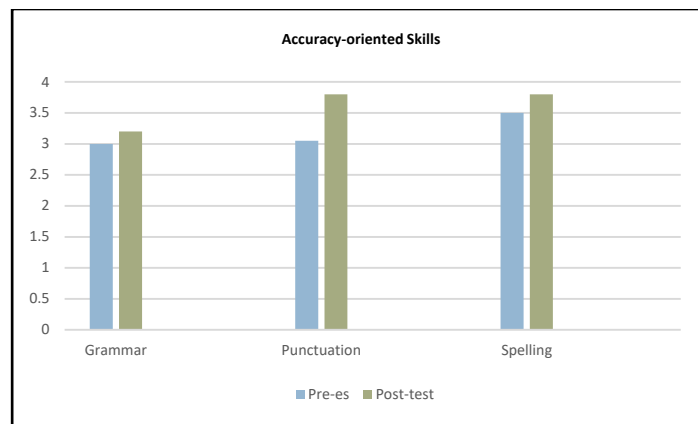


Figure 5 A Comparison of Students' Scores in Pre and Post-tests (Accuracy-oriented Skills)

The difference between pre-test and post-test in accuracy-oriented skills is not as great as in the case of fluency-oriented skills, and this was expected as fluency skills are more likely to be improved through collaborative learning activities such as WCs. Such activities positively affect communication and participation in different educational contexts (Skehan, 2003; Plakhotnik & Rocco, 2012). Additionally, this study also proved that WCs has a considerable role in building and improving social relationship during classrooms interaction. Huber et al. (2020) asserted that WCs is a strategy that enhances collaborative relationships among students during writing classrooms that considerably improved their writing skills. This finding is also supported in literature for example, Washburn (2008) found that WCs provided librarians with peer support, encouraged participation, and contributed to the creation of active and sustainable community of scholars. Moreover, as found in this study, WCs developed students' leadership in addition to collaboration skills. WCs allows the choice of writing as well as giving an important space of freedom in team management and task accomplishment as discussed in the section above regarding the role that the strategy plays in promoting students' autonomy.

However, concerning accuracy-oriented skills, some results were surprising and not expected. There was a decline in scores of some students while doing post-test. Still, only three students (15%) were found to have lower achievement in their last attempts; while they achieved higher marks in fluency-oriented skills, on the other hand, accuracy-oriented skills marked lower scores.

Though, students were expected to give more focus on fluency skills over the accuracy for the time bias. WCs was found to enhance communicative skills, as mentioned above, and thus improved fluency more than accuracy skills. This difficulty could be overcome if students' attention was constantly directed to revising and editing the accuracy aspects in their writing. Furthermore, this could be justifiable as students wrote more on the post-test. Thus, more mistakes were expected to appear in their last attempts. Hyland and Hyland (2006) stated that writing is a developmental process. The more learners practice, the better they write. Hence, accuracy is more likely to be improved on long-term intervention process and with more practice and attention given to them.

B. Qualitative Analysis

This section addresses the qualitative data of the research. It includes the data related to students' perceptions about their experiences in writing study generally and WCs application specifically. Reflection sheet was employed in this research to examine participants' perception and impression towards applying WCs in writing classrooms. Focused questions were included in the reflection sheet involving three main themes 1) The distance education experience, 2) The group work experience and 3) The WCs experience. These parts include data discussing the participants'

satisfaction about the strategy usage, the way it helps, the skills expected to be developed through strategy, and the perception about its effectiveness for other forthcoming courses and programs.

(a). *The Distance Education Experience*

Students were asked about the difficulties they faced in writing academically in English, especially during Covid-19 lockdown. They mentioned the following obstacles:

- Lack in efficient contact with the teachers since the teachers were behind the screen.
- Spelling mistakes and shaky sentence structure.
- Grammatical mistakes and shortage in vocabulary.
- Using applications to correct mistakes during online education lessened practice.
- Absence of practice of writing since most online tests were objective.
- Shortage in generating and expressing ideas.
- Weakness in organizing texts.
- Failure in using punctuation marks.

These answers showed students' awareness about problems that might have resulted from distance education regarding weaknesses that appeared in their abilities to write. Such attempts to diagnose the areas of problems are useful in raising students' consciousness and promoting their independence regarding learning process. These could be recognized from their responses about the role of WCs implementation in enhancing their writing skills which will be discussed in the following sections.

(b). *The Group Work Experience*

Students were also asked about the group work experiences during WCs implementation. Almost all the participants (95%) replied positively to whether they liked group work. Their answers were supported by a reason that group work helped them collaborate with each other.

According to their responses, they enjoyed it as it helped them share new words, gather, and organize ideas for the topic under discussion because they practiced "brainstorming", it improved the ability to accept criticism, correcting mistakes and asking for guidance from the teacher, and it improved writing skill by taking knowledge from others and detecting mistakes. Some of their comments that include some reasons are shown here:

- *"Group work helps exchange ideas and encourages us to accept others' views"*
- *"It generates ideas, gives new information,"*
- *"We felt more confident, not scared of making mistakes"*

One interesting comment was a description given by one girl who felt that sharing ideas among the group members is extremely helpful:

- *"It is inspiring, increases interaction, simplifies complicated ideas and develops respect for different views"*

Other comments are:

- *"One of the most interesting courses I've ever attended ... I managed to give my opinion when they consult me".*
- *"We learned from each other, we corrected each other's mistakes, there was a spirit of cooperation, and the instructor was there to help us and guide us"*

Such comments draw our attention, as instructors, to the importance of group work, editing and directing students.

However, the only participant who responded negatively to the question 'did you like group work in this writing course?', added to her "No" that *"it interrupts my thoughts"*. Still, she found it useful in taking the help of group members in sharing ideas and in finding the right term.

Still, some difficulties were recognized and added by the students regarding practicing group work through WCs strategy. As this strategy gives the participants choice of a topic for the whole group from the list given, some participants said that they faced difficulty in convincing other members with their opinions. They complained that some are not cooperative while others are dependent on others. Other participants commented that trying to come to an agreement, wasted some precious time while a few said the difficulties they faced resulted from their own weak competence in writing. However, this finding is asserting the role of WCs in developing students' communicative and social skills such as negotiation, persuasion and leadership (see section IV A-c). By focusing on the learning process, the students develop various skills needed for negotiation such as self- confidence, self-direction and problem- solving skills (Sukerti & Yuliantini, 2018).

(c). *The WCs Experience*

In the participants' responses to the question: 'have you noticed any progress in your writing after practicing writing with this strategy?', 100% replied with affirmation even if some of them think that this progress is slight.

As previously mentioned, this course started immediately after students returned from online education. There were difficulties encountered by the participants after distance education experience, and thus in their response to whether this course in which WCs strategy is used has helped them solve these problems or at least some of these problems; all of them (the 20 participants) answered positively, but not all of them agreed that all the problems were solved. They gave different answers summarized as follows:

- *“It helped me practice more, find out my mistakes, learn some grammatical rules as well as rules for using punctuation marks.”*
- *“I became more fluent in writing.”*
- *“I think I expressed ideas more creatively as we started to brainstorm and discuss topics openly.”*
- *“I found out that peer advice was valuable as we reminded each other of the rules that we studied but we did not apply before.” “We learnt from each other.” We even discovered that some peers have useful ideas that opened our minds to better expression.”*
- *“Our vocabulary increased.”*
- *“We were less scared of making mistakes.”*
- *“We continued and will continue to practice and learn.”*
- *“Spelling mistakes became less.”*
- *“Thinking skill became faster.”*
- *“We enjoyed learning in this way.”*

Additionally, to allow further information, the reflection sheet included a question about the linguistic and interactional skills that WCs strategy helped them to develop. They were asked if it helped them in the following skills:

- a) Enriching content and expressing ideas
- b) Writing correct grammatical sentences
- c) Using punctuation marks properly
- d) Increasing vocabulary
- e) Improving interaction skills
- f) Any other skill.

Although the purpose of the feedback gained from the reflection sheets was not to measure the performance of the students, their answers were useful to measure the efficacy of the WCs strategy. Their responses supported the results gained from quantitative data regarding the improvement that could be achieved with the intervention (see table 2 below).

TABLE 2
STUDENTS’ RESPONSES ABOUT THE SKILLS DEVELOPED THROUGH WCS

Response	Skill														
	Content			Grammar			Punctuation			Vocabulary			Interaction		
Perc. %	Yes	Partly Yes	No	Yes	Partly Yes	No	Yes	Partly Yes	No	Yes	Partly Yes	No	Yes	Partly Yes	No
	85	5	10	60	25	15	80	5	15	90	-	10	75	15	10

As can be seen in the table above, for the skills that WCs course helped the students improve in, their answers in the reflection sheet ranged from ‘yes’, ‘partially yes’ to ‘No’. In some cases, their answers might contradict with the recognized progress in the post test. However, the majority (85% - 60% - 80% - 90% - 75% for the skills respectively; see the table) asserted positive effect of using WCs strategy during writing course. Students reported they benefited from the teacher’s feedback, and they detailed their answer in a way that reveals how they had spotted their mistakes. One girl said *“Now I know very well when to use capital letters”*, another said: *“Now I can write an essay even though it can be full of mistakes”*, a third commented by saying *“I got more ideas and I got help when I needed it”*. Comments as such proved that students were able to realize their mistakes after the course and they were satisfied with what they had achieved from the course.

In the first point that is whether WCs strategy has helped them in writing a richer content and whether their ideas became more organized, their reaction was positive for 85% of them. Only 5%, that is one student, said *“somehow”*, one student answered negatively, and one student left it blank which could be taken as negative response or ‘not sure’.

The second skill is writing sentences accurately with regard to grammatical structure. More than half (60%) answered positively that the strategy helped them fix their grammatical errors and sentence structure, 25% said that the progress is very little, and 15% answered negatively.

Punctuation mark was noticed as a real problem in the students’ writing. The majority (80%) of the answers were positive, 15% answered negatively while only one student (5%) was not sure whether she improved this skill.

As for their response in the reflection sheet about their progress in vocabulary, the majority reported positive answers as 90% answered ‘Yes’, while only 10% said ‘to some extent’.

Since one of the major aims of the course was to encourage students’ interaction after ‘individual’ online education, students were asked about the role that WCs played in promoting interaction during writing classes. The reaction was positive for the majority (75%), while 15% said only to some extent, and 5% answered negatively whilst 5% left it blank which could be considered negative.

Additionally, the students were asked if they have had developed other skills other than the abovementioned, their answers ranged from ‘No’ for 65% of them to ‘Yes’ for the remaining number (35%) who thought that they developed the following skills during the course:

- Self-reliance
- Working with teams

- Free writing: not restrained by marks (The student here means the instructors told them to feel relaxed as there are no marks related to their graduation).
- Discussion skills
- Brainstorm ideas and use of creative ideas in writing
- Clear expression and better thinking
- Various writing styles

Finally, to ensure that they enjoyed learning using WCs strategy, they were asked if they want this strategy applied in other courses and why. The majority (85%) asserted their positive attitudes toward strategy application. For the second part of the question, however, the students mentioned abundant reasons for their positive responses that are similar and aligned with previous findings, including:

- *“Working in a team and working outside the curriculum will improve our cognition”*
- *“To increase vocabulary, organize ideas, and improve writing skills”*
- *“To clarify unfamiliar sentences, and ideas and to improve communication skills”*
- *“It helps improve learning quality, expressive and interactional skills”*

Only 10%, that is two students, said ‘no’ regarding the application of WCs in other courses, and one student left it blank. They mentioned reasons related to group work difficulties such as the group agreement on a topic or the ideas. These students could be described as introvert students as they showed a tendency to quiet and individual work that may be related to their personal attributes.

The last question was if the participants wish to apply this strategy if they became teachers, or if they are given a chance to teach. Similarly, almost all (95%) answered positively and the one who was not interested in group work avoided a negative answer by elaborating the answer and explaining that she will encourage regular writing and she will give feedback to her students and will discuss their mistakes with them.

To sum up, from the findings mentioned in the reflection sections, WCs strategy has a significant role in training students to employ and develop various communicative skills needed for the group work generally and for collaborative learning particularly including negotiating, convincing, and management skills. Additionally, students’ performance is expected to be enhanced as different academic skills related to accuracy skills were found to be improved. Students responded positively to the role of WCs in developing their writing skills including enriching content and vocabulary, organizing structure, and developing spelling, grammar, and punctuation. These findings go in line with the quantitative data (post-test results) that emphasized effective role of the strategy in developing both fluency and accuracy skills.

However, some neutral and negative comments were reported. Though, comparing these comments to the results gained from quantitative data, showed some contrast as all students gained better marks and showed progress in their ideas and skills after the intervention.

V. CONCLUSION

This parallel data, tests and reflection sheet, led to compatible results that proved WCs’s positive contribution to writing classrooms. It has a remarkable role in scaffolding writing learning, reinforcing writing skills, promoting interaction, and developing students’ communicative skills.

With reference to the data collected and analyzed, the strategy has achieved its goals by helping students not only practice writing, but also improved their writing in an interesting and active way. One of the cornerstones of this strategy is editing and scaffolding. The study revealed WCs is an effective strategy that encouraged students to exchange and to discuss ideas. The participants appreciated the idea of having their writing assessed, their progress encouraged, and their errors explained and corrected.

The strategy may not have apparently fixed accuracy defaults as they need a longer time, but it has drawn attention to them. Participants were satisfied with what they have achieved according to their response in the reflection sheet. They became more aware about their weaknesses and the skills needed to be developed and scaffolded. The strategy has helped students improve the way they generate ideas, organize them and brainstorm for relevant vocabulary. As for fluency, the strategy helped enhance communicative skills needed for the group work in general and for collaborative learning such as negotiation, persuasion, and leadership skills. Furthermore, the data showed students enjoyed working collaboratively in writing circles which reflects positive and active atmosphere for language classrooms.

VI. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

As the study proved the effective role of WCs in writing classrooms, it is a worthwhile experience to be implemented in EFL classrooms. Several points could be considered in this sense:

- WCs could be more valuable and efficient in developing fluency than accuracy- oriented skills considering the following two predictable reasons:
 1. The nature of the strategy in reinforcing communicative skills.
 2. The nature of accuracy skills and students’ low competence that confirm the need for longer time and intensive work to deal with such issues.

- Though, WCs could significantly contribute to accuracy skills in terms of recognition and identification of weakness points for the learners.
- WCs could be an effective strategy used for follow-up and feedback from both peers and instructors.
- Further research is needed to examine the way the strategy could be used to improve the quality of writing produced and to enhance students' engagement in classroom learning considering their individual differences.

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The Ambivalent Depictions of Arabs in Naomi Shihab Nye's *Habibi* and Diana Abu-Jaber's *Crescent*

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Abstract—The study aims to identify how Arab-American authors Naomi Shihab Nye and Diana Abu-Jaber depict Arabs in their novels, *Habibi* and *Crescent*. Additionally, the study attempts to compare and contrast between the two writers' depictions of Arabs in their novels. To achieve the objectives of the study, the theory of Post-colonialism is used; more specifically, Edward Said's views from his book *Orientalism* are applied to both novels. The study concludes by showing how both Nye and Abu-Jaber depict Arab characters in an ambivalent way within their works, *Habibi* and *Crescent*, respectively, in that they sometimes present Arabs in a positive light and other times in a negative light. The study also concludes with a set of concepts that include lack of identity, hybridity, and multiculturalism that have affected Arab-Americans and influenced their cultural values. These representations are also considered ambivalent.

Index Terms—Diana Abu-Jaber, Naomi Shihab Nye, ambivalent, representation, Arabs

I. INTRODUCTION

Arab writers living in diaspora often depict Arabs in different ways. For example, Arab writers, such as Leila Aboulela and Mohja Kahf, portray Arabs in a positive way by trying to negate the stereotypical images about Arabs. Conversely, other Arab writers living in diaspora like Fadia Faqir and Ahdaf Soueif characterize Arabs in a negative way which may lead to the promotion of well-known stereotypes of Arabs. Perhaps some Arab writers portray Arabs in a negative light to attract the attention of Western readers and gain popularity among them. At the same time, however, other Arab writers may be using these negative portrayals of their Arab brothers and sisters simply as a way to reflect Arab issues in their writings.

Whatever the case may be, the misrepresentation of Arabs has been an ongoing issue throughout history, and it has only increased in the aftermath of 9/11. It was then that, not only in the West, but throughout the world, people started becoming convinced that the stereotypes that they heard about the Arabs were true. Harb (2012) declares that the attacks on 9/11 are considered to be "a turning point" in the way that Americans and the West view Arabs (p. 14). In his book *Orientalism* (1978), Said discusses the well-known stereotypes about Arabs and how they were first created by the West. He argues that the East (a term also created by the West) only exists in the West's ideology. Said (1978) defines "Orientalism" as "a style of thought based upon an ontological and epistemological distinction made between "the Orient" and (most of the time) "the Occident" (p. 10). According to Said, the West views the East as inferior, irrational, exotic, and backward. On the other hand, they perceive themselves as rational, civilized, and strong. After the events of 9/11, the East (and especially Arabs) began to become synonymous with terrorism and violence (Gana, 2008).

Moreover, Said (1978) questioned and challenged oriental studies; he criticized political and cultural imperialism, claiming that Western Orientalists - authors and scholars who research the "Orient" or "the East" - have misrepresented (and continue to misrepresent) the Orient in such a way that only propagates the West's domination over the East. However, Said's claims of Orientalism have served to motivate many researchers to think more critically about how they picture other cultures and how they unwittingly disseminate complex geopolitical messages in their works (Mather, 2020). Bayani (2020) states that, on one hand, Orientalism refers to the analysis of the East by the West, and on the other hand, she declares that it remains the most powerful method for the West to achieve its own consciousness. Ahmad (2011) adds that, according to Said, Western Orientalists built the universe out of two conflicting elements: "Ours" (the West) and "Theirs" (the East).

Harb (2012) declares that these stereotypical images were a crucial reason that motivated diasporic Arab writers to make their voices heard by presenting their perspectives and defending themselves against Arab stereotypes. As a result, these Arab writers living in diaspora started presenting Arabs in a more favorable light. Nonetheless, these Arab stereotypes are still propagated by other diasporic Arab writers who depict Arabs in an unfavorable way in their works.

Then there are also other diasporic Arab writers whose characterization of Arabs could only be described as ambivalent. Such is the case with the two diasporic Arab-American writers Nye and Abu-Jaber. Thus, this study aims to prove that both of these writers depict Arabs in an ambivalent way in their works (*Habibi*, 1997; *Crescent*, 2003). According to Gamez (2010), Nye and Abu-Jaber are considered to be two iconic Arab-American writers.

Rothman et al. (2017) claim that the nature of ambivalence has been the subject of discussions among scholars and critics since the times of Plato and Aristotle. They define ambivalence as “the simultaneous experience of positive and negative emotional or cognitive orientations toward a person, situation, object, task, goal, or idea, and the feelings of tension and conflict that result... (and) may even be more the norm than the exception in organizations” (p. 33). Eidsvik (2016) declares that ambivalence is a concept that describes a persistent oscillation between wanting one thing and wanting something totally different. It may also refer to a simultaneous attraction to and repulsion from an object, individual, or actions.

Both Nye and Abu-Jaber belong to hybrid cultures. Allani (2017) states that the concept of hybridity refers to an individual trapped between two different objects or two different cultures. This entrapment leads him/her to acquire a double vision or double consciousness according to the culture or environment which he/she lives in which, in the end, leads to a merged or even a lost identity. Likewise, an individual from a specific country and culture has unique customs, languages, religions, and other characteristics that distinguish them as members of that culture and ultimately distinguish them from other cultures. As a consequence, when an individual leaves his or her home country and moves to another, he/she experiences a variety of emotions (Zohdi, 2017). This leads them to a place that Bhabha (1994) calls a “third space” which is a place where one has “a sense of home” and is “a space to which they belong” (p. 23). Any mixing between Eastern and Western culture is referred to as hybridity. It generally applies to colonial subjects from Asia or Africa who have sought a balance between Eastern and Western cultural attributes in colonial and postcolonial literature (Singh, 2009). Bhabha’s (1994) theory of developed hybridity describes “the construction of culture and identity within conditions of colonial antagonism and inequity” (p. 30).

Based on Bhabha’s third space, Yousef (2019) states that Nye creates a place, where she can combine both her American bringing and her Arab origins in her created “third place” to be able to comprehend the Arab world (p. 31). AlKhadra (2013) explains that, as hybridity, biculturalism is a source of blessing, and it is not confusing. Further, there is widespread agreement that hybridity originated from ideologies as a result of culturally internalized relations between colonizers and the colonized (Brady, 1994).

Nye (1997) was born in 1952 in St. Louis, Missouri. Her father was a Palestinian refugee and her mother was an American of German and Swiss descent. As a result, Nye spent her adolescence between Jerusalem and San Antonio, Texas (Marchi, 2019). Most of Nye’s work has been inspired by her encounters with cultural disparity and various cultures (Karim, 2002).

Abu-Jaber was born in Syracuse, New York, in 1960 to a Jordanian father and an American mother. At the age of 7, she moved with her family to Jordan where they lived for two years. She has since split her time between Jordan and America. Set in upstate New York where she grew up, Abu-Jaber’s *Crescent* is a lighthearted look at a first-generation Arab-American family navigating the pressures and desires of the typical extended family network (Elia et al., 2007).

The stereotyping of Arabs is one of the issues that sway public opinion in Western societies nowadays. Unfortunately, the distorted images of Arabs produced by these stereotypes have also lent themselves to the foreign media which seems to only further transmit the negative ideas about Arabs and Arab culture that are, more often than not, far from reality. Nonetheless, the fact remains that articles presenting Arabs in a negative light do exist, the result of Western ignorance of the Arab reality. The best way to improve this image is for Arabs to challenge the stereotypes about Arabs that the West has propagated and start to present Arabs in their true light.

The current study shows that, as Arab-American writers living in diaspora, both Nye and Abu-Jaber depict Arabs in an ambivalent way. That is, they both present a favorable image of Arabs in their respective works *Habibi* and *Crescent*, but at the same time they also present an unfavorable image of Arabs in these same novels. Many studies into the two authors and their aforementioned novels have been conducted in the past. Moreover, most of these studies have concentrated on universal motifs such as love, family, war, and peace, adjusting to change, ethnicity and identity in relation to Arab culture. As a result, the contribution and significance of the current study lies in the fact that that not many studies have been conducted on how the two Arab-American writers Nye and Abu-Jaber depict Arabs in their respective novels, *Habibi* and *Crescent* in such an ambivalent way. Additionally, up to the researcher’s knowledge, most of the studies that have been conducted tackle each writer individually, while the current study tackles both writers together.

Shaheen (2003) focuses on how the negative portrayal of Arabs in the media reflects their life experiences. Other critics have pointed out the complexity of the writing that Arab-American writers created in their works. Additionally, the media should open the door to completely new modes of activism to get the real picture of Arab and Muslim communities (Gershoni, 1997). Moreover, “Arabness” is frequently associated with backwardness, fanaticism, incompetence, and external antagonism against the Western world and its lauded humanistic and enlightened values of democracy, freedom, and economic and social openness in current political debate (Levanon, 2021).

II. METHODOLOGY

The researcher uses the theory of postcolonialism in reading Nye's *Habibi* and Abu-Jaber's *Crescent*. Further, the researcher specifically relied on Said's views on Orientalism and his discussions on the stereotypes of the Orient/East.

III. ANALYSIS

A. *The Ambivalent Representation of Arabs in Nye's Habibi*

In her novel *Habibi*, Nye depicts the Arabs in an ambivalent way in that her depictions are sometimes positive while, at other times, they are negative. Starting with the positive representations, Nye represents Dr. Kamal as an open-minded educated Arab. This is evidenced in his way of dealing with his kids and his wife. He is very interested in their lives, always asking them questions and listening to their opinions. For example, "Poppy" (as his kids call him) asks his kids and wife about their return to Jerusalem and how they felt about it (Nye, 1997, p. 9). It is also here that Nye tries to show how Arabs remain attached to their home countries even while living abroad. This is a great example of how Nye positively depicts the good nature of Arabs and how their hearts still long for their home countries. At the same time, Nye also tries to focus on the idea of the homesickness of Arabs and their attachment to their Arab identity. She reflects an image of homesickness that lies within her and embodies it in the father's character. The father's smile carries a lot of longing for home; however, a certain sense of nationalism lies in the heart of every human being. Along these lines, Thurber (1999) mentions that homesickness is accompanied by acute longing and intrusive thoughts about home and attachment objects.

In the same paragraph, Nye (1997) also depicts the good side of another Arab father. She describes Liyana's father as a handsome man who, according to Liyana's friends and colleagues, looks like a movie star. He is a very open-minded man and a parent who can speak calmly to his children about any matter. For instance, when Liyana wonders aloud why kissing is not allowed, her father explains that each culture has its own unique traditions (p. 9).

From the previous examples, one can see that the characterization of Poppy is in direct contradiction to the stereotypes that Westerners have about Arab fathers. Salaita (2011) notices this as well and discusses how Nye tries to reflect how both the Arab husband and the relationships among members of Arab families have changed. Ajami et al. (2015) comment on this by saying that the relationships between Arab American fathers' and their children are thought of as strong. In other words, Arab American fathers are strongly attached to their children. Nye shows this contradiction among the Westerners themselves throughout the novel. In one scene Liyana is told by her girlfriends that Jerusalem is full of "pretty guys" who they see on TV (Nye, 1997, p. 21). This image of Arabs, which resembles how Poppy is described as handsome, contradicts the way Arabs are described by Liyana's teacher, Mr. Hathaway. He asks her why people in Jerusalem have such great difficulty being civilized (Nye, 1997). According to Gana (2008), Arabs are known in the West as backward and uncivilized.

The second example shows how the relationship between the Arab father and his daughter is based on discussions and debates rather than the stereotypical Arab father-daughter relationships of control and domination propagated among the people of the West. Moghissi (2010) states that Arab fathers no longer have complete control to manipulate their children. This same point is made where Nye (1997) is presenting an open-minded Arab father. It is easily noted that Liyana's father is depicted as open-minded and mature in all situations and attitudes. He advises his daughter that she must be patient since cultural differences are not simply and quickly understood. He adores his family and especially his children whom he refers to as "precious." He also expresses his delight at being with them all the time. This also negates the stereotypes of Arabs husbands who are said to be neglectful of their houses, wives and children (Moghissi, 2010).

While she may paint these Arabs in a positive light, Nye often contradicts that by painting them in a negative light as well. Kutrieh (2007) discusses these contradictions of Nye's in her portrayal of Arab men. For example, Nye shows different characterizations of Abboud, Liyana's Arab father. Abboud is a doctor and is written as intelligent Arab, yet Nye also presents him as a patriarchal, dominant and backwards Arab when dealing with his wife and mother. He attempts to "silence his mother to no avail" (p. 5). Likewise, Awajan et al. (2019) discuss how Nye represents Dr. Abboud in *Habibi* as a loving father to his two children. He is shown in the novel to be an open-minded Arab who sits with his children and gives them a chance to ask questions and present their opinions.

Nye's ambivalent representation of Arabs in *Habibi* is also mentioned by Yousef (2005). Yousef discusses how Dr. Abboud, is represented as a Palestinian who flees his home country after the 1948 Arab-Israeli war. On the contrary, Nye's also portrays Dr. Abboud as an intelligent and successful Arab doctor in the United States who decides to go back to his home country and practice medicine there. This exemplified by the following:

"Only recently he [Liyana's father] grew hopeful about Jerusalem and his country again. While Abboud asserts he is a Palestinian coming back to his country, the Israeli soldiers consider him as an alien who should be checked and searched before letting him in. Indeed, the whole Abboud family is subjected to a humiliating treatment at the airport as are all their relatives who have come to see them" (pp. 34-36).

In above quotation Yousef shows how Nye depicts Abboud as both an Arab returning to his beloved homeland and viewed as an alien in his own land by the Israeli.

Liyana is not completely surprised when her parents first announce the move back to her father's homeland. She expected that this would happen sometime in her lifetime, and now it is time to leave. Liyana's father tries to persuade

his children into believing in the importance of knowing their history - Arab history. As a result, what Nye is presenting here is the importance of a person knowing his/her own history and the history of his/her homeland as well (Nye, 1994).

One of the most important ideas that Nye positively depicts in her novel is the suffering of Arab immigrants in the West. According to the author herself, her beliefs regarding immigration are a form of communication with the world in which she wants to explain how immigrants struggle. Furthermore, she is interested in the reader on the opposite side of her work. She sees her novel as a means of connecting with the bigger picture and that it is her responsibility as a diasporic Arab-American writer to bring readers closer to true picture of Arabs, presenting them as they really are and not according to the stereotypes that Westerners have created in their minds (Nye, 1997). While doing so, Nye here focuses on the word “immigrant”. She highlights human identity, and here, the Arab identity specifically. Alexandersen (2019) proves that Nye has the ability to promote intercultural competence by allowing students to identify with and imitate the novel’s main protagonist.

In the same context, Pourjafari and Vahidpour (2014) state that this is related to Bhabha’s concept of “hybridity” which emphasizes the fact that, in today’s world, the migrant is valued not for his/her adherence to pre-determined ethnic morals and cultural traditions, but for his/her ability to adapt to new situations. In other words, “The ability of tradition to be described through the conditions of contingency and contradictoriness that attend the lives of individuals who are in the minority” (Bhabha, 1949, p. 2).

From the previous examples, it is clear how Nye represents Arabs and Arabness in a positive way; however, Nye also seems to want it both ways by also depicting Arabs and Arabness in a negative way. One example of this can be seen in her depiction of how Arab people have to dress. Poppy frightens his daughter when they are moving back to Arab world by telling her that, once they arrive in Palestine, she can no longer dress anyway she wants. This scares her because she now feels that she is not able to be the person she is nor can she do the things she is used to doing (Nye, 1997). It is clear that Poppy is telling his daughter that, although Americans have no problem wearing shorts, Arabs do not find it acceptable.

However, maybe Nye wrote these lines for another reason, too, for in mentioning the fact that Arabs find it unacceptable to wear shorts, she is referring back to her own Palestinian roots. After all, her novel does employ visuals of an Arab environment to convey a greater argument about variety and shared humanity. “No one wears shorts over there” is simply Poppy’s (and, in turn, Nye’s) way of presenting a respectful attitude towards Arab life and customs. Besides, Nye is always attempting to cross boundaries and connect individuals from these two disparate countries in order to bring them closer together as a result. Yousef (2019) declares that despite the fact that Nye tries to represent an image of Arabs away from the well-known stereotypes that still remain about them, she does not really detach her Arab origins as a Palestinian from her American upbringing. That is, Nye represents both her Palestinian origins and her American upbringing in equal measure in her works. Yousef (2019) continues by stating that Nye considers representing Arabs her responsibility, and that includes those Arabs that blow up buildings. In doing so, she must not only present the good, everyday, average Arabs, but also those Arabs that blow up buildings because, after all, they are Arabs, too. Indeed, this is where the ambivalence in her work becomes most noticeable.

Based on what Yousef (2019) states, Nye concentrates on the idea of Liyana having a new life full of conflicts between her two cultures, marking her own identity. Liyana is depicted as being afraid of facing this new life full of difficulties, especially when it comes to culture, society and people. It is totally different from her past. It is here that Nye tries to convey a realistic view of the mixed feelings of giving up one’s home and culture for another, the little things to which one says goodbye to, where even the seemingly insignificant things will be missed. By depicting Poppy’s view of Palestine as something Liyana should be fearful of is part of the negativity of Nye’s ambivalence in writing about Arabs and the Arab world (Nye, 1997).

Nye’s characterization of Liyana’s father in the previous example is in direct contradiction with the way she first portrays him. When she first introduces Poppy, he is open-minded, patient, and understanding towards his daughter; however, in the second example, he is shown as the more stereotypical Arab father – tough, stern, and controlling. As a result, Liyana becomes full of fear and hatred for her new country. Liyana also begins to notice the national and racial barriers that surround her. She becomes afraid of losing her identity (identity diffusion); as a result, she begins to feel empty and lost in addition to being stuck in between two opposing countries, their cultures, their ideas and their way of thinking.

Moreover, the reader may surmise that Liyana has a bad idea about the Arab world which may reflect Nye’s own opinion. This resembles the Western consciousness about Arabs. The West considers Arabs to be illiterate, uncivilized and savage. This can be seen when Liyana mentions “wild characters”. Likewise, when Liyana mentions “the half-breeds”, this exemplifies how Nye concentrates hybridity the most common concept of Postcolonialism (Nye, 1997, p. 21). This is because Liyana and her brother think of themselves as Arab-Americans and have difficulties establishing their true identity in much the same way her father finds it difficult to explain to his Arab relatives that he is half Arab and half American. This feeling of being lost in a hybrid identity is yet another major way Nye typifies Arabs in a negative way. Commenting on this point, Erikson (1994) states that immigration is not only about changing countries or regions, but it is also about having two identities, something which becomes hard to accept, particularly among adolescents. Immigrants endure competing social settings as they try to integrate “here” and “there” into a meaningful sense of self throughout the construction of their identity. As a result, identity construction among immigrants,

particularly among those in their teens - the time in which all people's identities are formed - is a continual process in which both the host country and the country of origin play a considerable role.

Then Nye moves to show how Liyana is disappointed about moving to Palestine from the very minute they arrive. The reader sees and observes everything from the eyes of Liyana, feeling her anxiety and curiosity. The reader also sees how disappointed she is; she thought Palestine was different from its reality. By having both Liyana and her mother show and express their disappointment in what they find, Nye delivers a negative message to the reader about the Arab country they have arrived in (Nye, 1997, p. 41).

Nye presents critically depicts how the West used to see the Arab world, which is very different from reality. She also has her own notions about Palestine based on her father's talks about his country, and these ideas become apparent during her first visit to Palestine. To the reader, it is obvious when reading the dialogue between Liyana and her mother. In a similar vein, Nye utilizes the character Liyana to illustrate the problem of multiculturalism that the main character faces after returning to her hometown. This struggle is also evident in the character of her father Poppy, who believes that if he returns to his homeland, he would no longer feel lonesome. Liyana found she and her father are not all that different in their multicultural sentiments.

Conversely, in other scenarios throughout *Habibi*, Nye attempts to show how the well-known Arab stereotypes, and especially those of the Palestinians, are not the true pictures of Palestinians as who they really are – a people trying to defend their country and their people. Nye tries to highlight both how Palestinians live in their own country, and how some of them living in diaspora are not even allowed to enter it. She mentions how Palestinians suffer with borders that are shaped by cultural, economic, and political ideologies. This resembles what Mercer and Strom (2007), Knopf-Newman (2006) and Al-Masri (2001) state.

Nevertheless, there is another example where Nye tries to represent Arabs in a positive way and opposes the West's well-known stereotypes about them. It is when the Jews, thinking that Liyana is an American, advise her not to buy from Arabs, but instead tell her to travel to the city's Jewish border. This kind of an act exemplifies the Arab-Israeli conflict and the tremendous suffering endured by Palestinians in both their bordered and bounded homeland and around the world. These boundaries divide people, resulting in increased hostility, intense political tension, and a significant cultural division between opposing factions of the population. Furthermore, there are several allusions to Israeli raids on Palestinian homes, including the searching, seizing and bombing of Palestinian homes. There are also hints to the Israeli demolition of entire villages and erasure of existing borders within Palestine to make way for Jewish settlers. In such settings, Nye tries to highlight the suffering of the Palestinians in their homeland and that what is negatively known about them as resistant people and terrorists is only a result of them defending themselves, and their lands and families from the Israelis. In this way, Nye presents Arabs positively, while in other scenes she depicts them in a negative way.

For example, Nye portrays Poppy as an Arab who is against religion and mocks those that are religious and in doing so, she conveys a bad idea about how Arabs think and what they believe in. According to Poppy's character, for example, she states that it is not acceptable to abuse other religions. Religious tolerance is an idea that suggests that human beings respect all religions and ideology, whether it suits us or not. Nevertheless, it means acceptance by all people of all religions and cultures.

Additionally, when Nye mentions what Poppy answers Liyana about the relationship between Palestinians and Israelis, Liyana asks, "Do you think the Arabs and Jews secretly love one another?" "I think," Poppy said, "they are bonded for life. Whether they like it or not. Like that kind of glue that won't let go" (Nye, 1997, p. 55). Here, Nye wants to send a subliminal message to readers that Arabs have to accept the Jews; in fact, she is blaming them for not accepting the Jews. To go even further, she is trying to blame the conflicts between the Palestinians and the Jews on Arabs.

On the other hand, the same scene could, however, be positively understood in two ways. The first shows the hopelessness or disappointment in Poppy's character when he says they are bonded for life, whether they like it or not. Poppy shows that he is losing hope of ever getting rid of the occupation, which may have also led him to accept the fact that Jews are living in occupied Palestinian territories. This also may be understood in a way that Nye (1997) is reflecting her hope of peace, something that is also seen in the relationship she creates between Liyana and Omer, a Jew. This is noted by Nye in the novel where she writes, "Everybody then was praying for peace in Jerusalem" (p. 30). AlKhadra states that Nye even chooses a Jew to be Liyana's beloved because of her hope for peace not because of peace itself, but because of the consequences of peace and its effect on the Palestinians specifically (p. 180).

Mercer and Strom (2007) show the food-related imagery and themes that are used by Nye to represent the Arab family, political conflicts and issues, and culture. Through all this, they try to introduce Middle Eastern ingredients to the Western reader. Knopf-Newman (2006) also shows how Nye reveals some of her own life in *Habibi*. She depicts the Arab culture, and specifically the Palestinian culture. Finally, Al-Masri (2001) also states that Nye reflects the Arab culture and politics and the issues related to them in her literary works.

B. Abu-Jaber's Depictions of Arabs in *Crescent*

Like Naomi Shihab Nye's *Habibi* (1997), Diana Abu-Jaber's *Crescent* (2003) is full of ambivalent depictions of Arabs, where Abu-Jaber sometimes paints them at times in a positive light and at other times in a negative light. Thus, Abu-Jaber highlights several ideas concerning Arab-American identity while presenting Arabs in her aforementioned novel.

First, Abu-Jaber emphasizes a significant positive depiction of Arabs to the reader about how Arab immigrants suffer in the West. Sirine, the novel's protagonist, is an Arab female who lives in the West with her uncle after her parents die. Abu-Jaber sums up Sirine's feelings in the following:

"And sometimes when she is awake in the center of the night, the night cool and succulent as heart of palm or a little chicken kabob, Sirine senses these feelings rushing in her own blood. But she was also born with an abiding sense of patience, an ability to live deeply and purely inside her own body, to stop thinking, to work, and to simply exist inside the simplest actions, like chopping an onion or stirring a pot" (Abu-Jaber, p. 21).

From the quote above, the reader can sense that, when Sirine feels the cool of the night, it represents her loneliness. Furthermore, if we look at it from a different perspective, we will discover that she likes her job as a chef because it allows her to just dwell on the simplest acts such as slicing an onion or stirring a pot. This might be seen as the explanation for her desire to work as a cook at Nadia's Café in order to create a friendly atmosphere. Being a chef in an Arab café and cooking Arab food enables her to feel at home. This is a positive representation of Arabs by Abu-Jaber that shows how Arabs are attached to their original identity although living in the West.

However, Farid (2018) confirmed Abu-Jaber's reply when asked if she feels responsible for the Arab-American community, Abu-Jaber said that creating authentic characters, rather than portraying Arab culture in the United States, is her first priority: "It is more about art than it is about cultural responsibility" (p. 211). Thus, it may be claimed that Abu-Jaber did take on some type of cultural burden, even if it was not what was expected of her. It is rather the burden of holding up a mirror to a culture that is misunderstood in the sense that its many layers and multiple paradoxes are difficult to comprehend, not just for foreigners, but also for Arabs who prefer to take a unilateral approach that incorporates "we" and "them." Nevertheless, that is why it is clear throughout *Crescent* that Abu-Jaber is unconcerned about the reaction of the community to her portrayal of Arab characters, even as several of them highlight negative pictures of the culture that are often overlooked, if not denied, not only by Arabs in the United States, but by Arabs as a whole.

All of the symbols included in the previous quotation and throughout the novel may be interpreted as the reason why Sirine works as a chef, which is to find a "homey" place to live and to share her loneliness with other Arab immigrants, who also seek a sense of belonging, love, and warmth at the café. What Sirine also does, is show how she is an independent woman who paves her own way while living and surviving in the West. Another Arab female character who shows the same independence is Nadia, the owner of the café that Sirine works in. In the following quote, Nadia is seen as an Arab woman with a strong and independent personality. She opens her café for all Arabs to feel and let the Arabs feel at home, "Nadia's Café is like other places—crowded at meals and quiet in between—but somehow there is also usually a lingering conversation, currents of Arabic that ebb around Sirine, fill her head with mellifluous voices. Always there are the same groups of students from the big university up the street, always so lonely, the sadness like blue hollows in their throats, blue notes for their wives and children back home, or for the American women they haven't met" (Abu-Jaber, 2004, p. 19). In this quote, Abu-Jaber figuratively conveys how Nadia's café is a specific area for Arab immigrants and serves as a metaphor for unity, harmony, and even one identity as a soul mate.

Abu-Jaber's representation of these two characters in the previous quotes is positive here because it highlights the idea of homeland. Additionally, she also tries to show the difference between the Arabs and the Westerners. She shows how the Arabs have strong bonds and relationships, unlike the Americans who are considered Westerners (Abu-Jaber, 2004).

According to that, home is like an adoring mother who hugs her children and gives them a feeling of safety. So, when those Arab immigrants search for their mother, they come to the café and eat Sirine's food, which is expressly defined as palliative. It is as if the Arab delicacies made by Sirine bring back memories of the Arab world, family, and friends they have left behind. However, it is not only her food that people come for, but also just her presence at the café exemplified by how she inspires the students to confess their loneliness and lament about being "others" in American culture.

In one way or another, the meals prepared at the café have the ability to draw the attention of the Arab immigrants towards their inner selves, and the terrible feeling of missing one's hometown is temporarily forgotten. Indeed, both Sirine's cooking and presence serve as a constant savior of memory in this context. Abu-Jaber depicts Arabs as being united and supportive in challenging situations such as those that come with living in the West as foreigners. This can be witnessed in Nadia's Café a place where the Arabs feel united (Abu-Jaber, 2003, p. 22).

In this context, Nadia's Café serves as a symbol of the materialization of home. Nevertheless, *Crescent* portrays Arab cultural history and conceptual frameworks that may be recognized and comprehended. However, Arab immigrants come from a variety of places, but live in the same community. All of them share the same characteristics of hybridity, inbetweenness, diaspora, and the differentials of ideas and identities as a result of situations such as emigration, exile, colonization, or displacement. Abu-Jaber's novel also attempts to raise awareness and sensitivity to diversity while celebrating various cultures and shared ties.

On the other hand, as strong and independent as Sirine is depicted, she is equally written as weak and fragile, when she "wishes she were smarter about things. Wishes she knew how to say something wise or consoling to him, something that wouldn't sound frightened or awkward" (Abu-Jaber, 2003, p. 88). This may be the reason behind why Sirine cooks

as it is the only way she can run away from her fears and her life as an Arab in the West. So, here in this instance, Sirine blames herself for being weak and wishes to become strong and to be able to say the things that exist inside her.

Another Arab character depicted by Abu-Jaber is Han, an Iraqi. Although Abu-Jaber (2003) presents Han as a university professor, he is sometimes presented as passive despite having a certain sense of awareness and a critical way of thinking (Abu-Jaber, 2003). Seen from the previous perspective, Abu-Jaber clearly portrays the idea of identity and how identity plays an important role in social status. However, through Han's speech, there is a comparison between Hemingway, who discusses the national identities from all over the world, and Mahfouz, who mirrors only the social spectrum of his country. This means that literary works may reveal the identities of certain individuals of society. This implies that the literary works of Hemingway and Mahfouz put forth some strategies to convey their voices. Thus, what is fascinating is how Hemingway and Mahfouz express their aims via literary works. On the same point, they reveal the importance of fairness and equality in ethnic relations as a critical element in the identity issue. Erikson (1963) conceptualizes identity as a process in which people's identities are built up of biological, psychological, and social components that are negotiated to form a coherent sense of identity. Thus, Erikson identifies a feeling of cohesiveness as the aim of an individual's identity formation and considered it fundamental to a well-functioning personality.

Although Han is presented as an educated Arab, he is also misrepresented as violent and as a murderer in some scenes throughout the novel. This can be seen when Aziz and Um Nadia ask Sirine not to tell Han what happened between her and Aziz because Han may kill somebody over the situation (Abu-Jaber, 2003). Um Nadia continues by saying that Arab people as the same as they have been for millions of years about these matters (Abu-Jaber, 2004). Han is described here as a murderer and killer who would kill for anything. This mirrors the known stereotypes of Arabs as violent terrorists, so that after reading such depictions of an Arab, the Western reader will start to believe these stereotypes. In other places, Han and Aziz are both presented in a positive way: Aziz is a wise and smart Arab poet (Abu-Jaber, 2003) and Han has many Arabic translations of Hemingway, Poe, Dickenson, and Whitman (Abu-Jaber, 2003).

At times throughout the novel, Abu-Jaber shows how Arab immigrants are unable to assimilate to the American way of life. Moreover, Arab-American hybrids feel incomplete and cannot exist as hybrids for long, and this is how she represents Arabs as negative. Likewise, Abu-Jaber's depiction of characters is largely based on ethnic and racial stereotypes of Arabs. In addition to that, she represents the belief that Arab-American hybrids feel incomplete and will not be able to remain as hybrids for long. That is how Sirine thinks Arabs perceive things larger than life, as if they are walking in the sky. Moreover, the writer here highlights the sense of isolation that takes over the Arabs when they leave their homelands.

Abu-Jaber also introduces another character whose husband is depicted as dominating and oppressive. Rana is married to an Arab who brings her to America and locks her inside his house. He refuses to let her go out or see anyone. Rana tells Sirine and Han her story and how she managed to escape from him (Abu-Jaber, 2003). From the previous examples, the ambivalence in the representation of Arabs is clear. Gardaphé and Xu (2007) urge that the language of food provides a window into ethnic history, culture, and roots in *Crescent*. Abu-Jaber's language creates a gourmet contact zone in cafés, kitchens, and homes where displaced people congregate to reconstruct their identities and communities. Furthermore, in *Crescent*, the cafés is where the Arabs gather, eat and live the Arab social lives they are used to living in their home countries. The flavors of Sirine's meals appear to soothe their sense of loss for their homelands (Gardaphé & Xu, 2007).

Likewise, De Sena (2011) discusses how Abu-Jaber's novel depicts food as synonymous with remembrance and serves as a backdrop for discussions of race and political problems. De Sena (2011) also addresses the importance of images and other items, especially a scarf, in that they, too, function as a kind of return to the past, bringing early memories into the present and thereby serving as a location for remembrance. Arab food is represented as a way to enhance Arab culture and present it to the West and at the same time provides a place for the Arab characters to feel at home. Michael (2011) states that the name Arab is used generically in Abu-Jaber's *Crescent*, as it is in the United States, to refer to people of Islamic Middle Eastern heritage. In actuality, "Arabs" are "those individuals who come from places where the Arabic language is spoken" (though distinctions exist within the language itself), and "not all Arabs are Muslims, and not all Muslims are Arabs" (p. 4). However, the importance of oral storytelling in the Middle East as a means of knowing reality is emphasized throughout *Crescent*.

In another study conducted by Semaan (2014), a systematic analysis of scholarly and academic studies on Arab-Americans had been written. It investigates the conditions and backgrounds that led to the visibility of this diaspora community in the United States. This paper sought to provide academics and researchers interested in Arab Americans with an analysis of previous studies and to emphasize the need for further study on this understudied minority group by laying the foundations for potential research on this ethnic group. Berrebbah (2020) states that "Arabness is represented as "a burden and an obstacle to assimilation and being accepted in a foreign culture" by Abu-Jaber in *Crescent* (p. 132).

IV. CONCLUSIONS

After analyzing Nye's *Habibi* and Abu-Jaber's *Crescent* through the lens of Postcolonialism, many insights into the novels' diverse characteristics are noticed. Both writers sometimes depict Arabs in a positive way, while at other times, the two also depict Arabs in a negative way proving that their writing is often ambivalent regarding the depictions of

Arabs. They may not have intended to represent Arabs in an ambivalent way, but this is shown while trying to concentrate on the idea of homesickness and the immigrant experience as seen through the eyes of several characters. While presenting all the previous topics, the researcher comes to the conclusion that Arabs are portrayed with ambivalence in the Nye's *Habibi* and Diana Abu-Jaber's *Crescent*. In both of these novels, Arabs are sometimes painted in a positive light and sometimes shown in a negative light. Nonetheless, this ambivalence will neither enhance nor refute the well-known Arab stereotypes in the neither the West nor the rest of the world.

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Teachers' Expectations and Challenges in Using Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT) Strategies in the ESL Classroom

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Abstract—This study explores two ESL teachers' experiences in accommodating culturally diverse learners in a classroom. A case study is adopted to obtain an in-depth understanding and detailed information about the teachers' expertise in accommodating students with different cultures, ethnic, and genders in the classroom settings. The data is collected through semi-structured interviews with four English teachers teaching culturally diverse students in standard classroom settings from secondary schools. Descriptive and qualitative content analyses were conducted to analyze the data. The findings revealed that the ESL teachers possessed the adaptation to the circumstances with their expectations in teaching multicultural diversity learners. The participants also showed that ESL teachers faced challenges in teaching English to culturally diverse students in secondary school settings in terms of language barriers, syllabus, and socioeconomic background. The findings from the interview sessions showed the implementation of CRT strategies to facilitate more meaningful participation in the classroom by CRT approach, positive reinforcement, syllabus adjustment, and peer tutoring/group projects.

Index Terms—English as Second Language (ESL), Culturally diverse learners, Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT)

I. INTRODUCTION

The lifestyle patterns of different groups are directly related to differences in their values and expectations (Hanel et al., 2018). Akifyeva and Alieva (2018) found that differences between ethnicities and expectations suggest the emergence of stereotypes. Stereotypes can be defined as a person's expectations, thoughts, and beliefs about certain characteristics toward all members of a group (Fiske, 2015). Alter et al. (2010) further state that stereotypes act like mental projection images when we assume a person belongs to a certain group, and they act as a kind of 'shortcut' when thinking about people who belong to a certain group. This study was inspired by the current trend of globalisation, that is, the interaction of people with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Our personal and professional lives are increasingly populated by people from all walks of life, bringing us into contact with a variety of cultures. Consequently, according to Wilson (2003), the importance of cultural understanding and respect for cultural differences is becoming increasingly apparent.

The local education system is working to reduce the differences in economic and population distribution, as well as cultural, linguistic, and religious traditions among the numerous ethnic groups in Malaysia (Rakami et al., 2019; Idrus, 2014). However, the divergence of belief systems more often led to polarisation. Racial polarisation is a stereotype that persists in school buildings. Cultural diversity in a classroom leads to these common problems and inadequacies in the teaching and learning process. It is a fact that before Malaysia's independence, cultural and economic colonisation resulted in people growing up with cultural references and interests. For example, instead of engaging in heated debates with people of other nationalities, students prefer to meet friends from their ethnic group. It is well known that a lack of openness leads to strong prejudice and ethnocentrism. Moreover, such cultural preferences can lead to students being classified according to their ethnicity rather than their individual abilities. For example, there is a common perception that Indian students are fluent in English, while Chinese students are experts in mathematics and Malays cannot speak English, even though they are taught by the same teacher. The teaching profession focuses on the transmission of knowledge and the teacher's communication with learners. These cultural idiosyncrasies in the teaching and learning process can affect learners' performance, which later leads to stereotyping of teachers.

However, this is one dimension of multiculturalism that includes another angle that can be considered. The teacher can be the medium to bring learners to another platform of social diversity through Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT). According to Gay (2013), CRT engages students by connecting cultural backgrounds to classroom activities,

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making them relevant to their multicultural references. This paradigm is closely related to Malaysian learners who represent major and minor races and are largely dispersed into smaller ethnic communities. In addition, learners viewed early education from home as their cultural knowledge bases and their alma mater, which would be the second phase of knowledge, thus the early classroom experiences are different for each individual. This is in line with Idrus' (2014) view that the process of teaching and learning does not only take place in the classroom or school, but also in other social contexts. In this current context, with the multicultural diversity between both parties, teachers, and students, this study aims to explore the expectations, challenges, and teaching strategies of four ESL teachers in dealing with CRT in the classroom.

The main objectives of this study are to investigate teachers' perceptions and expectations when teaching English to culturally diverse students in secondary schools. Perceptions are defined as what teachers believe and feel about the presence of cultural diversity in their classrooms. In this study, the students are Malays, Chinese, Indians, and other ethnicities in Malaysia. On the other hand, perceptions are based on a person's experiences, morals, and influences. This study also attempts to explore the main obstacles they face in implementing CRT in secondary school. In addition, the study aims to discover teachers' strategies to accommodate all students in the classroom regardless of their cultural differences.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Thanks to the internalisation and globalisation that the globe has experienced, a multicultural classroom is no longer a strange phenomenon. Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT), according to Gay (2002), is the incorporation of cultural backgrounds, experiences, and ethnic perspectives into a teaching method. In the teaching and learning process, previous academic knowledge and skills based on the students' frame of reference are thus linked. Teachers and students in a culturally diverse community each have a unique cultural perspective on the world. The cultural lens, as defined by Ladson-Billings (1995), is the way a person sees and understands the different cultures in society. The inequalities in the classroom need to be acknowledged and respected by both teachers and students. As a result, teachers can teach their students to respect other cultures and to become familiar with the many assumptions, beliefs, and opinions that other students have in the classroom.

CRT is based on the foundations of differentiated instruction that connects information to both students' ancestral and current cultures (Santamaria, 2009). In this way, all students can be the source of knowledge in the classroom. Students have the opportunity to learn from each other based on their background knowledge, experiences, and skills they possess related to their culture. According to Gay (2002), this includes the development of a culturally relevant curriculum and culturally responsive teaching to make learning more meaningful and effective. Teachers who use culturally sensitive practices in their classrooms see culture as a strength that can be used to promote academic and social achievement (Ladson-Billings, 2010).

Furthermore, with CRT considerations, teachers have the opportunity to delve deeper into their understanding and discover the cultures that influence students' lives. Banks et al. (2001) argue that CRT must be used to bridge the gap between students' diverse experiences and the curriculum. Teachers can build a positive classroom culture and create relevant learning opportunities if they seek to understand their students' identities and cultures. Many teachers are inadequately prepared to teach culturally diverse students (Gay, 2002). Teachers are inadequately prepared to teach if they do not have sufficient knowledge of the subject matter and the students' cultures.

Implementation of CRT pedagogy can face challenges due to teachers' inadequate understanding of students' racial and ethnic backgrounds. Maintaining an atmosphere of equality and respect within the classroom can be challenging.

To avoid detrimental influences on their student's learning experiences, teachers try to be culturally sensitive or avoid undue stress by challenging their deeply held pedagogical and cultural beliefs (Vaccarino, 2009). Culture and learner cognition are interconnected. Therefore, to prevent academic underachievement and promote educational equity, educators need to incorporate intercultural orientations into their teaching.

The intercultural orientation can be derived from the social constructivist paradigm on which sociocultural theories are based, which assumes that knowledge is created through interaction and shared by people. Sociocultural theories consider social interactions as a component of learning and development that take place when a learner interacts with other people, objects, and events in a cooperative environment (Vygotsky, 1978).

A. *Teacher's Expectations and Beliefs.*

The expectation of teachers can be defined as the assumptions and theories a teacher holds about their student's abilities, potential, and performance both in the long and short-term using a variety of sources, including the student's cognitive level, such as academic achievements and IQ level, non-cognitive characteristics, like behaviours and attitudes, their background attributes, which include their ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, etc. (Akifyeva & Alieva, 2018).

When teachers are given the responsibility of teaching students from different backgrounds, their attitudes must reflect an appreciation of the cultural, linguistic, and social characteristics of each of their students (Sparks, 1994). By that, the teacher can understand different perspectives and appreciate others and at the same time, it can also help teachers to reflect on their own identity as well as teaching practices. This is often very difficult, especially when

students exhibit cultural characteristics that are so different from the teacher’s culture. Gay (2002) mentioned that culture includes many aspects, some of which are more important for teachers to know than others because they have direct consequences for successful teaching and learning.

One should refrain from making assumptions about their students as a teacher or educator, whether intentionally or unconsciously. Because making accurate assessments of students' performance is at the foundation of the teaching profession, a professional teacher must be able to make an effort to set clear and accurate expectations for the learners.

According to Rubie-Davies (2017), teacher expectations can manipulate teachers' instructional practices toward different categories of students. As a result, teachers' expectations can influence their students' learning experiences. For example, students with higher expectations might receive the opportunity and be administered more creative and critical tasks.

B. CRT Pedagogy

Teachers are the driving forces of CRT in schools and classrooms. Montgomery (2001) has established five guidelines that teachers should follow in preparing their culturally responsive classrooms. First, conduct a self-assessment to determine the knowledge base about one's own culture and that of others. Second: Use different culturally responsive methods and materials in the classroom. Third: Create an environment in the classroom that respects individuals and their culture. Fourth: Create an interactive learning environment in the classroom. Last but not least, conduct ongoing and culturally aware assessments.

There are several strategies for incorporating CRT into the classroom to foster relationships and cultural understanding. Gay (2002) pointed out that CRT includes several resources and teaching strategies that can be used in the classroom. Based on a direct study of culturally responsive classroom management, Brown (2007) noted the importance of teachers building respectful and caring relationships with students. In addition, teachers created a caring and supportive learning environment where interactions with and between students created a safe place to learn and an emotional environment where students could seize the opportunity to trust each other and their teacher. Theorists of multicultural education (Sleeter & Grant, 2011) identify a number of approaches to integrating diversity in the classroom. Some of these approaches promote respect and tolerance for all individuals and emphasise the message that all people are equal, without acknowledging current racism and discrimination. In general, teachers who are sensitive to cultural differences create a classroom that respects individual differences and helps students understand the culture of their friends. They promote racial pride and the need for equality when they inspire, motivate and instil values alongside knowledge in their students.

III. METHODS

The qualitative research method was used in this study because the researcher attempts to understand and interpret human and social behaviour as it is lived by participants in a specific context. Creswell (2003) defined qualitative research as an effective model that happens in a natural setting which enables the researcher to establish a level of information by being directly involved in the actual experiences. It is a holistic approach that involves discovery.

Purposive sampling was used. According to Patton (2015), purposeful sampling involves selecting information-rich cases.

A. Setting and Respondents

TABLE I
RESPONDENTS’ DETAILS

Teachers/Respondents	Schools	Gender	Teaching experience
Dayah	SMK A	Female	5 years
Miza	SMK A	Male	7 years
Anis	SMK B	Female	5 years
Dyha	SMK B	Female	6 years

Participants 1 and 2 are teachers from a sub-urban area in Selangor whereas participants 3 and 4 are teachers in Pahang. The teachers volunteered to be interviewed and also shared their lesson plans with the researchers. They have had more than five years of teaching experience in teaching students from various cultural backgrounds including indigenous students at the selected secondary schools.

B. In-Depth Semi-Structured Interviews

Teachers’ interviews were the primary source of information for this study and were conducted by using an interview protocol, addressing culturally responsive teaching and instructional practices. Creswell (2013) suggests the use of an interview protocol with questions and space for notes with a recording device when conducting the interviews. The interview was designed to identify their perceptions towards cultural diversity in school and the teaching strategies used by the teachers to promote unity in the classroom as well as the effectiveness of CRT in teaching. Each respondent was interviewed once the sessions for each respondent lasted for more than an hour. This was to enable the researchers to obtain rich data from them. The sessions were recorded with their consent.

Using literature on instructional practices, the questions were designed to examine individual teacher experiences, culturally responsive teaching, and practice in the classroom. These experiences included perspectives, values, and students' culture in the classroom. The aim of using a semi-structured interview with open-ended questions is to enable review and expansion of the response during interview sessions.

C. Lesson Plans

Teachers' lesson plans for two selected lessons were made available to the researchers. No observation was conducted. The lesson plans were documents prepared by the teachers prior to the lesson or teaching session to assist and guide the teacher during the lesson in carrying out the activities in the classroom. The aim of analysing the lesson plans was to identify the teachers' strategies for implementing Culturally Responsive Teaching in their classrooms.

D. Data Analysis

The data and information obtained from the interview were processed using thematic analysis. It is one of the best methods for identifying, analysing, organising, describing, and reporting the themes found in the interview. It is also a useful method for exploring the perspectives of different research participants, highlighting commonalities and differences, and uncovering unexpected insights (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The transcription, coding process, and finally the themes are identified in response to the research questions (Creswell, 2007).

Document analysis enables researchers to obtain further information related to the study (Ary et al., 2010). According to Bowen (2009), document analysis is a systematic process of reviewing documents. These may be written texts such as books, archives, reports, novels, letters, journals, transcripts, or newspapers. It can also be in the form of non-written records such as photographs or computer images.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect data from respondents. Longhurst (2009) asserts that semi-structured interviews not only contain a series of important questions that help to outline the areas under investigation but also allow the interviewer or respondent to deviate in order to elaborate on an idea or answer. Meanwhile, Mackey and Gass (2015) found that researchers can use interviews to explore phenomena that are not as readily apparent, such as learners' self-reported perceptions and attitudes. In this study, respondents were asked to participate in a thirty-minute to one-hour interview and answer open-ended questions about their experiences with service learning.

A pilot study, also known as a feasibility study, is often conducted as a preliminary step to the main study. This is to ensure that the instrument to be used for the actual study is suitable and meets the objectives of the research. A pilot study can provide feedback on insufficient information and possible problems that might arise when conducting the actual study. In this way, the researcher can minimise possible inadequacies in the main study as much as possible.

Thus, the interview questions were tested with one participant to check the reliability of the questions asked. The recording was analysed to identify areas that might be redundant or misleading. The pilot project proved beneficial to the researchers as several interview questions had to be changed to get clearer answers from the participants.

IV. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The researcher adopted an inductive approach in coding and analysing the data. The interview data were transcribed and the data results were analysed using thematic analysis as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006) to identify teachers' perceptions, instructional strategies to promote unity in the classroom in the face of cultural diversity, and the impact of these strategies. The codes were used to identify themes that could provide a coherent summary of the data. In addition, lesson plans were analysed to support the interview data and to ensure the credibility of this study.

A. Teachers' Perceptions

During the interview, the interviewees expressed their awareness of the diversity of their students by mentioning and discussing some issues and concerns about differences between students. To ensure that the teaching and learning process is effective and successful, participants make an effort to learn about students' cultural interests and needs.

In order to create a positive learning atmosphere and give the students a sense of community, the teachers also make an effort to enter the students' circle. This is an expression of their good attitude towards the diversity of children in their class. Teachers' positive attitudes towards students from culturally diverse backgrounds promote integration in an environment, claim Kalyava et al. (2007) because positive attitudes are closely and favourably related to motivation to engage with and teach culturally diverse students. According to Spark (2004), teachers who are to teach students from diverse backgrounds must demonstrate in their attitudes an understanding of the cultural, linguistic, and social characteristics of each student.

Each participant is aware of their students' backgrounds and takes this into account when planning a lesson to allow all children to participate in activities and expose children to cultural diversity in the classroom while fostering a sense of belonging. During the interview, teachers talked about the difficulties they encounter when addressing students' needs and promoting student learning in the classroom.

All participants except Dyha mentioned that they felt disturbed by their students' personalities when dealing with multicultural students.

'In terms of their self-esteem and the way they bring themselves up, for example, when the teacher asks questions, the Indian student is the first to try, even though, as I mentioned earlier, he is a minority in the classroom ...' (Anis, 25).

Self-esteem is one of the barriers that prevent them from joining a culturally diverse classroom because they think that students from the other culture might be better than them. They think that students from certain cultures are better than them because they have a general idea of the culture.

'From what I see, the minority might feel a little bit inferior or feel that they are treated differently. For example, because they are a minority in the class, they feel inferior when it comes to participating in activities, expressing their opinions, and so on...' (Miza, 43).

McCrae (2001) suggests that culture can shape personality. The environment they are exposed to and the way they are brought up are among the factors that can shape their personality. Dayah's situation is different: 'For me, the biggest challenge is getting students to appreciate other people's culture. At first, they do not welcome the minority students in the class because they do not like them' (Dayah, 78).

B. Teachers' Expectations and Challenges

Culture encompasses more subtle behaviours related to social roles, behaviours, communication, and beliefs, in addition to obvious and material characteristics such as food or clothing. Because culture is multidimensional and dynamic, there are differences between people within cultural groupings. Culture is shared and learned in groups of people connected by a common history, place, language, religion, or socio-economic class. As for teachers' expectations of CRT use, they all have different opinions about their expectations. Dayah, who teaches in a suburban school, mentioned that 'although most students have been exposed to a variety of cultures, it is still a difficult task to get them to work together as a team. that is the most difficult task for me' (Dayah, 44).

With 7 years of teaching experience, Miza said that sometimes there were ugly arguments due to misunderstandings about cultures and festivals. He felt that it was the teacher's duty to clarify this, even if it was exhausting. He went on to say that unresolved cultural differences between students and teachers can lead to misinterpretation of students' behaviour or teachers' expectations on both sides.

C. Teaching Strategies to Promote Unity

The teachers mentioned that asserting power in the classroom is of utmost importance. The experienced teachers agreed on how they exercise their power while trying to maintain a mutually respectful relationship with the students. All participants stated that they always lead their students to unity in the classroom. 'I use my power as a teacher to match the way they fit into a group to the way I fit into the group. So, I mixed them in the group' (Anis, 102). Anis focused on using her power as a teacher in the classroom to ensure that students mingled without discrimination. Whenever students have to complete a group activity, she uses her power to ensure that every student in the classroom does not sit in a group that consists of only one culture. Students sit separately from their classmates who have the same cultural background so that they can learn from each other and share their culture with their group mates.

'I set the standards and expectations every year at the beginning of the class or lesson. I told them to respect everyone's opinions and ideas' (Dyha, 40). Dyha prefers to use her power to set the ground rules before she starts teaching, and this usually happens at the beginning of the lesson. She makes sure that the students know the rules that she has set specifically for the students in the class. For her, it is important that students in a culturally diverse classroom respect everyone's opinions and ideas, as they have different cultural backgrounds that bring them to different beliefs, which can lead to unity in the classroom.

D. Knowing Your Students

The participants make a clear statement about the importance of students knowing the cultures of their friends so that they are united in the class. They strongly believed that the values they taught the students and the way they went about teaching had a positive impact on the students. By knowing each other, they are able to avoid stereotypes and prejudices and this allows the students to cooperate and work as a unit in the class. She said, 'I honestly took special care of him because I know he is alone. He had no one with the same cultural background to talk to, whose shoulder he could lean on to talk about anything' (Anis, 70). Dyha, on the other hand, said that the relationship between the teacher and the students depends on the teacher. According to her, it is best if teachers have the opportunity and know the cultural background of their students on an individual level, as every relationship depends on the extent to which the teacher knows the culture of the students. She lamented, 'Everything starts with the teachers understanding the individual students. If the teacher knows the student's background, he or she can relate directly' (Dyha, 28).

Close communication enables students to build a good relationship with their teacher. Consequently, teachers have the opportunity to understand the cultural background of their students as well as the student's strengths, weaknesses, and interests, which enables them to guide them to success during the teaching and learning process. Gay (2002) added that culture is made up of a variety of factors, some of which are more important to teachers than others because they directly affect effective teaching and learning.

E. Social and Emotional Engagement

It was not surprising when all of the participants agreed that the subject matter for the class should be something relevant to the student's cultural background. It allows other students in the classroom the chance to learn about the distinctive aspects of their friends' cultures while also exposing them to and teaching them to value Malaysia's overall

cultural variety. Gay (2002) mentioned that culture includes many aspects, some of which are more important for teachers to know than others because they have direct consequences for successful teaching and learning. In addition to that, the participants can learn more about their students' culture. Miza agreed by saying 'I will always find culturally relevant resources... Making sure the materials used will enable students to contribute their own culture in the classroom' (Miza, 64). Additionally, Dayah suggested 'I will give examples based on their backgrounds or something they are familiar with' (Dayah, 75).

It can be said that education professionals frequently deal with resource constraints and challenging problems. If the school culture is based on cultural responsiveness and equity, students might also have a strong cultural foundation to draw from.

F. Promoting Collaboration and Providing Support

The results show that 'mix and match' is one of the best strategies mentioned by all participants. Initially, students prefer to sit in their comfort zone with students who have similar language and culture. However, all participants feel that this is not a good and healthy way for their students as it does not give students from other cultures the opportunity to share and explain their thoughts. Moreover, it is far from promoting unity in the classroom. According to Sahlberg (2010), intercultural knowledge and understanding of others cannot be taught explicitly, but only through constant social interaction in the classroom. The best way to promote cooperation and give children the opportunity to support each other so that they can complement each other is to put children from different cultural backgrounds together in a group. This gives them the opportunity to work together and encourages them to stick together when they need to support each other. Dyha shared her experience by saying: 'what I did was, I selected one student who was quite good in English to be my translator. So, the others didn't feel left behind because some of the students, might be shy to ask me questions, they can ask me questions through the appointed representative (Dyha, 43). This result is consistent with Wahab et al.'s (2018) theory that social conflicts frequently result from people's resistance to understanding and appreciating the diversity of their own cultures. Because they recognise and value the cultural diversity of their classmates, the kids in the class will be united and free from conflict.

V. CONCLUSION

One of the most important conclusions from this study is that both participants demonstrate awareness of the cultural variety in their classroom and have favourable attitudes regarding it. It is evident when they raise concerns and issues regarding the students in the classroom and take the initiative to read and research more about the cultural backgrounds of their students to avoid offending any of their students' feelings when they attempt to provide examples or explain anything related to the topic to foster a culture in the classroom. They also play a role in maintaining order in the classroom to ensure that all students respect one another and recognise the value of unity in the classroom.

Building positive relationships has positive effects on the students. The relationship between the teacher and the students is formed when the students feel comfortable speaking openly with them about their ideas and beliefs. The teacher will be able to establish a rapport with the students while also closing the communication gap. An indication of positive engagement is how enthusiastic teachers are about it when it involves them and their students. Improved intergroup communication conditions were associated with more accepting attitudes toward individuals from various origins and a tendency to join together.

Throughout their lessons, the teacher and students had been in constant communication. Respondents began to comprehend the needs of their students and create resources based on their culture. To grab the students' attention and got them involved in the class, they did not just concentrate on the textbook materials. They became aware of the uniqueness of others when their culture is discussed and they are introduced to various cultures. From there, the students discovered the value of unity and learn to respect one another. Apart from that, the teacher made use of the chance to leverage the background knowledge of the students' cultures as a source of information they were eager to contribute in class.

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Non-Prototypical Uses of Personal Pronouns and Their Grammaticalization in Chinese

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Abstract—With an interesting typological study on the non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns, Helmbrecht (2015) demonstrates that the form-meaning mismatch with regards to personal pronouns is essentially based on discourse. It is claimed that the referents of personal pronouns dynamically keep changing with a particular context, and some kind of additional pragmatic meaning tends to be encoded into them. Based on his study, Helmbrecht proposes two hypotheses about how the phenomena at issue could be grammaticalized: (i) Plural pronouns may shift to singular ones; (ii) third-person pronouns may shift to second- or first-person ones, but not vice versa. Drawing on a more comprehensive typological perspective, this article presents various patterns in Mandarin Chinese that supplement Helmbrecht’s generalization and adjust his hypotheses concerning the grammaticalization of personal pronouns (Hu, 2018).

Index Terms—Non-prototypical use, Personal pronoun, Reference, Grammaticalization

I. INTRODUCTION

Helmbrecht’s (2015) typological study on the non-prototypical uses of personal pronoun is intriguing, revealing that the form-meaning mismatch involving personal pronouns is essentially discourse-based, in the sense that the referents of personal pronouns dynamically vary with a particular context, and hence some kind of additional pragmatic meaning tends to be encoded into them. For instance, a soccer fan can naturally say ‘We won the game last night’, though s/he is not a player of the winning team. Helmbrecht’s study also reveals that at least a subset of the non-prototypical uses appears to be stabilized in the diachronic change of personal pronouns. Based on his study, Helmbrecht (2015) proposes two hypotheses about how the phenomena at issue could be grammaticalized: (i) Plural pronouns may shift to singular pronouns; (ii) third-person pronouns may shift to second- or first-person ones, but not vice versa. Based on our previous study, in this article, we present some non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns in Chinese to complement Helmbrecht’s generalization as well as to modify his hypotheses of grammaticalization (Hu, 2018).

II. NON-PROTOTYPICAL USES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN CHINESE¹

The issue of pragmatic referentiality in Chinese has been addressed in the literature (e.g., Chen, 2009; Chen et al., 2010). Due to the particular focus of this article, we only present the non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns in Chinese, which Helmbrecht’s generalization, as given in Table 1, does not seem to apply to. The general information of Chinese pronouns is given in Table 2 (Hu, 2018).

TABLE 1
 THE GENERALIZATION OF NON-PROTOTYPICAL USES OF IMPERSONAL PRONOUNS (HELMBRECHT, 2015)

Meaning Form	impersonal uses		1SG	1PL	2SG		2PL	3SG		3PL
	generic	specific			honorific			honorific		
1SG										
1PL	INCL	+					+	+		+
	EXCL		+							
2SG	+	+	+							
2PL					+					
3SG					+	+				
3PL	+	+			+			+		

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¹ The abbreviations used in this article is in line with those in Helmbrecht’s study: 1, 2, 3 = first, second, third person; SG = singular; PL = plural; INCL = inclusive; EXCL = exclusive; > = this symbol translates as ‘used as’ or ‘changed to’; lower case indices in Table 1 indicate the number of tokens of speech act role, e.g. 2_{2-n} = 2 up to n hearer (Hu, 2018).

TABLE 2
THE GENERAL INFORMATION OF CHINESE PRONOUNS

Person	Number		Chinese pronouns	Reference sets	English counterpart	
	SG				I	
1			<i>wo</i>	{1}	we	∅
	PL	INCL	<i>zan/zanmen/women</i> ²	{1+2 _{1-n} }; {1+2 _{1-n} +3 _{1-n} }		∅
		EXCL	<i>women</i> ³	{1+3 _{1-n} }		
2	SG		<i>ni</i>	{2}	you	
	PL		<i>nimen</i>	{2 _{2-n} }; {2 _{1-n} +3 _{1-n} }		
3	SG		<i>ta</i>	{3}	he/she/it	
	PL		<i>tamen</i>	{3 _{2-n} }	they	

A. Non-Prototypical Uses of Third-Person Pronoun

(a). 3SG > 1SG

Under the dynamic context, the 3SG pronoun *ta* ‘he/she/it’, which is prototypically used to refer to a third party, can be employed to mean the speaker himself or herself (which is supposed to be a 1SG pronoun) in order to enhance the objectivity of the statement expressed by some utterance. The use of *ta* in (1) below is arguably a typical case in which the speaker exploits the alienation characteristic of a 3SG pronoun to achieve her purpose (Hu, 2018).

- (1) 凤姐道：“至今珍大哥还抱怨后悔呢。你明儿了他，好歹赔释赔释，我年轻，原没见过世面，谁叫大爷错委了他呢。”清代曹雪芹《红楼梦》
- | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|------------|-----------|-------------|-------|--------------------|-----------|---------------|
| Fengjie | dao, | “zhijin | Zhendage | hai | baoyuan | houhui | ne. |
| Fengjie | say | up to now | Cousin Zhen | still | complain | regret | PAR |
| ni | mingge | jian | le | ta, | haodai | peishi | peishi, wo |
| 2SG | tomorrow | see | ASP | 3SG | anyhow | apologize | apologize 1SG |
| nianqing, | yuan | mei | jian | guo | shimian, | shui | jiao |
| young | originally | not | see | ASP | aspects of society | who | make |
| daye | cuo | wei | le | ta | ne. | | |
| Cousin Zhen | mistakenly | entrust | ASP | 1SG | PAR | | |
- ‘Fengjie said, “I’m sure Cousin Zhen is still regretting his rashness. When you see him tomorrow, do apologize for me. Tell him he should never have entrusted such a task to someone so young and inexperienced” (*The Dream of Red Mansions* by Xueqin Cao) (Hu, 2018).

In (1), the speaker, Fengjie, creates a fictive scenario in which the hearer, her husband, would apologize on her behalf to Cousin Zhen for her fault. Under this circumstance, the speaker directly explains why she botches up the task entrusted by Cousin Zhen, and wants the hearer to verbatim repeat what she said. During the course of her account, the speaker shifts the deictic center from herself to her husband by using a 3SG pronoun instead of a 1SG one, which is manifest in the information flow from the speaker-oriented explanation (using the 1SG pronoun *wo* ‘I’) to the hearer-oriented comment on Cousin Zhen (using the 3SG pronoun *ta* ‘she’). Seen this way, the second 3SG pronoun is not related to Cousin Zhen, but anaphorically connected with the 1SG antecedent, namely Fengjie, the speaker herself. Due to the shift of the deictic center, each part of this excuse performs its own function, respectively: On the one hand, the speaker-oriented explanation shows that it is characteristic of her to courageously admit her own mistake; on the other, the hearer-oriented comment reveals the speaker’s intention that she wants to reasonably put the blame for her own fault on Cousin Zhen (Hu, 2018).

(b). 3SG > 3PL

It has been noticed in the literature that 3SG pronoun can be intended to have a plural meaning (Xu, 1999; Wu & Matthew, 2010; Chen & Wu, 2011). As illustrated in (2), *ta* should be construed as a collective meaning, referring to the *bang xiaotou* ‘the gang of thieves’ in topic position (Hu, 2018).

- (2) 这帮小偷，警处恨不得杀了他。
- | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|----------|---------|--------------|------|-----|-----|
| Zhe | bang | xiaotou, | jingchu | henbude | sha | le | ta. |
| this | gang | thieves | police | would-rather | kill | ASP | 3PL |
- ‘This gang of thieves, the police would rather kill them’ (Xu, 1999, p. 5).

(c). 3SG > Impersonal Generic Use

The impersonal uses of personal pronouns mean that they can be related to an indefinite referent in a particular context (see Kitagawa & Lehrer, 1990; Biq, 1991 inter alia). In terms of the degree of individuation, Helmbrecht (2015)

² Both *zan* and *zanmen* are 1INCL.PL pronouns in Chinese. However, there still exists an observable distinction between them, from a sociolinguistic viewpoint, namely, the former is popular in rural areas, whereas the latter can be regarded as a formal variant relatively (cf. Lü 1984).
³ In Chinese, *women* can be used as 1INCL.PL pronoun as well as exclusive one, as the case may be.

categorizes this usage into two classes, viz., generic use and specific use: The former means that the personal pronoun refers to a generalized group, whereas the latter relates the personal pronoun to an arbitrary individual. In general, personal pronouns in Chinese can be impersonally used to have a generic meaning, as shown in (3) (Hu, 2018).

- (3) 不管是谁, 只要年满十八周岁, 他都有选举权。
 Buguan shi shui, zhiyao nian man shibazhousui,
 no matter SHI who as long as age reach 18 years old
ta dou you xuanjuquan.
 generalized group all have suffrage
 ‘Whosoever is over 18 years old has suffrage.’

In (3), *ta* does not refer to a third party but a generalized group of people meeting the condition of age. This kind of non-prototypical use has not been mentioned in Helmbrecht’s study, but it is also quite common in English, especially in some idiomatic expressions, such as ‘He that talks much errs much’, in which *he* is apparently related to the generalized group of people instead of a particular third party (Hu, 2018).

B. Non-Prototypical Uses of Second-Person Pronouns

(a). 2SG > 1PL

Cross-linguistically, a 2SG pronoun is frequently used to take a 1PL reference. So it is the case with the Chinese *ni* ‘you’. This referential strategy is often employed to effectively establish an intimate relationship between speaker and hearer, as illustrated by (4) (Hu, 2018).

- (4) 大家一条心, 死守着我们的都城。我们受平原君的惨痛教训, 即使你投降, 敌人也要把你斩尽杀绝。所我们都宁肯战死, 也不愿被人屠杀。郭沫若《虎符》
 Dajia yitiaoxin, sishou zhe women de ducheng.
 everyone be of one mind defend to the last ASP 1PL DE capital
 women shou Changping de cantong jiaoxun, jishi ni touxiang,
 1PL learn Changping DE plainful lesson even if 1PL surrender
 diren ye yao ba ni zhanjinshajue. suoyi women dou
 enemies also will BA 1PL kill all so 1PL all
 ningken zhansi, yebuyuan bei ren tusha.
 would rather die in battle than BEI someone slaughter
 ‘Everyone should be of one mind for defending our capital to the last. We have learned more from Changping’s painful lesson. Even if we surrendered, our enemy would still kill us all. So, all of us would rather die in this battle than be slaughtered by them’ (*Tiger-shaped Tally* by Moruo Guo) (Hu, 2018).

In the context of (4), the speaker, a general, intends to inspire the soldiers to fight against their enemies. To dismiss the idea of surrender completely, the speaker uses the 2SG pronoun non-prototypically to refer to the whole army as an individual indivisible, showing that they are all tied together to survive the battle (Hu, 2018).

(b). 2SG > 3PL

Interestingly, the 2SG pronoun may also be used as a 3PL one, as shown in (5).

- (5) 王国军心里咒骂着, “这些吃着我们的大米、穿着我们的衣服来屠杀我们的王八蛋! 你就是远在天边, 我也要让炮弹追上你。”杨笑影《赤子之心》
 Wang Guojun xinli zhouma zhe, “zhexie chi zhe women
 Wang Guojun silently swear ASP these eat ASP 1PL
 de dami chuan zhe women de yifu lai tusha women
 DE rice wear ASP 1PL DE clothes come slaughter 1PL
 de wangbadan! ni jiushi yuanzaitianbian, wo ye yao
 DE bastard 3PL even if far away 1SG also will
 rang paodan zhuishang ni.”
 make cannonball catch up with 3PL
 ‘Wang Guojun swears silently: “These bastards eating our rice and wearing our clothes come to slaughter us! Even if they are far away from me, I will make the cannonball catch up with them also”’ (*The Heart of A Newborn Babe* by Xiaoying Yang) (Hu, 2018).

In (5), the speaker expresses his hatred for a group of enemy soldiers who attack him and retreat safely. Because the swear is just the speaker’s internal monologue, there is no specific hearer despite the use of 2SG pronoun *ni* ‘lit. you’ in this context. Instead, *ni* here is anaphorically connected with the constituent *zhexie wangbadan* ‘these bastards’ which is supposed to be referred to by a 3PL pronoun. The referential meaning of the 2SG pronoun could best explain why it is interpreted as a third party here: Using *ni* in this way, the speaker wants to construct a context in which he is roundly cursing the enemies face-to-face, expressing his hatred and wrath vividly (Hu, 2018).

(c). 2SG > 3SG

In addition to serving as a 3PL pronoun, the 2SG pronoun can also mean a 3SG one, which aims to establish a closer relationship between the speaker and the referent which is supposed to be referred to by a 3SG pronoun. This effect can be seen most clearly in examples like (6) below:

- (6) 他临死前会想到什么? **你**会不会想到党? 想到**你的**祖国, **你的**亲人? 《人民日报》“中国人的良心”

Ta	linsi	hui	xiangdao	shenme?	ni	huibuhui	xiangdao
3SG	on his deathbed	will	think of	what	3SG	will or not	think of
dang?	xiangdao	ni	de	zuguo,	ni	de	qinren?
party	think of	3SG	DE	motherland	3SG	DE	relative

What would he think of when lying on his deathbed? Would he think of CCP, his motherland or relatives? (“The Conscience of Chinese People”, *People’s Daily*, Dec 19th, 1953).

In the context of (6), the speaker tries to reason out the last thoughts of a dying soldier with *ta* ‘he’ at the very beginning, revealing that there is a spatial or social distance between them. Whereafter, the speaker uses *ni* ‘you’, pretending that he is asking the soldier face to face, as with the example (5) discussed above. Thus, the 2SG pronoun is anaphorically related to the 3SG antecedent in order to bridge the given gap.

(d). 2PL > Impersonal Generic Use

There are also typical cases whereby the 2PL pronoun *nimen* ‘you’ can be impersonally used to convey a generic meaning.

- (7) 俺就相信巡警, 相信头戴警徽的人, **你们**不管什么时候都能保护老百姓。《人民日报》“110走向成熟”

An ⁴	jiu	xiangxin	xunjing,	xiangxin	toudai	jinghui
1SG	only	trust	policeman	trust	wear	police badge
de	ren,	nimen	buguan	shenme	shihou	
DE	person	generalized group	no matter	what	time	

douneng baohu laobaixing.
can protect civilian

‘I only trust the policeman. Whenever, the men wearing the police badge are capable of protecting the civilians’ (“The Development of Policing”, *People’s Daily*, Mar 3rd, 1998).

In (7), the speaker expresses his confidence in *xunjing* ‘policeman’, who does not refer to any particular one, but the police as a whole. The 2PL pronoun *nimen* should thus be interpreted generically. Under this context, the impersonal *nimen* has the effect of highlighting the speaker’s affection for policemen.

C. Non-Prototypical Uses of First-Person Pronouns

(a). 1EXCL.PL > 3SG

1EXCL.PL pronoun *women* ‘we’ in Chinese can be used to refer to a third party in a context where the speaker bears a close relationship with the intended referent, especially between parents/guardians and children, as in (8) (Hu, 2018).

- (8) (王太医) 刚要告辞, 只见奶子抱着大姐出来, 笑说: “王老爷也瞧瞧**我们**。”清代曹雪芹《红楼梦》

(Wangtaiyi)	gangyao	gaoci,	zhijian	naizi	baozhe	dajie
Doctor Wang	be about to	leave	just see	nurse	carry	Dajie
chulai,	xiao	shuo,	“Wanglaoye	ye	qiaoqiao	women. ”
out	simle	say	Mr. Wang	too	look at	3SG

‘Just as Doctor Wang was about to leave, Dajie’s nurse carried her out and asked with a smile: “Will Mr. Wang look at us too?”’ (*The Dream of Red Mansions* by Xueqin Cao) (Hu, 2018).

In (8), since the patient called Dajie is unable to talk, the nurse serves as her mouthpiece. On the face of it, the 1EXCL.PL pronoun refers to Dajie and the nurse herself, yet it means Dajie only (Hu, 2018).

(b). 1EXCL.PL > Impersonal Generic Use

In Chinese, it is commonplace that 1EXCL.PL pronoun can be impersonally used for a generic reference, as in (9) below.

- (9) 京东客服中心特此通知您, 您的申请**我们**已受理, 请保持电话畅通, **我们**将尽快与您联系。

Jingdong	kefu	zhongxin	teci	tongzhi	nin,
Jingdong	customer service	center	hereby	inform	2SG.polite
nin	de	shenqing	women	yi	shouli,

⁴ An is the dialectal version of 1SG pronoun in Sinitic languages.

2SG.polite DE application generalized group already accept
 qing baochi dianhua changtong, **women** jiang
 please keep telephone in operation generalized group will
 jinkuai yu nin lianxi.
 as soon as possible with 2SG.polite connect
 ‘The customer service center of Jingdong (an e-commerce company) hereby informs you that we have accepted your application. We will contact you as soon as possible. Please keep your telephone on’.

(9) is a receipt from *kefu zhongxin* ‘the customer service center’ to the consumer applying for after-sale service. In this case, the pronoun *women* ‘we’ is an exclusive one, which is anaphorically related to the customer service center. In view of the collective meaning of its antecedent, the 1EXCL.PL pronoun here takes reference to a generalized group of staff members in the center.

(c). 1INCL.PL > 1SG

According to Helmbrecht (2015), 1PL pronoun, the exclusive one in fact⁵, can be non-prototypically used as a 1SG one with two different meanings, “majestic plural” and “editorial-we”. The 1INCL.PL pronoun *zan/zanmen/women* ‘we’ in Chinese can also do it. Consider (10).

(10) 刘局长, 我这样做也是为你着想。单位好多人住房都紧张, 咱们孩子一下住这么大房子, 我怕有人到处告你。李唯 《腐败分子潘长水》
 Liujuzhang, wo zheyang zuo ye shi wei ni zhuoxiang.
 Director Liu 1SG this way do also SHI for 2SG considerate
 danwei haoduo ren zhufang dou jinzhang, **zanmen** haizi
 unit so many people house all shortage 1SG son
 yixia zhu zheme da fangzi, wo pa youren
 suddenly live so big house 1SG worry someone
 dao chu gao ni.
 everywhere accuse 2SG
 ‘Director Liu, what I have done in this way is for you. So many people in our unit are faced with the housing problem. I worry that someone will accuse you everywhere, because my son is all of sudden allotted so big a house’ (*The Badger Hat Changshui Pan* by Wei Li).

In (10), the hearer, Director Liu of the unit in a shortage of houses, takes bribes from the speaker and wants to illegally allot the speaker’s son a big house in return. Despite some degree of unease, the speaker signals an intimate relationship to the hearer by means of using *zanmen*, which assumes that the speaker’s son has a quite close relationship with the hearer, as with the kinship, with the intent to get a house. In fact, *zanmen* refers to the speaker only.

(d). 1SG > 1PL

In view of the use of the singular pronoun with a plural meaning in the discussions above, it is no surprise at all that the 1SG pronoun *wo* ‘I’ can be non-prototypically used in a plural way, as shown in (11), which is taken from a government report (Hu, 2018).

(11) 伯承同志是我党我军的大知识分子, 大军事家。《邓小平文选》第三卷
 Bocheng tongzhi shi **wo** dang **wo** jun de da
 Bocheng comrade SHI 1PL party 1PL army DE noted
 zhishifenzi, da junshijia.
 intellectual noted strategist
 ‘Comrade Bocheng is the noted intellectual and strategist of our party and army’ (*Selected Works of Deng Xiaoping*, vol. 3).

In (11), *wo* should be construed as having a collective reading, in the sense that it refers to all members of the party and the army as an impartible entity (Hu, 2018).

(e). 1SG > Impersonal Generic Use

In the particular construction where the 2SG and the 1SG pronouns co-occur, the generic interpretation of both them is allowed as in (12).

(12) 战士们你一言我一语, 说着陇东的高原, 陕北的大山, 黑压压的森林和富丽的河川。杜鹏程 《保卫延安》
 Zhanshimen **ni** yi yan **wo**
 soldiers generalized group one word generalized group
 yi yu, shuo zhe long dong de

⁵ Although Helmbrecht does not clearly mark the concrete class of the 1PL pronoun taking a 1SG reference in his study, we can reason out that the hearer is excluded out of the referents of the 1PL pronoun discussed in his examples (23) and (24).

one word talk about ASP Gansu province east DE
 gaoyuan, shan bei de dashan, heiyaya de
 plateau Shanxi province north DE mountain dark DE
 senlin he fuli de hechuan.
 forest and magnificent DE river

‘All soldiers are talking about the plateaus in eastern Gansu, the mountains in northern Shanxi, the dark forest and the grand river’ (*Defend Yan’an* by Pengcheng Du).

In (12), neither *ni* ‘you’ nor *wo* ‘I’ refers to any specific interlocutor, but the generalized group of soldiers. It may thus be interpreted as ‘All soldiers are talking about something’ rather than as ‘Both you and I, as soldier, talk about something’. The expression is often employed to effectively describe a situation in which all participants do the same thing or take the same attitude.

Non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns as presented and discussed above demonstrate that the construal of a personal pronoun as having the meaning of another one is essentially pragmatic-oriented, as Helmbrecht correctly points out. On the one hand, the from-meaning mismatch involving the use of Chinese personal pronouns provides supportive evidence for Helmbrecht’s study, and on the other, complements his generalization. A comprehensive description of non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns in Chinese is given in Table 3.

TABLE 3
 NON-PROTOTYPICAL USES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN CHINESE (HU, 2018)

Meaning Form	impersonal uses		1SG	1PL	2SG	2PL	3SG	3PL
	generic	specific						
1SG	+			+				
1PL	INCL	+	+		+	+		
	EXCL	+	+				+	
2SG	+	+	+	+			+	+
2PL	+				+			
3SG	+		+		+			+
3PL	+						+	

So far, we have discussed the inadequacies of Helmbrecht’s typological generalization on European languages. In what follows, we take issue with his argument on the use of 1PL pronoun taking a 2SG reference in terms of the pragmatic function (Hu, 2018).

As has been stated in Helmbrecht (2015), “this use of the 1PL is patronizing and can be very offensive for the hearer/addressee in certain contexts, because it is implied that the speaker has some authority over the hearer/addressee” (p. 183). We find his argument unconvincing. Consider (13) (Hu, 2018).

(13) 老支书：“喜旺啊，你就别推辞了，大伙选咱，那是信任咱。”邵力《李双双》

lao zhishu, “Xiwang a, ni jiu bie tuici
 old branch secretary Xiwang PAR 2SG should not refuse
 le, dahuo xuan zan, na shi xinren zan.”
 ASP we all elect 2SG that SHI trust 2SG
 ‘The old branch secretary said, “Xiwang, you should not refuse. We elect you, because we trust you’ (*Li Shuangshuang* by Li Shao).

In the context of (13), there is a clear gap of authority, as Helmbrecht argues, between the speaker, the old branch secretary, and the hearer, a common villager named Xiwang. To persuade the hearer to accept the election results, the speaker closes the relationship between them by using 1INCL.PL pronoun *zan*, which actually does not refer to the two interlocutors here but to the hearer only. Contrary to Helmbrecht’s claim, this kind of use effectively eliminates the gap between the interlocutors in order to develop a close relationship. Consider Helmbrecht’s examples (20) and (21), repeated here as (14) and (15) (Hu, 2018).

(14) Wie fühlen wir uns denn heute?
 ‘How do we feel today?’

(15) Welches von den beiden TV-Geräten nehmen wir denn?
 ‘Which of the two TV-sets do we buy, now?’

(Helmbrecht, 2015, p. 183)

(14) is an utterance in the context of medical consultation whereby the speaker, doctor or nurse, shows that the patient is not a stranger that he or she is responsible for temporarily but a familiar member of their own group. Seen this way, the patronizing and offensive implication claimed by Helmbrecht seems untenable. In (15), which is an utterance between a vendor of TV set and a customer, the use of 1PL pronoun could possibly improve the vendor’s chance to make a sale through closing their relationship (Hu, 2018).

To sum up, both Helmbrecht’s generalization based on European languages and our supplement from Chinese evidence point to the pragmatic-oriented nature of non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns. Nevertheless, there seem to exist some differences between the Chinese language and European languages (Hu, 2018). Specifically, the

non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns in European languages mainly involve the form-meaning mismatches among them, whereas apart from various form-meaning mismatches among personal pronouns, they tend to be used impersonally in Chinese as well. This difference serves as supportive evidence for Helmbrecht’s pragmatic-oriented claim and in the meantime counter-evidence against his argumentation on grammaticalization of non-prototypical uses, an issue we will address in the next section.

III. GRAMMATICALIZATION OF NON-PROTOTYPICALLY IMPERSONAL USE

The other problem with Helmbrecht’s study, as mentioned earlier, is his argumentation on grammaticalization of non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns. Based on his generalization, Helmbrecht (2015) proposes two hypotheses of grammaticalization about the phenomena at issue, “The first hypothesis-the Category Extension and Shift Hierarchy I: Number-Only those non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns may ultimately become a historical category shift that obeys the number hierarchy, i.e. *plural pronouns may shift to singular pronouns historically*, but not vice versa. The second hypothesis-the Category Extension and Shift Hierarchy II: Person-Only those non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns may ultimately become a historical category shift that obeys the person hierarchy, i.e. *pronouns of a third person may shift to the second or first person*, but not vice versa” (p. 185).

Consider, again, the non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns. These uses can be classified into two categories roughly: the form-meaning mismatch among personal pronouns and the impersonal extension with an indefinite referent. Seen this way, the form-meaning mismatch does not have any direct influence on the original referential function of personal pronouns, referring to a definite person, despite the fact that their referent is not the original one. On the contrary, the impersonal extension shifts the originally specific reference of personal pronouns to a general one unrelated to a specific entity. Helmbrecht’s hypotheses, either the person value shift or the number value shift, are apparently based on the form-meaning mismatch among personal pronouns.

A question naturally arises with respect to Helmbrecht’s hypotheses presented above: would the use of personal pronouns as impersonal reference possibly become grammaticalized?

In the literature on grammaticalization, the most classical claim is perhaps that grammaticalization sets in with the semantic generalization of the lexical items (Hopper & Traugott, 2003). In other words, the meanings of lexical items subject to grammaticalization are usually quite general: The more specific a lexical item’s meaning is, the more difficult the item would become grammaticalized. Thus, from a theoretical viewpoint, it does not seem wrong to say that the impersonal extension can become grammaticalized as well, perhaps even more easily, which can be evidenced by the uses of Chinese 2SG and 3SG pronouns.

A. Grammaticalization of Chinese 2SG Pronoun

In general, Chinese 2SG pronoun, as is pointed out in the literature (Chao, 1968; Lü, 1985; Biq, 1991), is semantically generalized to the extent that it can take reference to an indefinite group in addition to a specific hearer, in the following two conditions. First, consider the impersonally semantic generalization within a construction. “Grammaticalization frequently involves a trend for an item to turn into part of a paradigm of fixed semantic and structural function” (Eckardt, 2012, p. 2677). The impersonal use of 2SG pronoun originates from a particular construction appearing in Tang Dynasty, where it is placed after a set of verbs meaning ‘no matter’ (henceforth NMV), such as *ren/cong/ping/rao/sui* in Chinese (cf. Chen, 2009).

As far as the [NMV + *ni* ‘you’] construction is concerned, it is necessary to spell out the structural context in which the pronoun’s impersonal use occurs. Based on the authentic data, the distribution of this construction can be classified into three patterns: [NMV + *ni* + VP] (*ni* serves as the subject of the verb, referring to either the hearer or a generalized group), [NMV + *ni* + NP] (*ni* is related cataphorically to the noun phrase) and [NMV + *ni* + clause] (*ni* refers to the propositional content of the clause), as exemplified by (16) - (18), respectively.

- (16) 任你横说竖说，未是宗门苗裔。南宋贻藏主《古宿尊语录》
 ren ni heng shuo shu
 no matter generalized group in this way explain in that way
 shuo, wei shi zongmen miaoyi.
 explain not SHI religious sect descendant
 ‘No matter how you explain, it is unchanged that you are not the descendant of this religious sect’ (Quotation from *Gusuzun* by Ze Cang Zhu, Southern Song Dynasty).
- (17) 任你英雄好汉，不能插翅飞腾。明代施耐庵《水浒传》
 ren ni yingxionghaohan, bu neng chachi
 no matter cataphora heroes not able to with wing
 feiteng.
 fly
 ‘No matter what the heroes they are, nobody is able to escape’ (*Outlaws of the Marsh* by Naian Shi, Ming Dynasty).
- (18) 任你白云朝岳顶，争奈青山不展眉。南宋普济《五灯会元》

ren **ni** baiyun chao yueding zhengnai qingshan
 no matter cataphora cloud call on hilltop yet mountain
 bu zhanmei.
 not beam with joy
 ‘No matter how the cloud wants to call on the hilltop, yet the mountain is completely uninterested in it’ (*The Collection of Five Chan Biographies* by Pu Ji, Southern Song Dynasty).

In (16), the 2SG pronoun, despite its indefinite reference to a generalized group, apparently serves as the subject of the following verb phrase *heng shuo shu shuo* ‘explain exhaustively’. A cataphoric relation presented in (17) between *ni* ‘you’ and *yingxionghaohan* ‘heroes’ is licensed by the appositive structure constructed by them. (18) shows that the 2SG pronoun, cataphorically related to the propositional content of the subsequent clause *baiyun chao yueding* ‘the cloud wants to call on the hilltop’, does not take reference to any specific entity as in (17) and thus does not have any lexical content at all.

Sentences like the above show that 2SG pronoun functionally extends from the deictic category to the cataphoric one, with its semantic bleaching from the specific hearer to an unfixed referent. This extension embodies in two specific aspects: On the one hand, morphosyntactically, it is a clause (rather than a noun or noun phrase as shown in (18)) that 2SG pronoun establishes the appositive relation with; on the other hand, semantically, 2SG pronoun takes reference to either human or inanimate entities, as can be seen in the example below:

(19) 任你山根石脚，都要凿开。明代褚人获《隋唐演义》
 ren **ni** shan gen shi jiao dou yao zaokai
 no matter cataphora mountain root stone foot all need chip out
 ‘All of them, no matter what they are, even the hardest part of mountain and stone, need be chipped out’ (*Romance of the Sui-Tang Empires* by Renhuo Chu, Qing Dynasty).

(19) looks similar to examples like (17) in that they both have the same postpositive constituent. As has been discussed above, the 2SG pronoun in (19) could thus be analyzed in a similar way, that is, *ni* ‘you’ is related to the subsequent noun phrase *shan gen shi jiao* ‘the hardest part of mountain and stone’. However, the dissimilarity between them is striking: the constituent *yingxionghaohan* ‘heroes’ in (17), in spite of the indefinite referent, semantically remains the animate property of the pronoun, while what *ni* ‘you’ refers to in (19) deviates substantially from its original value.

Second, apart from the impersonal use within the construction discussed above, 2SG pronoun can mean an indefinite referent (see, e.g., Chao 1968), as in (20).

(20) 那些孩子闹得叫你不能专心做事。
 naxie haizi naode jiao **ni**
 those children make such a noise make generalized group
 buneng zhuanxin zuoshi.
 unable to concentrate on work
 ‘Those children make such a noise, it makes you (me, one) unable to concentrate on your (my, one’s) work’ (Chao, 1968, p. 659).

Based on the impersonal generalization, 2SG pronoun in Sinitic languages, such as Beijing Mandarin dialect, has been further grammaticalized as a discourse marker (Zhang & Fang, 1996), which is called “metalinguistic use” in the literature (cf. Biq, 1991). Consider (21), where *ni* ‘you’ refers to neither a specific referent, nor any cataphoric content.

(21) 你比如说，中国的过去就有这个问题。
ni birushuo, Zhongguo de guoqu jiu you
 non-referential for example China DE past just have
 zhege wenti.
 this-CL problem
 ‘For example, in the past China had this problem’ (Biq, 1991, p. 315).

The 2SG pronoun in this case performs the vocative function, in the sense that omitting it here has nothing to do with the propositional content of the whole sentence. However, *ni* ‘you’ performs some particular pragmatic function, like catching the hearer’s attention and showing the speaker’s emphasis (Biq, 1991) or introducing new content to explore a previous topic (Fang, 2009), in everyday conversation.

B. Grammaticalization of Chinese 3SG Pronoun

Let us now turn to the grammaticalization of 3SG pronoun *ta* ‘he/she/it’. In Chinese, *ta* is more widely used than *wo* ‘I’ and *ni* ‘you’ in that it can refer to person, object and event, indicating that its referential function becomes more generalized than a typical third-person pronoun referring to a third party only (Zhang & Fang, 1996).

Moreover, 3SG pronoun, as has been pointed out in Lü (1985), can be used impersonally as in the [V + *ta*] construction, and its structural context can be spelt out as follows:

- a) [yu/gei ‘give’ + *ta* + CL + N]: *ta* seemingly refers to a person, but it is difficult to determine who he/she is;
- b) [monosyllabic V + *ta* + (NUM) + CL (especially *ge*) + N]: *ta* does not have any lexical content, but performs an

emphatic function;

c) [NMV + *ta* + Clause]: *ta* is cataphorically related to the event conveyed by the clause.

Consider the examples below. (22) represents the first construction, with *ta* construed as taking an indefinite reference. (23) shows that *ta* is related to nothing at all. (24) exemplifies the third one in which *ta* refers to the event of *linyē luò* ‘leaf falls’ in effect.

(22) 给他个见道就走。

Gei **ta** ge jian dao jiu zou.
give indefinite CL see road just walk
‘Walk by all means in the sight of road.’

(23) 把荷花画他几枝。

Ba hehua hua **ta** ji zhi.
BA lotus draw non-referential some CL
‘Draw a picture of lotus.’

(24) 秋到任他林叶落，春来从你树开花。

Qiu dao ren **ta** linye luo, chun lai
autumn arrive no matter cataphora leaf fall spring come
cong **ni** shu kaihua.
no matter cataphora tree bloom
‘No matter that the leaf falls in autumn as well as the tree blooms in spring’

(Lü 1985, p. 18-24).

The examples presented above reveal the extent to which 3SG pronoun becomes grammaticalized within these constructions. Precisely, *ta* serves the structural function as an auxiliary, without any specific content. Note that 3SG pronoun, despite previous discussions, can still be construed as a specific third party in the first two patterns, that is, it depends on the particular context whether *ta* serves as a personal pronoun or a grammatical constituent.

Like *ni* ‘you’, *ta* can also function as a discourse marker in Beijing Mandarin dialect. Consider (25), where the 3SG pronoun is not intended to have any referent at all, anaphorically or cataphorically, but to construct a new topic opposed to the previous one.

(25) 您瞧我这小辫不顺眼，他我还不顺心呢。老舍《茶馆》

nin qiao wo zhe xiaobian bu shunyan,
2SG.polite see 1SG this plait not pleasing to the eye
ta wo hai bu shunxin ne.
discourse marker 1SG also not satisfactory PAR
‘Not only you but I feel annoyance about my plait’ (*Teahouse* by Lao She).

The observation and discussion presented above so far points to the conclusion that the impersonal uses of personal pronouns, at least in Chinese, can gradually become grammaticalized as well, which runs contrary to Helmbrecht’s hypotheses.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this article we have shown that Chinese personal pronouns can be non-prototypically used beyond Helmbrecht’s typological generalization on European languages. We have addressed the potential problems with Helmbrecht’s grammaticalization hypotheses (which are based on the form-meaning mismatch among personal pronouns only), pointing out that non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns with impersonal meanings can become grammaticalized both in theory and practice. Nevertheless, it should be stressed that we have no intention of devaluing Helmbrecht’s study which has not only broadened our perspective on non-prototypical uses of personal pronouns, but redefined the research direction of grammaticalization (Hu, 2018).

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The Translation of Quranic Metaphorical Expressions From Arabic Into English

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Abstract—The current study aims at assessing the translation of metaphors in three English translations of the Holy Quran, namely, Al-Hilali & Khan (2000), Y. Ali (2004), and Abdel Haleem (2005). In particular, it investigates the translation strategies adopted by the three translators to render ten Quranic metaphorical expressions into English based on Newmark's (1988) metaphor translation strategies. Each Quranic metaphor is examined in its context based on the two tafsir (exegesis) books: Tafsir al-Jalalayn and Tanwir al-Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbass. The translation strategies employed in the three English translations are assessed in terms of their suitability. The results indicated that the most frequently used strategies to render Quranic metaphors are reproducing the same image in the TL literally, converting metaphor into sense, translating metaphor by simile keeping the image, converting metaphor into simile plus sense, and reproducing the same metaphor combined with sense, respectively. The study concluded that the most efficient translation is the one provided by Al-Hilali & Khan (2000) as they tried to retain the metaphorical image.

Index Terms—Sense, Translation, Metaphor, Translation Strategy, Tafsir Books

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation is a process that enables us to convey a message from a source language (SL) into an equivalent target language (TL). Translating a text is a challenging task as the translator encounters several difficulties, such as understanding the source text (ST), the culture of the source language, the culture of the target language, the type of text and readership, etc. Newmark (1988, p. 81) posited that translation methods differ from translation procedures in which translation methods are related to whole texts, whereas translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language.

Newmark (1988, pp. 45-47) suggested the following methods of translation: (1) Word-for-word translation indicates preserving the SL word order is preserved and the words are translated into their most common meanings out of context. (2) Literal translation involves converting the SL's grammatical constructions into their nearest TL equivalents. However, the lexical words are translated out of context. (3) Faithful translation produces the same contextual meaning of the original text. (4) Semantic translation is similar to 'faithful translation', but it considers the aesthetic value of the SL text. (5) Adaptation is the freest form of translation, and it is used mainly for plays and poetry in which the SL culture is converted to the TL culture. (6) Free translation produces the TL text without maintaining the style, form, or content of the original. (7) Idiomatic translation conveys the 'message' of the original by the use of idioms which exist in the original. (8) Communicative translation conveys the exact contextual meaning of the original in which both content and language are comprehended easily by readers.

Apparently, translating figures of speech such as metaphors is problematic. According to the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (2015), "metaphor is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase that ordinarily designates one thing is used to designate another, thus making an implicit comparison".

Translating sacred texts is a difficult task especially the Holy Quran since Arabic is a rhetorical language. Metaphor is part of the Quranic rhetoric which is considered more complicated to be translated. Metaphorical expressions have to be translated appropriately to convey the original meaning of the Quranic text precisely and accurately and to show the purpose behind using these metaphorical images.

This may explain the growing research interest in assessing the translation strategies of the Holy Quran which are adopted by translators (Ereksoussi, 2014; Alshehab, 2015; Elimam, 2016; Alama, 2018; Al-Sowaidi et al., 2021). Najjar (2012) explored the challenges of translating metaphors of the Quran by assessing the three English versions of the Holy Quran translations. The study concluded that the three selected English versions of the Holy Quran have failed to convey the meaning of Quranic metaphors. The meaning is often mistranslated and misunderstood by English readers.

Ereksoussi (2014, p. 89) investigated the translation procedures for rendering metaphors in the Holy Quran. He concluded that "the most appropriate strategy is the production of the same metaphor in the TL provided that it enjoys the same familiarity in the TL culture. This is because any change in form would lead to a change in the meaning

configuration". The other two appropriate but less preferred strategies are the substitution of a metaphor by its simile or its sense.

Alshehab (2015, p. 303) analyzed two English Translations of Arabic metaphors of ten verses of the Holy Quran. The first is the English translation of the Holy Quran by Mohammad Al Hilali and Mohammad Khan, and the second is the English Translation of the Holy Quran by Talal Itani. He concluded that "the translations of Arabic metaphors in the chosen verses by both translators are accurate and precise. Both of them followed the literal method of reproducing the same image in the TL which lies under the semantic type".

Elimam (2016, p. 6) examined the translation of metaphors in three English translations of the Holy Quran: Al-Hilali and Khan (2000), Ali (2001), and Ali (2004) by adopting Newmark's (1988) metaphor translation strategies. The results indicated that the most common strategies are reproducing the same metaphorical image in the TL literally and then converting metaphor into sense. The researcher revealed that translators should first use different tafsir books to have a better understanding of the meaning of the text and the messages behind any metaphorical expressions. The researcher concluded that "Newmark's third strategy, faithful translation, emerges as the most appropriate for rendering Quranic metaphor into English".

Ibrahim (2017, p. 14) assessed the translation of metaphors in the Holy Quran and examined the challenges encountering translators in translating the metaphoric expressions in the Holy Qur'an. In particular, the researcher assessed two English translations of the Holy Quran: the first is the translation of the meaning of the Holy Quran in the English language by Grand Shaykh, Professor Hassan Qaribullah & Shsykh, Ahmed Darwish and the second is the English translations of the Holy Quran by Dr. Muhammad Muhsin Khan & Dr. Muhammad Tagi-ud-Din Al-Hilali. The researcher concluded that "the translators in some samples failed to reproduce the same image and effect of the original metaphor to the target text; they rendered these metaphors literally without reproducing the intended meaning behind these metaphoric expressions".

Rijal (2017) investigated translation strategies of metaphor found in Quran Surah Al Imran in Yusuf Ali's English version and the Ministry of Religious Affairs' Indonesian version. The main findings revealed that both the English and Indonesian translators render the metaphor by producing the same image in the target language and converting the metaphor to its sense; whereas combining both metaphor and sense is only used in the Indonesian version.

Alama (2018) assessed four different English translations of thirty verses representing three types of metaphor by adopting Newmark's (1988) metaphor translation strategies. The researcher found that literal translation is the most appropriate method for translating Quranic metaphors since it keeps both the direct and indirect meanings of the metaphor. However, linguistic and cultural constraints might prevent the translator from adopting this strategy. Thus, there is a need to use footnotes in Qur'an translations to provide the background information needed for filling any cultural gaps.

Diabi (2018) investigated the techniques of translating Quranic metaphors mentioned in Surah Al-Baqarah (The cow) based on Newmark's (1988) metaphor translation strategies. The translation is provided by the Egyptian researcher Khalifa (1981). The literal translation is mainly used by Khalifa in his translation. Accordingly, Khalifa fails to convey the same meaning as he translates the meaning literally in the target language.

Al-Sowaidi et al. (2021, p. 161) examined the translation of Quranic conceptual metaphors in two Quranic translations. The study concluded that "most of the conceptual metaphors under scrutiny have been literally translated into English, which is frequently inaccurate. Therefore, conceptualizations of some Quranic metaphors are often lost in translation".

The current study contributes to the body of already existing literature on assessing the translation of Quranic metaphorical expressions into English. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, the translations of the selected Quranic metaphors have never been assessed before. In addition, this study is the first study that assesses the translation of metaphorical expression in Haleem's (2005) Quranic translation. In particular, the present study seeks answers to the following research questions:

(1) What are the most frequently used strategies to render Quranic metaphors in the following English translations of the Holy Quran, namely, Al-Hilali and Khan (2000), Ali (2004), and Haleem (2005)?

(2) Which one of the three English translations of the Holy Quran is considered the best translation to render Quranic metaphors?

II. METAPHOR: A BRIEF ACCOUNT

The term metaphor is defined in the Online Merriam-Webster dictionary as "a figure of speech in which a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea is used in place of another to suggest a likeness or analogy between them". According to Oxford Dictionary, the origin of the word metaphor refers back to the Greek word "metaphora" which means "to transfer".

Defining metaphor as a figure of speech represents the traditional view which considers metaphor as a rhetorical and stylistic device of language. This view refers back to Aristotle's perspectives which confine the use of metaphors to the literature as metaphor is of great aesthetic value both in poetry and in prose (Finch, 2000, p. 170).

Contrary to the traditional view which considers metaphor as a rhetorical device, Lakoff and Johnson in their book *Metaphors we live by* (1980, p. 3) have introduced the term conceptual metaphor in which metaphor is considered as

"pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action". They have found that "our ordinary conceptual system is metaphorical in nature" (ibid: p. 4).

Kövecses (2010, p. 4) stated that metaphor in the cognitive linguistic view is defined as "understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain". Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 5) maintained that "the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another". Their perspectives on metaphor illustrate that metaphor does not belong only to language but also to cognition.

Kövecses (2010) maintained that there are three types of metaphors according to their cognitive functions: structural, orientation, and ontological metaphors. Structural metaphors enable speakers to understand the target domain via the source domain based on the conceptual mappings between aspects of both domains. For example, the target domain "time passing" is understood in terms of the following source domain: "motion of an object".

Lakoff and Johnson (2003, p. 15) considered structural metaphors as "cases where one concept is metaphorically structured in terms of another". The third type of metaphor is ontological metaphors. According to Kövecses (2010, p. 38), ontological metaphors enable speakers to understand experiences via objects, substances, and containers without identifying or explaining exactly what kind of object, container, or substance is meant. Moreover, he considered personification which enables speakers to give human characteristics to non-human objects as a kind of ontological metaphor. For example, his theory *explained* to me the behavior of chickens raised in factories. The last kind of metaphor is the orientational metaphor. According to Kövecses (2010), orientational metaphors have something to do with human spatial orientations, such as up-down, and center-periphery.

Newmark (1988) provided a classification of Metaphors in English in which metaphors are categorized into lexicalized metaphors and non-lexicalized metaphors. Lexicalized metaphors are instances of language use which are recognized as metaphorical, however, their meanings are language-specific and fixed. Lexicalized metaphors can be classified into dead metaphors which are no longer normally recognized as metaphors, stock metaphors as idioms, and recent metaphors which are considered neologism.

On the other hand, the meaning of non-lexicalized metaphors differs from one context to another since they are not fixed. They can be classified into original metaphor (John is a fox), conventionalized metaphors that are based on cultural-linguistic norms, and adapted metaphor that is more governed by linguistic conventions (Newmark, 1988).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data

Three English translations of the Holy Quran were chosen: The first is the Translation of the Meanings of the Noble Qur'an in the English Language by Mohammad AlHilali and Mohammad Khan, the second is the Holy Quran: English Translation of the meanings by Abdullah Yusuf Ali, and the third is the Quran: A New Translation by M. A. S Abde Haleem. The following two books of tafsir are used to interpret the meaning of verses in general and the meaning of metaphors in particular: (1) Tafsir al-Jalalayn by Jalal ad-Din al-Maḥalli and Jalal ad-Din as-Suyuti and its translation by Hamza (2007). (2) Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas by al-Fayruz Aabadi and its translation by Guezzou (2007). Then, a sample of 10 Holy verses with their English translations was selected to be compared and analyzed.

B. Data Analysis Procedures

The researcher examined the translation of ten Quranic metaphors into English through the following steps:

(1) Clarifying the meaning of the verse and providing any contextual information needed to have a better understanding of the verse based on the following two tafsirs: Tafsir al-Jalalayn and Tanwir al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbass.

(2) Identifying the types of metaphors used in the ten Quranic verses.

(3) Identifying the translation strategy adopted by the three translators according to Newmark's (1988) metaphor translation strategies. They are as follows:

- 1) Reproducing the same image in the TL literally,
- 2) Replacing the image in the SL with a standard TL image,
- 3) Translating metaphor by simile keeping the image,
- 4) Translation of metaphor (or simile) by simile plus sense, or occasionally metaphor plus sense,
- 5) Conversion of metaphor to sense,
- 6) Reproducing the same metaphor combined with sense, and
- 7) Deleting the metaphor completely.

(4) Assessing the whole translations by making a comparison between the three translations in terms of their impact on the target reader and their relation to the original meaning.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Example 1, Source Language, Surah An-Naba' (The Tidings)

Tafsir al-Jalalayn

"أَلَمْ نُجْعَلِ الْأَرْضَ مِهَادًا" سورة النبا (6)

"Have we not made the earth a cradle, a bed, like a cradle," (Hamza, 2007, p. 716).

Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

"Allah then mentioned the blessings. He bestowed upon them, saying: (Have We not made the earth an expanse) and a place to sleep," (Guezzou 2007, p.722).

Target Translation TT One

"Have we not made the earth as a wide expanse" (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

Yusuf Ali Adopted Newmark's fourth translation strategy in which metaphor, i.e. "مهاد" was converted into a simile plus sense. Accordingly, the earth was depicted as a wide open area. The whole metaphorical image of depicting the earth as a cradle was lost in this translation.

Target Translation TT Two

"Have we not made the earth as a bed" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

Al-Hilali & Khan translated the underlined metaphor by adopting the third strategy in which the metaphor "مهاد" was translated into a simile by retaining the ST image in which the earth is shown as a bed.

Target Translation TT Three

"Did we not make the earth smooth" (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

Abdal Haleem adopted Newmark's fifth strategy in which the ST metaphorical image "مهاد" was rendered into sense. Thus, the earth was depicted as being smooth. The metaphorical image of representing the earth as a bed was lost completely.

Assessment

The most acceptable translation was provided by Al-Hilali & Khan in which the ST metaphorical image was retained. Rendering the same metaphor in this verse is recommended since the image can be easily understood in the TL and there is always a purpose behind using any metaphor. On the other hand, the other translators were not successful in conveying the metaphorical image. Yusuf Ali who translated the metaphor into a simile plus sense and Abdal Haleem who rendered the metaphor into sense ignored the metaphorical image.

B. Example 2, Source Language, Surah An-Naba' (The Tidings)

"وَجَعَلْنَا اللَّيْلَ لِبَاسًا" سورة النبا: (10)

Tafsir al-Jalalayn

"and made the night a cloak, to cover you with its darkness," (Hamza, 2007, p. 715).

Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

"(And have appointed the night as a cloak) and it is said this means: a dwelling," (Guezzou, 2007, p.723).

Target Translation TT One

"And made the night as a covering" (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark's third strategy of translation in which the metaphorical image was rendered as a simile by retaining the image of depicting the night as a cover. However, the translator did not add any description or explanation of the word "cover".

Target Translation TT

Two

"And we have made the night as a covering (through its darkness)" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark's fourth strategy in which the underlined metaphor was rendered by a simile plus sense. Al-Hilali & Khan illustrated how the night is like a cover by providing the sense between parentheses.

Target Translation TT Three

"The night as a cover" (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark's third strategy of translation in which the metaphorical image was rendered as a simile by retaining the general ST image, and depicting the night as a cover. However, the translator did not add any description or explanation of the word "cover".

Assessment

The most successful translation was provided by Al-Hilali & Khan since the ST image was kept along with its sense to guarantee a full understanding of the image by the TT readers. By adopting this strategy, Al-Hilali & Khan were able to convey both the metaphorical image and the full meaning of the verse. However, none of the translators explained the metaphorical image. Accordingly, the full meaning of the metaphorical image may not be understood by the target reader. Yusuf Ali and Abdal Haleem were supposed to render the exact ST image and provide a brief explanation in which the night was depicted as a cloak that covers things as night does by its darkness.

C. Example 3, Source Language, Surah Al-Mutaffifin (Defrauding)

"كَلَّا بَلْ رَانَ عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ مَا كَانُوا يَكْسِبُونَ" سورة المطففين (14)

Tafsir Al-Jalavn

"No indeed! — a deterrent and a warning against saying such [things]. Rather there has slayed, engulfed, their hearts, covering them like rust that which they earned, of acts of disobedience" (Hamza, 2007, p. 731).

Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

"(Nay) truly, O Muhammad, (but that which they have earned) which they have done and said in their state of idolatry (is rust upon their hearts) Allah has sealed the hearts of those who disbelieve in the Day of Judgement; it is also said that the accumulation of sins blackens the heart and this is what is meant by the rust of hearts" (Guezzou, 2007, p. 739).

Target Translation One

"{By no means! but on their hearts is the stain of the fill which they do!}" (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translator adopted the fifth strategy in which the metaphorical image was converted into sense.

Target Translation Two

"{[Nay! But on their hearts is the Ran (covering of sins and evil deeds) which they used to earn}" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translators adopted the sixth strategy in which the same metaphor was reproduced accompanied by sense. The translators used the transliteration strategy by mentioning the word 'Ran' and providing an explanation of its meaning between parentheses in which "Ran" means sins and evils. However, the ST metaphorical image of depicting sins that cover the heart as the rust which covers a metal cannot be conveyed to TL readers through the transliterated word 'Ran'.

Target Translation Three

"No indeed! Their hearts are encrusted with what they have done" (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translator adopted the second strategy in which the image in the SL was replaced with a standard TL image. The TL image showed what those people have done has formed a crust over their hearts. Thus, they do not believe in what you say.

Assessment

The most acceptable translation was done by Abdal Haleem since the SL image was replaced with a TL image. Al-Hilali & Khan's translation was not successful since the transliteration failed to convey the ST image. However, none of the translators was able to convey the exact ST image.

D. Example 4, Source Language, Surah Al- Munafiqun (The Hypocrites)

"ذَلِكَ بِأَنَّهُمْ آمَنُوا ثُمَّ كَفَرُوا فَطُبِعَ عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ فَهُمْ لَا يَفْقَهُونَ" المنافقون (3)

Tafsir Al-Jalavn

"That, namely, their evil deed, is because they believed, by [affirming faith only with] the tongue, then disbelieved, in [their] hearts, that is to say, they persist in harboring disbelief in it; therefore, their hearts have been stamped, sealed, with disbelief. Hence they do not understand, faith" (Hamza, 2007, p. 667).

Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

"(That) which I have mentioned regarding the hypocrites (is because they believed) outwardly, (then disbelieved) and became firm in their disbelief inwardly, (therefore their hearts are sealed) as a punishment for their disbelief and hypocrisy (so that they understand not) the truth or guidance" (Guezzou, 2007, p. 669).

Target Translation One

"{That is because they believed, then they rejected Faith: So **a seal was set on their hearts**: therefore, they understand not}" (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark's first translation of reproducing the same image in the TL literally. They do not believe in Allah as if there were a seal on their hearts which prevents them from believing in God. The metaphorical image was rendered by using the noun 'seal'.

Target Translation Two

"That is because they believe, and then disbelieved; therefore, their hearts are sealed, so they understand not" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark's first translation of reproducing the same image in the TL literally. The metaphorical image was rendered by using the passive verb 'sealed'.

Target Translation Three

"Because they professed faith and then rejected it, so their hearts have been sealed and they do not understand" (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark's first translation of reproducing the same image in the TL literally. The metaphorical image was rendered by using the verb 'seal'.

Assessment

All translators were successful in rendering the same ST image since they conveyed both the metaphorical image and the full meaning of the verse.

E. Example 5, Source Language, Surah Al-Isra (The Night Journey)

"وَجَعَلْنَا عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ أَكِنَّةً أَنْ يَفْقَهُوهُ وَفِي آذَانِهِمْ وَقْرًا وَإِذَا ذُكِرْتِ رَبِّكَ فِي الْقُرْآنِ وَحْدَهُ وَلَوْ أَنَّ عَلَى أَذْيَارِهِمْ نُفُورًا" (سورة الإسراء (46))

Tafsir al-Jalayn

"And we place upon their hearts veils, covers, lest they should understand it, lest they should understand the Qur'an, in other words, and so [in this way] they do not understand it, and in their ears deafness, a heaviness, thus they cannot hear it. And when you mention your Lord alone in the Qur'an, they turn their backs in aversion, to it" (Hamza, 2007, p. 301).

Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

"(And we place upon their hearts veils) coverings (lest they should understand it) such that they do not understand the Truth, (and in their ears a deafness; and when thou makest mention of thy Lord alone in the Qur'an) saying: there is no god but Allah, (they turn their backs) they return to their idols and resume the worship of their deities (in aversion) of what you say" (Guezzou, 2007, p. 305).

Target Translation one

"And we put coverings over their hearts [and minds] lest they should understand the Qur'an, and deafness into their ears: when thou dost commemorate thy Lord and Him alone in the Qur'an, they turn on their backs, fleeing [from the Truth]" (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark's first strategy of reproducing the same image in the TL literally in which the hearts of disbelievers were depicted as if a covering were placed around their hearts.

Target Translation Two

"And we have put covering over their hearts" lest they should understand the Quran, and in their ears deafness. And when we make mention of our Lord alone [La ilaha illallah (none has the right to be worshiped but Allah) Islamic monotheism التوحيد لله] in the Quran, they turn their backs, fleeing in extreme dislike" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark's first strategy of reproducing the same image in the TL literally. The hearts of disbelievers were depicted as if a covering is put around them.

Target Translation Three

"We have put covers on their hearts that prevent them from understanding it, and heaviness in their ears" (Abdal Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark's first strategy of reproducing the same image in the TL literally. The hearts of disbelievers were depicted as if a covering is put around them.

Assessment

The same strategy was adopted in the three translated versions. It was a good strategy to be adopted since the image is easily understood in the target language. By adopting this strategy, the translators were able to convey both the metaphorical image and the full meaning of the verse.

F. Example 6, Source Language, Surah the Overthrowing (Al-Takwir)

"وَالصُّبْحُ إِذَا تَنَفَّسَ" التكويد (18)

Tafsir al-Jalayn

"and [by] the dawn as it breathes, [as] it extends until it becomes broad daylight" (Hamza, 2007, p. 729).

Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

"And the breath of morning) and when the morning and brightens come; Allah swore by all these" (Guezzou, 2007, p. 735).

Target Translation One

"And the Dawn as it breathes away the darkness" (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark's sixth strategy of translating metaphor in which the translator reproduced the same metaphor combined with sense. The dawn was conceptualized as a person who breathes since the light that comes out from the dawn is like the breath that comes out from human beings.

Target Translation Two

"And by the dawn as it brightens" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark's fifth strategy of translating metaphors in which metaphor was converted into sense. The metaphorical image of conceptualizing dawn as a human being who breathes was lost in this translation completely.

Target Translation Three

“by **the dawn** that softly **breathes**” (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark’s first strategy of translating metaphors in which the same image was reproduced in the TL literally. The translator did not add any description or explanation of the metaphorical image. This metaphorical image was not used in the target language. Accordingly, the full meaning of the verse was not conveyed to the target readers.

Assessment

The translation provided by Yusuf Ali seems to be the best since he used the sixth strategy of translating metaphor in which the same metaphor was reproduced along with sense. The explanation provided by the translator conveyed the exact meaning of the metaphorical image in the target language. On the other hand, the translation strategy used by Al-Hilali and Khan was not a good choice simply because converting the metaphorical image into sense means the whole metaphor is neglected, and thus the exact meaning of the verse is not conveyed. Abdal Haleem used Newmark’s first strategy of translating metaphors in which the same image was reproduced in the TL literally. This metaphorical image is not used in the target language. Accordingly, the translator failed to convey the exact meaning of the verse including the metaphorical image.

G. Example 7, Source Language, Surah Al-Kahf (The Cave)

"وَتَرَكْنَا بَعْضَهُمْ يَوْمَئِذٍ يَمُوجُ فِي بَعْضٍ وَنُفِخَ فِي الصُّورِ فَجَمَعْنَاهُمْ جَمْعًا" الكهف (99)

Tafsir al-Jalayn

“And on that day, the day of their coming forth, We shall let some of them surge against others, mixing with one another, on account of their multitude, and the Trumpet, namely, the Horn signalling the Resurrection, shall be blown and We shall gather them, namely, creatures, in one place, on the Day of Resurrection, a [single] gathering”. (Hamza, 2007, p. 325)

Tanwir al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

“(And on that day) the day when Gog and Magog break free; and it is also said: the day of return from Byzantium in that they were not able to defeat it, (We shall let some of them surge against others, and the Trumpet will be blown. Then we shall gather them together in one gathering)” (Guezou, 2007, p. 326).

Target translation One

“On that day we shall leave them to surge like waves on one another; the trumpet will be blown. And we shall collect them all together” (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark’s third strategy of translating metaphors in which the metaphor was converted into a simile keeping the same image in the TL.

Target Translation Two

“And on that Day (i.e. the Day Yajooj and Majooj (Gog and Magog) will come out), We shall leave them to surge like waves on one another, and the Trumpet will be blown, and We shall collect them all together” (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark’s third strategy of translating metaphors in which the metaphor was converted into a simile keeping the same image in the TL.

Target Translation Three

“On that Day, We shall let them surge against each other like waves and then the Trumpet will be blown and we shall gather them all together” (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark’s third strategy of translating metaphors in which the metaphor was converted into a simile keeping the same image in the TL.

Assessment

All translators have succeeded in conveying the meaning and the metaphorical image in the verse.

H. Example 8, Source Language, Surah Ash-Shura (Consultation)

"مَنْ كَانَ يُرِيدُ حَرْثَ الْآخِرَةِ نَزِدْ لَهُ فِي حَرْثِهِ وَمَنْ كَانَ يُرِيدُ حَرْثَ الدُّنْيَا نُؤْتِهِ مِنْهَا وَمَا لَهُ فِي الْآخِرَةِ مِنْ نَصِيبٍ" سورة الشورى (20)

Tafsir al-Jalayn

“And whoever desires, in return for his actions, the harvest of the Hereafter, in other words, its gains, and that is reward, We will enhance for him his harvest, by multiplying in it the good deed up tenfold or more; and whoever desires the harvest of this world, We will give him of it, without multiplying [any of it], [giving him] only what is his [preordained] share; but in the Hereafter he will have no share” (Hamza, 2007, p. 564).

Tanwir al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

“(Whoso desireth the harvest of the Hereafter) the reward of the Hereafter through his works for Allah, (We give him increase in its harvest) we give him increase in his reward; it is also said: We give him increase in his strength, activity and reward in the Hereafter. (And Whoso desireth the harvest of the world) and whoever desires the reward of the life of the world through the works that Allah has made obligatory upon 562 him, (We give him thereof) We give him of the

life of the world and drive away from him some of its hardship, (and he hath no portion) he has no reward (in the Hereafter) in Paradise because he did not work for Allah” (Guezzou, 2007, p. 561).

Target Translation One

“Any that desires the tilth of the Hereafter, We give increase in his tilth of this world; and to any that desires the tilth of this world, we grant somewhat thereof, but He has no share or lot in the hereafter” (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translator adopted Newmark’s first strategy of translating metaphors in which the same image was reproduced in the TL literally. The translators used the word ‘tilth’ to convey the same metaphorical image in the target language.

Target Translation Two

“Whosoever desires (with his deeds) the reward of the Hereafter, We give him increase in his reward, and whosoever desires the reward of this world (with his deeds), we give him thereof (what is written for him), and he has no portion in the Hereafter” (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark’s fifth strategy of translating metaphors in which metaphor was converted into sense. The translators used the literal word ‘reward’ in the target language to stand for the metaphor. The metaphorical image was completely lost in this translation.

Target Translation Three

“If anyone desires a harvest in the life to come, We shall increase it for him; if anyone desires a harvest in this world, We shall give him a share of it, but in the Hereafter he will have no share” (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark’s first strategy of translating metaphors in which the same image was reproduced in the TL literally. The translators used the word ‘harvest’ to convey the same metaphorical image in the target language. However, the same meaning is not conveyed in the target language. Thus, one has to check the meaning of the image in the SL to understand the intended meaning.

Assessment

Yusuf Ali and Abdal Haleem rendered the same metaphorical image in the target language. However, their translation did not convey the same meaning in the target language. Al-Hilali & Khan rendered the source metaphor into sense. The translation of Al-Hilali & Khan is acceptable although the metaphorical image is lost.

I. Example 9, Source Language, Surah Ash-Shura (Consultation)

"وَفِي عَادٍ إِذْ أَرْسَلْنَا عَلَيْهِمُ الرِّيحَ الْعَقِيمَ" الذاريات (41)

Tafsir al-Jalayn

“And [also] in, the destruction of, ‘Ād, was a sign, when We unleashed against them a barren wind, [a wind] which brings nothing of good, for it does not bear any rain and does not pollinate any trees; this [wind] was the west wind (al-dabūr)” (Hamza, 2007, p. 616).

Tanwir al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

“(And in (the tribe of) ‘Aad) the people of Hud ((there is a portent) when We sent) We set on them (the fatal wind against them) the severe wind in which there was no comfort for them, this is the west wind” (Guezzou, 2007, p. 614).

Target Translation one

“And in the add (people) (was another sign): Behold We sent against them the devastating wind” (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark’s fifth strategy of translating metaphors in which the metaphor is converted into sense and the descriptive adjective “devastating” is added to the wind. The whole metaphorical image was lost by adopting this translation strategy.

Target Translation Two

“And in Ad (there is also a sign) when we sent against them the barren wind” (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark’s first strategy of translating metaphors in which the same image was reproduced in the TL literally. However, the translators did not provide any explanation of the word “barren”.

Target Translation Three

“There is another sign in the Ad: We sent the life-destroying wind against them” (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translators adopted Newmark’s fifth strategy of translating metaphors in which the metaphor was converted into sense and the descriptive adjective “life-destroying” was added to the wind. The whole metaphorical image was lost by adopting this translation strategy.

Assessment

Yusuf Ali and Abdal Haleem dropped the metaphorical image in translation and were not able to convey it in the verse. Al-Hilali and Khan reproduced the metaphor literally in the TL. However, they did not provide any description of the word ‘barren’. Accordingly, there is difficulty in comprehending the image by non-Arabic readers.

J. Example 10, Source Language, Surah YaSeen (YaSeen)

"قَالُوا يَا وَيْلَنَا مَنْ بَعَثَنَا مِنْ مَرْقَدِنَا هَذَا مَا وَعَدَ الرَّحْمَنُ وَصَدَقَ الْمُرْسَلُونَ" (يس 52)

Tafsir al-Jalayn

"They, the disbelievers among them, will say, 'O (yā is for calling attention [to something]) woe to us! (waylanā means halākanā, '[O] our destruction!'), and it is a verbal noun which has no [regular] verbal conjugation) Who has raised us from our place of sleep? [they say this] because they will have been asleep in the interval between the two blasts and will not have been punished [yet]. This, that is, [this] raising, is that which the Compassionate One had promised and, regarding which, the messengers had spoken the truth': they affirm [this truth] when such affirmation is no longer of any benefit to them — but it is also said that this is said to them" (Hamza, 2007, p. 506).

Tanwir Al Miqbas min Tafsir Ibn Abbas

"(Crying) i.e. the disbelievers after they come out of their graves: (Woe upon us! Who hath raised us) who has awakened us (from our place of sleep?) And then some will say to others: (This is that which the Beneficent did promise) in the life of the world; it is also said that it is the angels, the guardian angels, who say: this is that which the Beneficent did promise on the tongue of the messengers in the life of the world, (and the messengers spoke truth) concerning resurrection after death" (Guezzou, 2007, p. 503).

Target Translation One

"They will say: Ah woe unto us! Who Hath raised us up from our bed of repose (A voice will say). This is what (Allah) Most Gracious had promised, and True was the word of the Messengers" (Ali, 2004).

Commentary

Beds of repose was the metaphor that was transformed into sense by the translator using Newmark's fifth metaphor translation strategy. To repose is to lie down and sleep. In the verse, the term مرقد 'sleeping' refers to death, therefore beds of repose could not accurately express the metaphor's full meaning.

Target Translation Two

"They will say: "Woe to us! Who has raised us up from **our place of sleep.**" (It will be said to them): "This is what the Most Beneficent (Allah) had promised, and the Messengers spoke truth!" (Al-Hilali & Khan, 2000).

Commentary

The translators utilized Newmark's first strategy of translating metaphors, which involves translating the same image literally into the target language (TL). The same metaphorical image was translated into the target language as "place of sleep" by the translators. Evidently, the word "sleep" was also employed metaphorically to symbolize death.

Target Translation Three

"They will say, 'Alas for us! Who has resurrected us **from our resting places?**' [They will be told], 'This is what the Lord of Mercy promised, and the messengers told the truth'" (Haleem, 2005).

Commentary

The translator used the fifth metaphor translation strategy proposed by Newmark, in which the metaphor was transformed into sense, serving as a resting place. Resting places don't accurately express the metaphor in the verse since the term مرقد, which is translated as "sleeping," in English refers to death.

Assessment

Al-Hilali and Khan applied the first Newmark (1988) strategy, which entails exactly replicating the identical image in the TL. Since "sleep" can also signify "death" in English, this strategy effectively communicated the metaphorical image as well as the verse's precise meaning. On the other side, Yusuf Ali and Abdal Haleem employed the fifth strategy, which was a poor decision, of turning the metaphor into sense. The verse's precise meaning and the metaphorical image were not rendered by using the literal interpretation of the expression.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study has assessed the translation of ten Quranic metaphorical expressions in three English translations of the Holy Quran by Al-Hilali and Khan (2000), Ali (2004), and Haleem (2005). The main findings revealed that the most frequently used strategies to render Quranic metaphors are reproducing the same image in the TL literally, converting metaphor into sense, translating metaphor into a simile keeping the image, converting metaphor into a simile plus sense, and reproducing the same metaphor accompanied by sense, respectively. The three translators do not always follow the same strategy in translating the same verse. Apparently, when the metaphorical image is translated literally into the target language, the intended meaning is lost. Furthermore, the metaphorical image is lost when it is translated into sense. The vast majority of translations of Quranic metaphors failed to convey the exact meaning of the metaphor. In addition, the translators have not kept the metaphorical image in the target language since they depend mainly on their understanding of the verses from different exegeses. This also may explain why some translators provided translations by an explanation as it is represented in the exegeses; they sometimes drop the metaphor completely since the scholar has not talked about that metaphor.

Basically, the translations examined in this study have succeeded in conveying the meaning of the verse. However, the most efficient translation is the one provided by Al-Hilali and Khan (2000) as they tried to retain the metaphorical image as much as possible. The study revealed that Newmark's (1988) third strategy, i.e. translating metaphor by simile keeping the image is the most efficient strategy to deal with Quranic metaphor.

The study concluded that the use of different exegeses of the Holy Quran is highly recommended to understand the meaning of the verse and to identify the embedded meaning of the metaphor. Future research may assess the English translations of a larger number of Quranic metaphors provided by other translators.

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Status of Rungus Language as an Indigenous Language Spoken by Rungus Ethnic Group in Eastern Malaysia

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Abstract—Language shift and language maintenance as contact phenomena have received considerable attention in the realm of linguistics. The current study investigated the status of Rungus language, language of Rungus ethnic group in east Malaysia, to find out the status of this language within the Rungus local community. Synchronous unstructured interviews were conducted with twenty five Rungus educated speakers (15 males, 10 females) to elicit their attitudes about their Rungus mother tongue. Thematic analysis showed that the low status of the heritage language vis-à-vis Malay and English is evidently shown in the participants' responses. This low status is due to various reasons such as parents' lack of literacy, language policy, and absence of the language in the Malaysian educational system. Results of this research could argue that Rungus language is endangered and it is recommended that Rungus minority should try to maintain their language by any means otherwise it will be subject to death.

Index Terms—Kudat, language shift, language maintenance, Malaysia, Rungus

I. INTRODUCTION

Sapir (1920, p. 7) defines language in his book: language, as "An Introduction to the Study of Speech" as "a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols". Language is mainly used for social communications, and societies as well as cultures could not be envisaged without language, which is the heart of human progress. Language is the core of the individuals' identity and their markers of belonging to special social groups (Foy, 2002; Sapir, 1929). In addition, language is considered as versatile code used to deliver desires, thoughts and experiences to others. Several relationships were detected between language and society, that is, social structure might influence or control the linguistic structure or behaviours of specific ethnic group; younger generations might have a specific repertoire which differs from older generations determined by various certain social and political requirements (Yule & Macdonald, 1990). Crystal (2003) explains that the language disappears when no one speaks it anymore, or when the last person who speaks that language dies. It is estimated that there are about 6,900 languages spoken today around the globe. Most of these languages could be classified as minority languages (Gordon & Hendrick, 2005). Over the past 200 years, it is estimated that half of the languages disappeared (Romaine, 2008). Furthermore, Crystal (2000) argued that half of the today languages will disappear by the end of next century. Hence, minorities are required to maintain their own languages.

Kingdom of Malaysia is an independent country in south East Asia. It is a multi-ethnic country; the 28 million populations consist of three main ethnic groups: Malay, the majority, Chinese and Indian in addition to other small groups especially in eastern Malaysia such as Rungus (Lasimbang & Kinajil, 2004). The current research paper is devoted to shed some light on the Rungus language which is the language of one of the indigenous ethnic groups living in Kudat, town in Sabah state located in eastern Malaysia. The investigation tries to understand the status of that language whether it is safe or endangered from a sociolinguistic perspectives highlighting the social and political factors that might affect the status of this language.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Any language loss, undoubtedly, will lead to the loss of all the cultural heritage of the people who speak that language, resulting in scarce and limited information about the nature and traditions of some speech communities. As Campbell (1994) explains, the language is depicted as a guardian of its speakers; and the conservation of these endangered languages enable us to understand more about cultures, oral literature, human values and more. The Rungus is a sub-group of Kadazan-Dusun ethnic group who primarily resides in Kudat province northern Sabah state, Malaysia. This ethnic group has a distinctive language, dress, architecture, customs, and oral literature. They comprise approximately 60,000 people. The Rungus language is considered as minor language that does not gain any support from the Malaysian government, since the Malaysian language policy, as it is known, strives to improve the Malay language and develop it and gives less support or ignores the other indigenous languages all over the country. Rungus may be found in three districts; Kudat, Pitas and Kota Marudu (Lasimbang & Kinajil, 2004).

Limited research has been conducted in the field of investigating the status of minority languages in Malaysia. For example, David (2017) investigated the reasons of language shift of some speech communities in peninsular Malaysia to other languages such as Malay or English. Findings showed that language policy is the main reason for this shift; Malaysian government supports Malay language as means for community integration and unity. Fishman (1991) argues that there are two main reasons for language shift; internal and external. The internal includes the lack of literacy among the members of specific speech community which, as a result, forbid transferring the language heritage from one generation to another. The external reason is the language policy; when the government supports one main language and ignores the other languages. It is of paramount significance for minorities to maintain their heritage languages, leading to preserve their heritage and cultural traits. Hence, to the best of researcher's knowledge there is scarcity of the research about Rungus language. Therefore, this study may give clearer picture about Rungus language, the mother tongue of Rungus ethnic group resides in Sabah, the east of Malaysia. The present study hopes to provide some useful information about how the Rungus people think toward their mother tongue and their general attitudes about it especially the younger generation.

III. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study aims to achieve the following objectives:

- 1- To find out to what extent Rungus people care about their mother tongue and try to maintain and develop it
- 2- To find out the attitudes of Rungus young generation about their mother tongue

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Reasons of Language Death*

Various reasons might lead to language death such as the social reasons. However, there are other natural reasons that might play role in the extinction of a specific language, including but not limited to hurricanes, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods and others. When small community is decimated by one of these natural factors, the language of that community will die and never come back. Moreover, the language of one specific speech community may die when the speakers of that language all die because of diseases or genocide, as happened with some Native American tribes upon their contact with European colonizers (Crystal, 2003; David, 2004; Lieberman, 1965).

The other significant issue that affects language is the cultural assimilation, which is considered by Crystal as a bigger threat for the minor languages than the natural factors. Cultural assimilation means when one community incorporated and assimilated with another strong community either culturally or linguistically, and as a result, the strong languages substituted the minor or weak languages in a specific speech community. For example, Spanish and Portuguese languages dominated the indigenous languages of the inhabitants of South America, and Arabic language suppressed a number of indigenous languages in North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa. Beside, native language could be lost when the minorities seek to fit with the culture of majority and neglect the heritage language (Sands et al., 2007). This argument is also firmly supported by Crawford (1998) who argues that the assimilation is major factor for death of languages or shifting some societies to other languages.

B. *The Importance of Diversity and Languages Maintenance*

It is agreed upon by most of the linguists that the death of the languages contributes to the death of the whole cultures that these languages present. To mention few, Romaine (2008) clarified that death of a specific language means the loss of centuries of human knowledge. Further, Avtans (2008) added that language expresses identity for those who speak it, and when some speech communities stop speaking their mother tongue, and assimilated with other strong communities, they are considered as loser for their identity, since the language is the main pillar that represents special identity for a specific speech community, and distinguish it from others.

Also the issue of diversity will disappear if the languages start to die respectively with the passing of time. Hale (1992) argues that linguistic diversity has a wide variety of languages and language types is very important to human intellectual life, because such diversity, provides a plenty of data for the linguists, and it also relate to the human activities that belong to the realm of art and culture. In addition, languages are considered as repositories of the histories, because they contribute to the sum of human knowledge. To maintain the groups' languages, family transmission is of great importance; and if this transmission fails, the heritage language will die within two generations (Sasse, 1992). Thus, the death of a language is a fast process not slow one (Denham & Lobeck, 2006). Consequently, Crystal (2003) commented that there are some steps could be taken by the speakers of the endangered language to protect them from extinction. These steps include but not limited to, increasing the prestige of the minority language in the dominant community, using the language in public services signs and advertising, using it to name places and road signs. In addition, and above all, the presence of the endangered language in the education system is very important factor that help the endangered language to thrive.

C. *The Demographic Map of Malaysia*

Malaysia is considered as a multi-lingual and multi ethnic country, since there are three main ethnic groups and more than 140 spoken languages in this country. These groups are; Malay, the majority followed by Chinese and Indians as well as other minorities especially in Sabah and Sarawak states, east of the country. Ethnic groups are illustrated in table 1 below (David, 2017).

TABLE 1
ETHNIC GROUPS OF MALAYSIA

1	Malay (or Muslim Malay)	50.1%
2	Chinese Malaysians	22.6%
3	Non-Malay Bumiputera and Other Indigenous Groups	11.8%
4	Indian Malaysians	6.7%
	Other Groups	8.8%

D. Language Policies in Malaysia

Language policies in Malaysia have been set after Malaysia gained its independence in 1957. It was clear the great focus was on the Malay as an official language, and leaving the other indigenous languages strive for survival by themselves. In an interview conducted by Gill (2003) with the Malaysian Prime Minister Mahathir Mohmd, when asked whether the government should support the teaching of minority languages in the country or not, he explained that supporting many languages will divide the country.

After Malaysia obtained its independence in 1957, Malay was established as the national language with the purpose of achieving national unity. Tunku Abdul Rahman (the first Prime Minister of Malaysia) adopted this view and strongly worked hard to support the Malay language since he considered it as a soul of the country and the main way to unite the nation (Hassan, 2004). This can clearly explain the language policy attitudes of decision makers in Malaysia, aiming for marginalizing the minority languages in favour of Malay language. The reasons behind this were to keep the national unity for the country, and prevent it from division. The policy is clear, in which the diverse ethnic groups in Malaysia can practice their languages and religions, but should not expect support from the government, they have to support themselves, and use their own resources to maintain their languages and cultures.

E. International Studies on Language Endangerment

There are some studies devoted to explore the status of the endangered languages worldwide, for example, Sallabank (2010) investigated the status of Guernsey language in Guernsey which is a small island in the English Channel. Results found an attitude shift which has affected all generations; even those who taught their children English for economic reasons now regret not having preserved bilingual competence and a link to their heritage for their children. Furthermore, Coluzzi (2010) conducted a survey to explore the attitudes of the Iban and Murut (Lun Bawang) people living in the Temburong district of Brunei Darussalam toward their mother tongue. Results were achieved from younger and older age groups to find out the degree of language shift from mother tongue toward Malay language. Results showed that there is a great shift toward Malay due to various reasons such as language policy and lack of using these ethnic languages in the community circles. The researcher suggested that for maintaining these languages, they should be presented in the national curriculums side by side with Malay and English.

In Malaysian context also, David (1991) studied the Sindhis minority in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Specifically, it zoomed in language used in the home domain of Sindhis in Kuala Lumpur. Questionnaires and observations were used to elicit the needed data. Findings confirmed that there is a great shift from mother tongue toward English in most of the social activities, and Sindhis is used with elders only. David added that if there is something to be done, it should come from the community itself. As an example done by the local minor community to sustain their language and culture, the Punjabi minority established Punjabi Education Trust Malaysia (PETM). (Punjabi community by taking serious steps, showing their interest and caring about their mother tongue, convinced the government by their mission which aims at developing their language, and save it from extinction.

Finally the government, and after serious efforts taken by Punjabi community, agreed to allocate 2 million Malaysian ringgit for supporting the sustenance and maintenance of Punjabi language teaching (Gill, 2003). Moreover, Kadazan ethnic group which is one of the ethnic groups in Malaysia strove to improve their mother tongue, and develop it to be sustained and save from extinction. After many attempts, Kadazan language introduced in Sabah schools in 1997 and has been taught in some mission-run primary schools and Native Voluntary Schools (NVS) in Sabah in the mid-1950s until the late 1960s (Lasimbang, 2004). Also, Perlas et al. (2013) examined the language choice for 30 Filipino Malaysian families and found that the language choice varies according to the settings. However, it is found also that English has become the most dominant language besides code-switching with Malay and Filipino.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have proposed a measurement called Language Vitality and Endangerment framework to measure the endangerment of the languages. This frame establishes six degrees of vitality/endangerment based on nine factors. Of these factors, the most salient is that of intergenerational transmission: whether or not a language is used in the family. This factor is generally accepted as the ‘gold standard’ of language vitality (Fishman, 1991).

TABLE 2
UNESCO’S LANGUAGE VITALITY AND ENDANGERMENT FRAMEWORK

Degree of endangerment	Intergenerational Language Transmission
Safe	language is spoken by all generations; intergenerational transmission is uninterrupted
Vulnerable	most children speak the language, but it may be restricted to certain domains (e.g., home)
definitely endangered	children no longer learn the language as mother tongue in the home
severely endangered	language is spoken by grandparents and older generations; while the parent generation may understand it, they do not speak it to children or among themselves
Critically endangered	the youngest speakers are grandparents and older, and they speak the language partially and infrequently
Extinct	there are no speakers left

(UNESCO document)

Having reviewed the literature review of the indigenous languages in Malaysia, and to the best of the researchers’ knowledge, there are limited attempts devoted to examine the minority languages. Hence, this study aims to examine the status of Rungus language and the attitudes of the Rungus younger generation towards it.

V. METHODOLOGY

The aim of the present study is to investigate the status of Rungus language, which is the language of Rungus ethnic group residing in Sabah east of Malaysia, and see to what extent the Rungus younger generation is interested in their mother tongue and their attitudes about it. The participants were purposively chosen as they have the following criteria: educated, young and multilingual.

A. Participants

Twenty five purposely chosen undergraduate students participated in this research; 10 females and 15 males. All of them are from Rungus ethnic group in Kudat district the place of the indigenous Rungus ethnic group. The participants are all considered educated people since all of them were pursuing their studies during data collection period in different universities such as the University of Malaysia Sabah, and University of Malaysia Sarawak, except one participant who finished her study and currently working in United Kingdom. The goal behind targeting those individuals was because all of them represent the younger generation of the Rungus ethnic group, and the future of the Rungus language depends on them, whether they like to keep using it or not in the future. Hence, the elicited responses from those participants might give the researchers the possibility of foreseeing the status of Rungus language in future. Table 4 below shows the participants’ demographics.

TABLE 3
SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEWS PARTICIPANTS

Characteristics	No =25
Gender	Males 15 Females 10
Age (18- 24)	Males mean=22 Females mean=21
Education	University level
Geographical place	Kudat *
Occupational status	Students
Ethnicity	Rungus

Kudat is a small town northern Sabah state east of peninsular Malaysia

B. Instrument

Unstructured interview

Adopting this type of interview helps the researcher to collect answers about the question why in addition to its flexibility since it is conducted in comfortable atmosphere and give the respondents the space to add more information (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Kasper & Dahil, 1991). According to Creswell (2013), to understand the phenomena five to twenty five interviewees is sufficient number and could achieve adequate explanation about a particular phenomenon. The data were qualitatively gathered from the twenty five participants via social websites in the internet, and phone interviews. The participants were questioned through launching questions on their profiles in Tagged, Facebook and Blogs sites except for one participant who was interviewed through phone. All the participants have been told that the researcher is carrying out a study about Rungus language, and need their honest answers either positive or negative, to

understand their attitudes and thinking about their mother tongue and other related issues. Main interview questions in Appendix 1.

Data were collected from participants using online interviews; synchronous chat rooms in which the participants responded directly. This type of interview is valuable since it could gather people from different zones and enables them to answer at their convenient time. Synchronous interview has advantage of spontaneous answering by the participants. In qualitative research, interviewing is widely utilized for data collection (Creswell, 2007). In order to overcome the financial, geographical and physical mobility of the researchers, online interviewing has witnessed a rapid growth and helped in reducing the face-to face interviewing constrains (Hooley et al., 2012). Thus, two types of online interviews have emerged; synchronous interview such as chats and mobile calls, and asynchronous such as emails. This study has adopted synchronous interviews method since it closely resembles the face-to-face interviews and the researcher could get the responses instantly.

VI. PROCEDURES

Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is a very useful approach in research since it investigates the participants’ views, opinions and thoughts. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is very vital and fundamental approach in qualitative analysis and it provides main skills to conduct many forms of qualitative analysis. It is a method for organize, analyze, describe and create themes from the available data set.

The participants were coded from A1 to 25. They all explained that they were not used to using Rungus except in very limited domains i.e. home.

- 20 participants put the blame on the parents
- 17 of them did not care too much about using it
- All of them said they are not fluent in it
- All of them speak Malay at home
- 15 of them said that they care about it and they might lose their identity of the language
- All of them think that language policy play major role in the deterioration of their language
- 19 think that the older generations are responsible for this status

VII. RESULTS

As previously mentioned, thematic analysis was used in data analysis. First, codes are spotted based on the analysis of the participants’ responses. Second, based on these codes the main themes are found as illustrated in the following table 4 below.

TABLE 4
CODES AND THEMES

Codes.	Themes
Ex1: In our daily conversation we using Malay language. Ex2: nope...we speak Malay at home...n im not really good in Rungus language.	Rungus is not spoken at homes
Ex4: yes i do know about young runggus people right now they dont speak much runggus language i feel sad about that	Younger generations are not fluent in their mother tongue
Ex5: i think it up to they parents if you speak to your children in runggus when they baby then it be ok but young parents this days they intend to speak Malay to them. then again when ur children going to school the children have to speak Malay ...	Older generations did not put effort to maintain their mother tongue
Ex6: In schools we don’t study Rungus. Ex7: our teenager now a days so week to spoke Rungus. some,feel shy to admit tht they r Rungus	Language policy
A20 yes ofcourse i care runggus is where i come from and my family so it well be very sad to lose runggus language and ya we will lose our identity for sure. Ex8: ya off course i care bout my language...its our symbol...i love my language!n im proud with it... Ex9: .. i hink our race must stand for survive our comunity	Losing identity
Ex9: n im not really good in Rungus language... so i prefer Malay than Rungus...but i still can speak Rungus a bit..	Lack of literacy

To attain the objectives, the data were gathered from the participants’ responses to the unstructured synchronous interviews. Their responses have been analysed and came up with new findings. Table 4 above illustrates the codes and the themes found after analysing the participants’ responses; these themes are explained below; verbatim excerpts are included as well.

A. *Rungus Language Is not Spoken at Home*

All participants explained that they used Malay language in their daily conversation with their family members, and friends as well, because they are not fluent or efficient enough in Rungus language. The reason of not being fluent in their mother tongue comes from their parents, because they did not care too much to deliver their mother tongue to their children. Therefore, this gives an impression that if the elder generation does not try to maintain their mother tongue and deliver it to their young generation, the status of the language will be worse in the future and it will be subject to death.

Ex1: In our daily conversation we using Malay language.

Ex2: nope...we speak Malay at home....n im not really good in Rungus language.

B. Younger Generations Are not Fluent in Their Mother Tongue

Participants explained that Rungus people whose age is under 30 years do not care about learning the language, while the elder people whose age up 30 years are better in Rungus language. This indicates the negative attitudes of the younger Rungus generation about their mother tongue. Moreover, this shows the great level of assimilation of Rungus community to the stronger community which is the Malay ethnic. Most of the participants confirmed this since their parents did not speak Rungus with them. See the following excerpts:

Ex3: im not really good in Rungus language... so i prefer Malay than Rungus...but i still can speak Rungus a bit.

Ex4: yes i do know about young rungus people right now they dont speak much rungus language i feel sad about that

C. Older Generation did not Put Effort to Maintain Their Ethnic Rungus Language.

Great blame has been put on the parents, because they stopped using their mother tongue and did not care to pass it to their children; consequently this will expose the language to the extinction in the near future. The parents try to adopt the language of the majority, which is Malay language and did not try to maintain their language. According to Hoffman (1991), when a specific community gradually adopts the majority language over their heritage language, we talk about language shift.

Home and school domains, both do not support Rungus language to thrive. Parents at home speak Malay with their children, this undoubtedly will make it easy for the children to be quickly assimilated with the Malay community and culture, and start losing their Rungus identity. See excerpts:

Ex5: i think it up to they parents if you speak to your children in rungus when they baby then it be ok but young parents this days they intend to speak Malay to them. Then again when ur children going to school the children have to speak Malay ...

D. Language Policy

The Malaysian educational system does not offer any curriculum with Rungus language, but all is in Malay and English languages. Most of the participants clearly commented that they only study Malay and English in the public schools. This again can be attributed to the language policies in Malaysia that primarily focus on Malay language and marginalize the other minor indigenous languages.

Ex6: In schools we don't study Rungus.

Ex7: our teenager now a days so week to spoke Rungus. some, feel shy to admit tht they r Rungus.

E. Losing Identity

Participants explained that the teenagers of this speech community feel shy to say that they are Rungus. This can be considered as a hint to show the future of this language is in steady decline with the coming of the next generations. As Lanza and Svendsen (2007, p. 293) suggest, 'language might become important for identity when a group feels it is losing its identity due to political or social reasons.' Language planners and activists may promote symbolic ethnicity and 'localness' as means to encourage language revitalization.

A20 yes ofcourse i care rungus is where i come from and my family so it well be very sad to lose rungus language and ya we will lose our identity for sure.

Ex8: ya off course i care bout my language...its our symbol...i love my language!n im proud with it...

Ex9: .. i hink our race must stand for survive our comunity.

Few participants showed compassion with their Rungus language and confirmed that it is a part of their heritage and if it is lost they will lose their identity as Rungus ethnic group.

F. Lack of Literacy

The lack of literacy of the one language is considered as an internal factor effects the indigenous language, and shifted it to another major language (David, 2003). Lack of literacy among younger Rungus community members is one of the significant factors that might lead to shift or death of the Rungus language. Some participants commented that they speak Malay and Rungus at home and with friends, with more fluency in Malay language. They added that English language is more important than Rungus or even Malay nowadays, relating it to the high status of English language as an international language.

Ex9: n im not really good in Rungus language... so i prefer Malay than Rungus...but i still can speak Rungus a bit.

Most of the answers gathered by the researcher showed that Rungus new generation do not care too much about their mother tongue. Some of them explained that they prefer to speak Malay language, not their mother tongue. Some participants admitted that they are not fluent in their mother tongue as their fluency in Malay. This can be attributed to the language policies applied in Malaysia, in which all students at school must study Malay language in Malay national schools as a compulsory course, whether they are Malay or not. When a people's native language is not regularly used, the speaker of that language and culture stands to lose the most; they would lose access to the treasured heritage in form of literature including religious texts and others. They also lose their sense of identity since their identity is closely defined with their language and culture. It seems that they have low esteem with their language in which they did not pass to their children, and only older generations use it. If they want to keep their language they have to start developing it and using it in oral and written communication and in teaching and learning. Language maintenance or loss belongs to the behaviour of specific speech community members themselves (Fishman, 1991). Fishman (1996, p. 192) added "Vernaculars are acquired in infancy, in the family, which means in intimacy. They are handed on that way, in intimacy and in infancy".

VIII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper discussed an important linguistic issue which is language shift, and explained the multiple reasons that might lead to this shift. The most significant and important reasons that lead to language shift are the social and political factors; when some specific speech community stops using their native tongue in favour of a another powerful and more prestigious languages, also when the parents do not pass over their mother tongue to their children in order to support their assimilation process with the dominant speech community. Rungus mother tongue was highlighted in this study, by investigating and analysing the Rungus younger generation's attitudes about their mother tongue. There is an obvious tendency by Rungus ethnic group to shift away from their mother tongue to adopt other languages such as Malay and English. The younger generations of Rungus ethnic community in Kudat tend to gravitate toward English and Malay languages. Further, English has become the dominant language for most of younger generations. Rungus is only used in very few domains such as homes and by some of the elder generations. The status of Rungus language nowadays is in increased inclination, due to multiple reasons; the most important one is the Rungus people themselves, in which they do not support their language, and it is rarely spoken among them especially the younger generations. The others include language policies, the attitudes of the young generation toward it. Some of them, upon the information gathered in this field, feel shy to speak in Rungus, because they consider it as a low status language, and unable to serve their goals to have jobs or be active members in the Malaysian society. These factor may work together to finally lead the disappearance of this heritage language.

Research of minority languages (Fishman, 2006; Haugen, 1972) has demonstrated that there is a decline of the ethnic language retention from one generation to the next. Furthermore, David argued that there are two main reasons for language shift; internal and external. As for the internal factors, they include lack of literacy in the minority language is one of the reasons to hasten the loss of these minorities perspective languages. Concerning the external factors it includes the language policy. In the case of Rungus minority, it is obvious that both internal and external factors have played a role in losing this language. It can be concluded that Rungus younger generation does not care too much about their mother tongue. Although they do value and cherish their ancestral language and consider it as a symbol for their identity, but they still cannot preserve it as required and do not exert any effort to develop it, or even practice it except in limited domains. Some of them even feel shy to admit that they are Rungus or speak Rungus language. Generally, they are not fluent in their mother tongue, due to different reasons; such as the parents' lack of literacy, and their carelessness toward the language, as parents did not try to transfer it to their children. The other thing is the status of the Rungus language itself, Rungus generation look to it as a language of low status, in comparison with Malay or English that gain a high considerable status in Malaysian society.

Moreover, Rungus language is not taught in schools, since it is not supported by the Malaysian educational policies and Rungus students have to study by adopting Malay language as a medium of instruction. There were no serious attempts by the Rungus speech community to support and develop their mother tongue, compared other minor communities in Malaysia like Punjabi and Karajan ethnic group who, strove for improving and sustaining their languages. Rungus are found to have contradicting language attitudes. They recognize the importance of Rungus language as their mother tongue, yet consider English language and Malay language as more important. Besides, they also do not resist education in other languages. This contradiction on language attitude indicates that changes in cultural identity might have taken place.

We can to some extent argue that the reason of Rungus endangerment is due to cultural/political/economic dominance of other cultures. As noted earlier the causes of language endangerment and attitudes are keys to whether languages are maintained or abandoned. Negative attitudes are often adopted by speakers, and use of a minority language comes to be denounced, so that speakers feel ashamed of it. Speakers are then less likely to transfer the language to their children, leading to a self-perpetuating downward spiral. When the children object to speaking a language, gradually forget it or pretend to have forgotten it because they are ashamed of it, its future is much less assured (Calvet, 1998). Thus, if the minor ethnics want to sustain their mother tongues, and save them from extinction, they have to be the initiators, they have to prove to the authorities that they care for their languages and they want them

to be surviving. Because reform stems from inside, so if the inside of the Rungus ethnic do not do anything for their language, it will be extinct in the near future.

APPENDIX. THE MAIN INTERVIEW QUESTIONS APPENDIX

1. What language do your parents use with you?
2. Do you use your mother tongue with friends or in school?
3. Can you understand Rungus?
4. Which language do you use with your grandparents?

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The Uniqueness of Imperative Construction in the Balinese Language

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Abstract—This study describes the morphosyntax of imperative sentences in the Balinese language. From the morphological approach, the uniqueness of the imperative in Balinese can be seen when compared to some other languages. This study aims to clarify the typology of this matter. Imperative sentences show similarities and distinctions between certain languages. In many languages, imperative sentences commonly use base verbs or bare verbs with or without a second-person subject. However, imperative sentences in Balinese use verbs with different affixes depending on the category. This study discusses the morphological form of the imperative verb, the structure of the imperative, and examples of sentences that can be used in the imperative. We believe that this morphosyntax approach can best explain the uniqueness of the imperative found in Balinese. This study is unlike any previous studies done on the same topic, and it aims to give a comprehensive and conclusive view of the imperative construction in Balinese.

Index Terms—affixes, imperative, morphosyntax

I. INTRODUCTION

Every language has a grammatical construction used to tell someone what to do -a (positive) imperative- and a means for telling what not to do -a negative imperative or prohibitive (Dixon, 2010). The notion of imperative sentences defined by Dixon is based on Indo-European languages (Langacker, 1972; Napoli, 1993; Quirk et al., 1985; Soames & Permuter, 1979). Kroeger (2005) defines that the main meaning of imperative sentences is that the hearer (or addressee) is being told to do something. Langacker (1972) describes that imperative sentences can only be formed with few of the many different declarative characteristics. Although languages differ somewhat in details, imperatives tend to be restricted sentences with an (underlying) second-person subject and active verbs that describe action over which a person has some voluntary control. This is supported by Quirk (1985), who states that imperatives refer to a situation in the immediate or more remote future and are therefore incompatible with time adverbials that refer to a period in the past or that have habitual reference: **come yesterday*, **usually drive your car*. Napoli (1993) describes that imperative construction refers to sentences that consist only of the verb string, so if every sentence must have a subject, we should call the verb string the subject. Many studies in Linguistics investigate imperative construction (Aloni, 2007; Beukema & Coopmans, 1989; Clark, 1993; Downes, 1977; Fortuin & Boogaart, 2009; Giegerich & Kurtz, 1995; Hay & Rosamond, 2011; Millward, 1971; Natalja, 1997; Prideaux, 1968). The linguists have various terms for imperative construction, such as command (imperative sentence) (Kroeger, 2005a); imperative sentence (Langacker, 1972; Napoli, 1993; Quirk et al., 1985; Soames & Permuter, 1979), and to make it easier in analysis and description, this study uses the term imperative construction.

With imperative constructions, English, as one of the Indo-European languages, generally uses base verbs (Quirk et al., 1985) and can also contain agreements. Imperative constructions mostly do not have grammatical subjects, and Langacker (1972) states that imperative constructions that contain subjects are very limited. It is supported by Kroeger (2005a), who states that imperative sentences frequently lack a subject NP, and instead, there is an overt subject NP that will always be a second-person pronoun. It is also stated that there are two types of imperative constructions, namely positive and negative imperative constructions (Quirk et al., 1985). Negative imperative constructions in English are marked by *don't* or *do not* constituents before the verb or the grammatical subject (if a subject is present). As a language that uses tense, the imperative construction in English is not related to tense and never uses modal auxiliaries.

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They are also restricted in tense (Langacker, 1972). Moreover, English has an imperative passive construction, but its use is rare (Quirk et al., 1985). For example:

- (1) *Be guided by what I say!*
- (2) *Be reassured by me!*

Imperative passive often uses the verb *get* (*get-passive*) as follows.

- (3) *Get washed!*
- (4) *Get transferred!*

The languages existing in Indonesia belong to the Malayo-Polynesian language group, which is mostly of the agglutinative type. The imperative construction model in these languages is similar to the Indo-European languages. For example, the imperative construction in Indonesian can be formed with base verbs, but also by verbs with the prefix {*ber-*} and verbs with the prefix {*me-*} (Sneddon, 1996, pp. 324-325). The types of verbs that can be used are intransitive and transitive verbs. Following are examples of Indonesian imperative construction:

- (5) *Datang ke sini!*
come PREP here
'Come here!'
- (6) *Ber- angkat sekarang!*
PREFIX-lift now
'Leave now!'
- (7) *Meng-inap -lah di sini!*
PREFIX-stay one night-PTCP PREP here
'Please stay one night here!'

In the above construction, it is known that the intransitive imperative verb *datang* 'to come' at (5) is the base verb. The verb *berangkat* 'depart' at (6) is the imperative verb with the prefix *ber-* with the base verb *angkat* 'to lift,' and the imperative verb *menginap* 'to stay a night' in (7) is a verb with a prefix *me-* with a pre-categorical base. Furthermore, the construction of imperative transitive is commonly built by base verbs and sometimes by verbs with the prefix *me-*. Examples of imperative transitive construction are as follows:

- (8) *Tutup pintu-nya!*
close door- DEF
'Close the door!'
- (9) *Lihat foto ini!*
look picture this
'Look at this picture!'
- (10) *Mem-baca sekarang!*
PREFIX-read now
'Read now!'
- (11) *Membuat kopi dulu!*
ACT-make coffee first
'Make coffee first!'

Negative imperative in Indonesian uses the words *jangan* and *dilarang* before imperative verbs for all imperative constructions (Sneddon, 1996). Some examples are as follows:

- (12) *Jangan buka pintu!*
don't open door
'Don't open the door!'
- (13) *Jangan me- nangis*
don't ACT- cry
'Don't cry!'
- (14) *Jangan di- buka segel-nya!*
don't PASS- open seal-DEF
'Don't open the seal!'
- (15) *Di- larang masuk ruang-an!*
PASS- prohibited enter room-NMLZ
'Do not enter the room!'

Adelar (2005) has stated that the Balinese language belongs to the (West) Malayo-Polynesian language group. Balinese is said to be in the same group as Malayic, Sasak, and Sumbawa languages, and they all belong to the Malayo-Sumbawan subgroup. As Malayo-Polynesian language, Balinese belongs to the agglutinative language group and generally has the same features as the agglutinative languages. However, in the imperative construction of Balinese, verbs that appear not only in the form of base verbs can also be in the form of affixed verbs. This often becomes a long debate in scientific meetings because the Balinese imperative construction differs from the general concepts, which state that base verbs construct the imperative sentence. Studying the Balinese imperative sentence in more detail is necessary to clarify this issue.

Studies on the syntax of Balinese have been done by Barber (1977), Artawa (1994, 1997, 2001, 2013), Arka (1998, 2005), and Kroeger (2007). These studies also reviewed the imperative construction of Balinese, in particular, the forms of verbs that construct the imperative sentence and the definiteness of imperative construction. Artawa (2013) states that imperative constructions are built by base and nasal verbs. The study of these verb forms is incomplete because it is probable that imperative construction is not only built on base verbs and nasal verbs. All the studies mentioned above are somewhat incomplete in explaining the positive and negative imperative constructions. This study aims to differ from and complement the previous studies by examining several issues that need to be explained more thoroughly and in detail. First, not all forms or types of imperative constructions in Balinese have been disclosed. It is suspected that the negative imperative constructions in Balinese are built differently. Secondly, imperative constructions are mainly built in many languages using base verbs (Kroeger, 2005a) and a few with affixed verbs (Langacker, 1972). Still, it is assumed that the number of imperative constructions with affixed verbs is unlimited in Balinese. There are uniquenesses of Balinese imperative that have not been discussed yet up to now, and they become the discovery of this study, such as:

- a) Balinese has a passive imperative, but it is only for negative passive imperative and not found in the positive passive imperative.
- b) An adjective may be used to make a negative imperative, and if it is forced to make a positive imperative, the adjectives must be verbalized with the suffix *-ang* or *-in*.
- c) A prepositional phrase may also make either a positive or negative imperative.

This study highlights the Balinese language imperative regarding the issues by giving a comprehensive picture of verbs' imperative construction, form, and morphology. Solving some developing issues regarding sentence construction in Balinese is important, and later studies can then delve deeper into the subject. This study describes the classification of imperative constructions, how imperative constructions are built in Balinese, and the uniqueness of imperative found in the language. Thus, this study can also contribute to the studies into imperative constructions in Malayo-Polynesian languages in general.

II. METHOD

This study is a descriptive-analytic study that reviews empirical data according to natural data. The data examined in this study were both in oral and written form. The oral data was collected from several speakers living in the city of Denpasar by data eliciting, and the written data was collected from some texts written in the Balinese language. The analysis results are presented first by describing the verb construction along with the affixes that Balinese has and then proceeding with a discussion of the forms of verbs in Balinese imperative constructions. The next section will discuss passive imperative construction and related topics.

III. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. General Description of the Balinese Verb Construction

(a). Basic Verb and Derived Verb

Based on their form, verbs are grouped into (1) base and affixed (derived) verbs. Base verbs do not undergo morphological processes or verbs without affixes that can appear alone in syntactic contexts, whereas derived verbs are verbs that result from certain morphological processes. As we know, verbs can undergo several types of morphological processes. Katamba (1993, p. 55) and Mc. Manis et al. (1998, pp. 129-135) group morphological processes into affixation, reduplication, internal morpheme change, supplementation, clipping, compounding, blending, and acronyms.

The imperative construction in Balinese is very closely related to the verbs derived from the affixation process. Thus, this study does not discuss verbs derived from other morphological processes. When viewed closely, the basic form of affixed verbs can be divided into a free (categorical) base verb called *root* (Dixon, 2010) and a (pre-categorical) base verb. A categorical base verb is a verb that already has lexical categories and meanings, whereas pre-categorical base verbs have a base meaning and could be categorized after being affixed (Alwi et al., 1993, pp. 104-105).

The data shows that in every vocabulary, both categorical base verbs and pre-categorical base verbs have the basic meaning described in that vocabulary. Affix does not affect the basic meaning in the vocabulary. Affixes attached to the functional base form make the pre-categorical base verbs become categorical base verbs and function as grammatical markers producing grammatical meaning that syntactically marks diathesis. Thus, the basic meaning in a certain vocabulary originates from the vocabulary's lexical meaning and not from the affixes attached to it, as seen in the verb *matakon* "to ask." When attaching the prefix {*ma-*}, the original meaning/base verb does not change. Still, the pre-categorical base verb will have a category (verb) and contain the grammatical meaning 'do something. In other words, the prefix {*ma-*} functions as a grammatical marker that turns pre-categorical base verbs into intransitive verbs. It is the same case with the prefix {*N-*} that turns pre-categorical base verbs with *ACTOR* into pivots (pivot terminology is taken from Dixon (2005). For clarity, examples of some free categorical base verbs and pre-categorical tied base verbs can be found in the following Tables 1 and 2:

TABLE 1
FREE (CATEGORICAL) BASE VERBS

Form	Meaning
<i>Alih</i>	look for
<i>Duduk</i>	pick up
<i>Jang</i>	put
<i>Jemuh</i>	dry
<i>Tunas</i>	ask for
<i>Jemak</i>	take
<i>Ateh</i>	deliver
<i>Getep</i>	cut

In Balinese, categorical base verbs can be used to build sentences without going through affixation. In addition to already having a category as a verb, the verbs *jemuh* 'to dry in the sun' and *jang* 'to put' are transitive verbs that already have a lexical meaning. Two arguments are required for a transitive verb like those mentioned above to become the core of the sentence; one before and one after the verb. It means that the argument to be added before the verb has the *ACTOR* role, and the one to be added after the verb has the role of *UNDERGOER*. By doing this, the verb can directly become the predicate of a sentence, as shown in examples (16) and (17).

- (16) *Pantina-ne suba jemuh tiang*
laundry-DEF already dry in the sun 1T
'I have dried the laundry.'
- (17) *Susuk-e jang tiang duur meja-ne*
Money-back -DEF put 1T on table-DEF
'I put the change money on the table.'

Pre-categorical base verbs are illustrated in Table 2, such as *uyag*, *punduh*, *idu*, *takon*, *tegak*, *inyah*. Each verb can undergo the affixation process to become either (1) an intransitive affixed verb, such as *ngidu*, *mapunduh*, *nginyah*, and *negak*; or (2) a resultative passive verb such as *nginyah*, *mauyag*, and *mapunduh*.

TABLE 2
PRE-CATEGORICAL BASE VERBS

Form	Meaning
<i>uyag</i>	'to scatter'
<i>punduh</i>	'to collect'
<i>Idu</i>	'to warm the body'
<i>takon</i>	'to ask'
<i>tegak</i>	'to sit'
<i>inyah</i>	'to warm the body in the sun.'

- (18) *a. *Jijih -ne uyag di natah-ne*
rice- DEF scatter PREP home yard-DEF
- *b. *Anak- e ento punduh saang*
people-DEF that collect firewood
- *c. *Ia idu di paon.*
She warm the body PREP kitchen
- *d. *Tiang sing juari takon unduk- e ento*
I NEG shy ask problem-DEF that

The construction of sentences (as shown in the examples in 18) is an ungrammatical construction containing pre-categorical base verbs without going through the affixation process: *uyag*, *unduh*, *idu*, and *takon*. Even though these verbs have basic meanings, they cannot be used alone to construct a syntactic sentence. This means these forms can be used in syntactic construction only if the pre-categorical forms have undergone an affixation process. For example, if the prefix {*ma-*} is added to the pre-categorical base verb *uyag*, it will produce an intransitive verb *mauyag* 'to scatter,' if the affixes {*N- ... -ang*} are added to the pre-categorical *unduh*, it will produce a transitive *munduhang* 'to collect' if the affixes {*N- ... -ang*} is added to the pre-categorical *takon*, it will produce a transitive *nakonang* 'to ask,' and if the prefix {*N-*} is added to the pre-categorical *idu*, it will produce an intransitive *ngidu* 'to warm the body in front of the fireplace.' The suffix {-*ang*} is a verb-forming affix that states a cause. Affixed verbs produced from the pre-categorical bases can be used in building sentences, as shown in the following examples.

- (19) *Jijih-ne ma- uyag di natah -ne*
grain-3POSS INTR-scatter PREP yard home-3POSS
'Grain scattered in his yard.'
- (20) *Anak-e ento ma-unduh-ang saang*
person-DEF that TR-collect-KAUS firewood
'That person collected firewood.'
- (21) *Ia ng-idu di paon*
3T INTR-warm in kitchen

- ‘He warms his body in the kitchen.’
 (22) *Tiang sing juari nakonang unduke ento*
 1T not brave TN-ask-KAUS problem-DEF that
 ‘I am ashamed to ask about that problem.’

Meanwhile, affixed verbs produced from categorical base verb forms are divided into verbs with noun base, such as *mabatu* ‘to be stoned’; verbs with a base verb, such as *mategul* ‘to be tied’; and verbs with adjective bases, such as *mamutih* ‘to become white.’ Table 3 provides examples of the Balinese language affixes and how they change.

TABLE 3
 VERB-FORMING AFFIXES IN THE BALINESE LANGUAGE

Affix	allomorph	Balinese verb
{ <i>ma-</i> }	{ <i>ma-</i> }	<i>takon</i> → <i>matakon</i> ‘
{ <i>-ang</i> }	{ <i>-ang</i> }	<i>takon</i> → <i>takonang</i>
{ <i>N-</i> }	{ <i>ng-</i> } + vowel + velar	<i>adep</i> → <i>ngadep</i>
	{ <i>m-</i> } + consonant bilabial	<i>putih</i> → <i>mutih</i>
	{ <i>ny-</i> } + consonant palatal	<i>cokcok</i> → <i>nyokcok</i>
	{ <i>n-</i> } + consonant alveolar	<i>tumbeg</i> → <i>numbeg</i>

(b). *Construction of Intransitive Verbs in General*

The Balinese imperative verbs can also be intransitive, transitive, and passive. In Balinese, intransitive verb construction can be divided into three types: zero intransitive, intransitive with prefix {*ma-*}, and intransitive with prefix {*N-*}. As is known, in intransitive verb construction, only one argument has a functional status as a grammatical subject that plays the role of ACTOR and/or UNDERGOER. The basic word order of intransitive verbs is S-V/P-(Comp)-(Adv). In describing the following data, the term predicate (P) (Jr et al., 1997) is used instead of the term verb (V) because most Austronesian languages also allow nouns and adjectives to occupy the predicate function. Due to that, it is not appropriate to use the term verb in the following part of this study. For example, the sentence *Dia sakit* ‘He/she is sick’ is a sentence in which a predicate adjective *sakit* ‘sick’ is used.

1. *Construction of Zero Intransitive Verb*

It is possible to use the Balinese language’s zero intransitive verb construction model. As is known, this kind of verb is morphologically non-affixed. In other words, the basic form is a verb with an intransitive meaning and can be the predicate of a sentence without affixes. Pastika (1999, p. 28) has done one study of zero intransitive verbs (Pastika, 1999). The results of his study stated that verbs of this type, based on the role of the subject, can be divided into two groups, namely zero intransitive with ACTOR subject and zero intransitive with UNDERGOER subject. A categorical base verb can take the position of zero intransitive (see Table 2.1). The examples can be seen below.

- (23) *Ia luas ke peken dibi sanja*
 3SG. go PREP market yesterday night
 ‘She went to the market last night.’
 (24) *I Kaki ulung ke tukad-e*
 DEF grandfather fall down to river- DEF
 ‘The grandfather fell down to the river.’

Illustrations (23) and (24) describe zero intransitive verbs with one argument. The one argument in both sentence constructions has a different subject role. The role of the subject in construction (23) is ACTOR, and the role of the subject in construction (24) is UNDERGOER. ACTOR, which fills the subject role in (22), is animate so that the subject is ‘he’/‘she’ does something expressed by the zero intransitive verb *luas* ‘to go.’ In (23), *I Kaki* ‘the grandfather’ acts as the UNDERGOER subject because he has an animate experience expressed by the zero intransitive verb *ulung* ‘fell down.’

2. *Construction of Intransitive Verb With Prefix {N-}*

Morphologically, intransitive verbs can exist as nasal intransitive in the shape of a noun, adjective, or pre-categorical base. The rules of assimilation that occur with the addition of the prefix {*N-*} according to their allomorphs are the same as those that occur in the process of reducing transitive verbs. Some examples can be seen in the following sentence constructions.

- (25) *Satonden manjus, inget-anga N- sampat (nyampat) di natahe*
 before taking a bath, remember- PAS INTR-sweep at yard
 ‘Before taking a bath, he always remembers to sweep the home yard.’
 (26) *Ia N- joh (ngejoh) dugas tepuk-in tiang di wantilan-e*
 3T INTR- far when see-SUF 1T at wantilan-DEF
 ‘He stayed away when I saw him in the public hall.’
 (27) *I Bapa N-idu (ngidu) semeng-semeng*
 DEF father IN-warmed in the morning
 ‘Father warmed himself in front of the fire stove in the morning.’

The intransitive verb *nyampat* 'to sweep' in (25) is derived from the noun *sampat* 'broom,' the intransitive verb *ngejoh* 'to get away' in (26) is derived from the adjective *joh* 'far' and the intransitive verb *ngidu* 'to warm body in front of the fire stove' in (27) is derived from the pre-categorical base *idu* 'to warm.'

3. Construction of Intransitive Verb With Prefix {Ma-}

The prefix (*ma-*) is very useful for reducing intransitive verbs. Their structure indicates that intransitive verbs with {*ma-*} can be derived from a verb, noun, adjective, and pre-categorical bases. This can be seen in the following examples.

- (28) *Jijih- e ma- jemuh di natah-e*
grain-DEF INTR-dried at the home yard-DEF
'The grain was dried in the sun in the home yard.'
- (29) *Pondoke ento madinding klangсах*
cottage-DEF that INTR-wall woven palm leaves
'The cottage is walled with woven palm leaves.'
- (30) *Tiang mapaekan ajak memenne*
I PREF-close with mother-POSS-3SG
'I am still a relative of his mother.'
- (31) *Punyan tomat-e ane durin umah-e sube mentik*
Tree tomato- DEF REL back house-DEF already grow up
'The tomato tree behind the house has grown up.'

The intransitive verb {*ma-*} *majemuh* 'to sunbathe' in (28) is derived from the verb *jemuh* 'to dry in the sun,' *madinding* in (29) is derived from the noun *dinding* 'wall,' *mapaekan* in (30) is derived from the adjective *paek* 'near,' and *mentik* in (31) is derived from the pre-categorical *entik* 'to grow up.'

(c). Construction of Transitive Verbs in General

Transitive propositions in the Balinese language can be expressed with two types of structure; First, with unmarked transitive verbs or base verbs, and second, by transitive verbs with nasal {*N-*}.

1. Construction of Zero Transitive Verb

The construction of zero transitive in Balinese involves two core elements: ACTOR and UNDERGOER. The pattern of the order of elements of zero transitive construction is different from marked transitive constructions. The zero transitive is known to have a sequence pattern in which the UNDERGOER element comes before the verb, and the ACTOR element comes directly after the verb. In example (32), the verb *adep* 'to sell' has two core elements, *siape* 'the chicken' and *cai* 'you (male).'

- (32) *Di peken siap-e adep cai*
PREP pasar ayam-DEF jual 2SG
'In the market, you sold the chicken.'

Example (32) shows the prominence of the UNDERGOER so that in the transitive construction, UNDERGOER is a pivot. However, suppose the ACTOR is a third person or a third object. In that case, the ACTOR must be in the indefinite form (Pastika, 1999, p. 15). Considering this, it seems that out of the following, examples (34 *) and (36 *) are not acceptable.

- (33) *Anake ento juk polisi*
man-DEF that TZ-catch police
'The police caught the man.'
- (34) * *Anake ento juk polisi-ne*
- (35) *Adinne gugut cicing*
Younger brother/sister- POSS TZ-bite dog
'A dog bit his younger brother.'
- (36) * *Adinne gugut cicing-e*

In constructions (34 *) and (36 *), the ACTOR element includes a definite marker {-*e/ -ne*}. Definite marking on the ACTOR means that these constructions cannot be considered the correct Balinese language. However, both constructions will be acceptable if a demonstrative article *ento* 'that' or *ene* 'this' is added, as in examples (37) and (38) below.

- (37) *Anak-e ento juk polisi-ne ento*
man-DEF that TZ-catch police-DEF that
'The police caught the man.'
- (38) *Adin-ne gugut cicing-e ene*
Younger brother/sister-POSS bite dog-DEF this
'This dog bit his younger brother.'

2. Construction With Nasal Transitive N-

In nasal transitive constructions, the nasal prefix {N-} functions as marking the *ACTOR* as a pivot, whereas in zero transitive constructions, the *UNDERGOER* acts as a pivot. Another difference is that the *ACTOR* comes after the verb in the zero transitive constructions, and the *UNDERGOER* comes before the verb. In contrast, in nasal transitive constructions, the *ACTOR* core element comes before the verb and the *UNDERGOER* comes after the verb. Nasal transitive constructions can be derived from various base classes, such as verbs, adjectives, nouns, and pre-categoricals. The examples are given below.

- (39) *I meme N-jemuh jijih di natah-e*
PTCP mother TN- dry in the sun grain in-home yard-DEF
'Mother dried the grain in the home yard.'
- (40) *Krama desa-ne niki N-linggah-ang jalan-e.*
Member village-DEF this TN-wide-KAUS road-DEF
'The village members who widened the road.'
- (41) *Ia N-arit padang gajah di tegal-ne*
3T TN-sickle grass elephant in filed-POSS
'He was mowing elephant grass in his field.'
- (42) *I pekak gelar-gelur N-kauk-in cucun-ne*
PTCP grandfather scream TN-prak-APPL grandson/daughter-POSS
'Grandfather screamed for his grandson.'

The above transitive verbs are derived respectively from the verb *jemuh* 'to dry in the sun' in (39), the adjective *linggah* 'wide' in (40), the noun *arit* 'sickle' in (41), and the pre-categorical *kauk* 'to call' in (42). The noun element that comes directly after the derivation verb is an *UNDERGOER* object. The {N-} prefix has five allomorphic forms, namely {m-}, {n-}, {ny-}, {ng-}, and {nga-}. Some of these allomorphic forms can delete the initial consonant phonemes of the base similarly (Sulaga et al., 1996).

B. Imperative Constructions in the Balinese Language

An imperative is a sentence in the same way as declarative, interrogative, and exclamative (Quirk et al., 1985). Kroeger (2005a) states that the defining property of a command is that the hearer (or addressee) is being told to do something. He also argues that imperative verbs always have a second-person actor, which (in most languages) is the subject. For this reason, any overt reference to the subject, whether as an NP or by verbal agreement, is likely to be redundant. Imperative verbs are frequently unmarked regarding a person, even in languages requiring the verb to agree with the subject, and imperative sentences frequently lack a subject NP. Where there is an overt subject NP, it will always be a second-person pronoun.

The grammatical subjects can or cannot be present in the sentences in imperative Balinese sentences. Examples of imperative sentences where the subject is present in the construction are as follows.

- (43) *Cai malaajah malu, mare dadi maplayanan hp!*
You may study first, then become play game mobile phone
'You study first, and then you may play games on your mobile phone!'
- (44) *Kayeh malu mang, sube tengai!*
Tak a shower first mang, already late at noon
'Take a shower mang it is already late at noon'
- (45) *Rah entungang luune!*
Rah, throw rubbish-DEF
'Throw the rubbish!'

From the data earlier in this study, it is known that the grammatical subjects can precede and follow the verbs. This is what distinguishes Balinese from English, where the subject (if it is present in the sentence) always precedes the verb. The following examples are imperative without a subject.

- (46) *Madaar malu!*
Eat first
'Have meals first!'
- (47) *Baca bukune!*
Read book-DEF
'Read the book!'
- (48) *Pragatang gaene mani!*
Finish-ang work-DEF tomorrow
'Finish the work tomorrow!'
- (49) *Tulung sep pragatang gaene mani!*
Finish-ang work-DEF tomorrow
'Finish the work tomorrow!'

When giving orders to someone, we will give them based on social status, our position, and family relations. In Balinese, grammatical subjects often appear in imperative construction for various purposes, such as to show intimacy, politeness, and social status. In English, the expression to show politeness can be done by adding the word Please,

whereas in Indonesian, by adding the word *tolong* or *silahkan*. In Balinese, besides presenting grammatical subjects such as construction examples (44), (45), and (46), polite imperative can also use the word *tulung sep* 'help a moment' as in construction example (49).

(a). *Imperative Construction With Basic Verbs*

Most languages build imperative constructions using base verbs. The same goes for Balinese, where the base verbs are most common in the data constructions. The verbs used are the basic intransitive and transitive verbs, so in this study, we use terms of intransitive imperative and transitive imperative. The difference between the two types of imperatives can be seen from the word order. Transitive imperative presents objects, whereas objects are not present in intransitive imperative constructions. The word order model of imperative construction with basic verbs is Predicate-Object (transitive imperative) and predicate-(Adv) (intransitive imperative). See the following examples.

- (50) a. *Pules malu, sube peteng!*
Sleep first, already night
'Sleep now, it gets late.'
- b. *Cai pules malu, sube peteng!*
Sleep first, already night
'Sleep now, it gets late.'
- c. *Pules malu, Cai, sube peteng!*
Sleep first, already night
'Sleep now, it gets late.'
- **Pules malu, sube peteng Cai!*
Sleep first, already night
'Sleep now, it gets late.'
- (51) *Bli teka mani nah!*
Older brother come tomorrow okay
'Brother, please come here tomorrow!'
- (52) *Bangun De, sube tengai!*
Get up De, already day
'Get up De. It is already day!'
- (53) a. *Jemak honore!*
Take salary-DEF
'Take your salary!'
- b. *Gung Jemak honore!*
Gung take salary-DEF
'Take your salary!'
- c. *Jemak honor-e, Gung!*
take salary-DEF, Gung
'Take your salary!'
- (54) a. *Gek, goreng takune!*
Gek, fry tofu-DEF
'Gek, fry the tofu!'
- b. *Goreng Gek, takune!*
Fry Gek, tofu-DEF
'Fry Gek, the tofu!'
- c. *Goreng, takune, Gek!*
Gek, fry tofu-DEF
'Gek, fry the tofu!'
- (55) *Jemput tiang jam dasa nah bli!*
pick up me time ten okay brother
'Brother, pick me up at ten!'
- (56) a. *Ateh meme ke dokter mani nah!*
Take mother to the doctor tomorrow okay
'Take mother to the doctor tomorrow!'
- b. *Man, ateh meme ke dokter mani nah!*
Man take mother to the doctor tomorrow okay
'Nyoman, Take mother to the doctor tomorrow!'
- c. *Ateh meme ke dokter mani nah, Man!*
Take mother to doctor tomorrow okay
'Take mother to the doctor tomorrow!'
- (57) *Lablab jagunge ane beli meme dibi!*
Boil corn-DEF that buy mother yesterday

‘Boil the corn that mother bought yesterday!’

In Balinese, the construction of intransitive imperative as in examples (50), (51), (52)) and transitive imperative as in examples (53), (54, (55), (56, and (57)) is built by using base verbs. Both such kinds of constructions can present a subject *bli* 'older brother' as in examples (51) and (55) or not present the subject as in examples (50) and (53). The sequence patterns can be seen in Table 4.

TABLE 4
THE POSSIBLE WORD ORDERS IN IMPERATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN THE BALINESE LANGUAGE

Intransitive Imperative Construction	Transitive Imperative Construction
P + (ADV) + (ADV)	P+O(DEF)
INTRIC → (S)+P+(ADV)+(PTCP)+(S)	TRIC → (S)+P+O(DEF)
P+(ADV)+ADV+(S)	P+O+(ADV)+(PTCP)+S
P+ (S)+(ADV)	

Sequence patterns of intransitive and transitive imperative constructions show that the subject can be present at the beginning, middle, and end. The subject's presence in the middle position is permitted after the object and/or adverb. The subject appears after the object in a transitive imperative that does not contain an adverb. Still, if the transitive imperative contains an adverb, the subject has to appear after the first adverb (if there is a second adverb). The condition of the subject's appearance after an adverb also applies to intransitive imperative construction. For construction that contains an adverb that shows the same reference as *Pules malu man, sube peteng* 'Go to bed now, it is night,' the subject can not be present at the end of the sentence because both *malu* 'first' and *sube peteng* 'already night' are adverbs. If forced, the construction would become ungrammatical such as **Pules malu, sube peteng man*. If the word *malu* is not present in the construction, the subject can appear at the end like *Pules, sube peteng man*. The sequence pattern described by the table above shows that it is impossible to eliminate the subject in an imperative construction. Subjects can be placed at the beginning, middle, or end, except in examples (50) and (52). Adverbs of time like *sube tengai, sube peteng* are constituents that do not allow the subject to be present at the end of a sentence. Transitive verbs are often used in imperative sentences. In Balinese, many transitive verb imperatives can be found. From the example constructions, it can be seen that the transitive imperative with a base verb indicates that the object that follows the base verb must be a definite noun. If the noun acting as the object is a common noun, then a definite marker is required, such as the definite marker *-e* in (54) and the definite marker *-ne* in (55). Whereas, if the noun acting as the object is a proper noun, such as *meme* 'mother' in (57) or a personal pronoun, such as *tiang* 'I' in (56), then definite markers are no longer needed because the nouns indicate definition in a pragmatic context. Suppose there is a relative pronoun in the sentence, such as *ane* 'which' in (58), the definite article in the noun acting as the object is optional.

(b). Imperative Construction With the Suffix-Ang/-In

Suffixes *-ang* and *-in* are very common in Balinese. The two suffixes function: (1) to increase the syntax valence of the transitive base verb, (2) to turn the adjective into a transitive imperative verb, and (3) to turn the intransitive verb into a transitive verb. The following examples are related to the first function: increasing the valence of verbs from transitive to ditransitive.

- (58) *Jang embere dini!*
Put bucket here
‘Put the bucket here!’
- (59) *Jangin embere yeh*
Put-SUF bucket water
‘Pour the bucket water!’
- (60) *Takonin bapan caine paudukane adin caine!*
Ask-SUF father you-POSS problem younger sister/brother you-DEF
‘Ask your father about your younger brother/sister’s problem!’
- (61) *Takonang paudukane I Bapa teken I meme!*
Ask-SUF problem DEF father to DEF mother
‘Ask your mother about your father’s problem!’
- (62) *Enjuhin I dadong pis!*
Give-SUF DEF grandmother money
‘Give grandmother money!’
- (63) *Enjuhang sambele De!*
Give-SUF chili souce-DEF De
‘Give me the chili sauce De!’
- (64) *Aritang sampine padang Yan!*
Sickle-SUF cow-DEF grass Yan
‘Sickle grass for the cow Yan!’
- (65) *Aritin tegale uling alang-alang!*
Sickle-SUF land so that clean-SUF a little

- 'Sickle the land to make it clean!'.
 (66) *Adepang bapa sampi mani nah!*
 Sell-SUF father cow tomorrow okay
 'Sell father's cow tomorrow!'
 (67) *Adepin tiang kopi jero!*
 Sell me coffee madam
 'Sell me coffee, madam!'
 (68) *Beliang I dadong base nah!*
 Buy DEF grandmother betel okay
 'Buy grandmother betel!'
 (69) *Belinin anake tua ento jaje!*
 Buy person-DEF old that cake
 'Buy the old woman's cake!'

From the examples above, it can be seen that the suffix *-ang*'s function is to increase the syntactic valence of verbs for verbs that are formed from the base verb, but it can not increase the syntactic valence of verbs with a pre-categorical base. In such a case, it can only function to turn pre-categorical verbs into imperative verbs. If the syntactic valence of pre-categorical base verbs should be increased, then the suffix *-in* can be used.

Evidence that the suffixes *-ang* and *-in* function to increase the valence of verbs can be seen in examples (59) and (60). In (59), the verb only requires one object, while the verb in (60) requires two objects. This also applies to other verbs with suffixes *-ang/-in*. If we refer to Kroeger (2005b), the suffixes *-ang* and *-in*, as seen in the above examples, can be referred to as applicative affixes, i.e., affixes that increase the syntactic valence of verbs by introducing a new object. Typologically, applicatives promote oblique arguments to be the main object.

Verbs with the suffixes *-ang* and *-in* have the same behavior as the transitive base verbs in imperative sentences, which require an object with a definite marker. A definite marker is no longer needed if the noun acting as the object is a proper noun or a personal pronoun.

Examples for the second function, that is to turn adjectives into transitive imperative verbs, can be seen below.

- (70) *Tegehang lampune!*
 High-SUF lamp-DE
 'Make the position of the lamp higher!'
 (71) *Manisang kopine!*
 Sweet-SUF coffee-DEF
 'Make the coffee sweet!'
 (72) *Atebang kursine ane paling duri!*
 Narrow-SUF chair-DEF that most back
 'Put the chairs in the back close to each other!'
 (73) *Johin kuluke ento, anak galak sajan!*
 Far-SUF dog-DEF that, it fierce very
 'Get away from the dog, it is very fierce!'
 (74) *Paekin meme ada orahange kone!*
 Close-SUF mother there is tell so
 'Get closer to mother, she wants to tell you something!'

The imperative sentences above include verbs with suffixes *-ang* and *-in* the adjective base form. From previous data in this study, it is known that another function of the suffixes *-ang* and *-in* is to turn the adjective into an imperative transitive verb. When it comes to constructions, there is a difference between these two suffixes; In constructions using the verb *-ang*, objects are subjected to actions stated by a verb or an object and turn into a verb based on that (often referred to as causative verbs) (Saeed, 1997, p. 70). This can be seen in example (70): *tegehang lampune* 'to raise the position of the lamp' means that the second person acts so that the position of the object lamp becomes higher. The same applies to example (71): *manisang kopine* 'to make the coffee sweeter' means that the second person does the action so that the coffee (object) becomes sweeter. The third example is (72): *atebang kursine* means the second person makes the chairs close to each other. However, in constructions using the verb *-in*, the object is not subjected to action, but the subject (the second person) performs the action, and the object does not change. The syntactic behavior of the two affixes is not the one of an applicative affix, as in the examples described in earlier chapters.

The third function of the suffixes *-ang* and *-in* is to turn intransitive verbs into transitive verbs. A few examples are provided below.

- (75) *Pulesang panake malu Tut!*
 Sleep-SUF chil-DEF first tut
 'Make the baby sleep first Tut!'
 (76) *Tegakang awake ditu!*
 Sit-SUF self there
 'Sit down over there!'

- (77) *Bangunang I Bapa Bli*
Wake up-SUF DEF father brother
'Wake up father brother!'

The transitive verb *pulesang* is built from the intransitive *pules* 'to sleep' with the suffix *-ang*, the transitive verb *tegakang* is built from the intransitive verb *tegak* 'to sit down' with the suffix *-ang*, and the transitive verb *bangunang* is built from the basic intransitive verb *bangun* 'to wake up' with the suffix *-ang*. Transitive verbs with *-ang*, such as in the examples above, can be used in imperative sentences in Balinese.

(c). *Imperative Construction With the Prefix Ma-*

As described earlier in this study, Prefix *ma-* is also a very common highly affix in Balinese, especially for producing intransitive and passive resultative verbs. Verbs with the prefix *-ma* are also found in Balinese imperative sentences. Below, few examples are provided.

- (78) *Madaar malu setonden luas masuk*
PREF-eat first before go school
'Eat breakfast first before going to school!'
- (79) *Matanding nyanan peteng nyak Dek!*
PREF-make offering this evening okay de
'Let us make offering tonight Dek!'
- (80) *Malajah ning, sube paek ujiane!*
PREF-study child, already close exam-DEF
'Study child, you are going to have an exam!'
- (81) *Mu majemuh ke pasih Ngah, apang ilang gatele!*
Please PREF-dry in the sun to beach ngah, so lost itchy
'Please sunbathe on the beach to heal your itch!'

All the examples above use the imperative verb *ma-* with the transitive base *daar* 'to eat' in (78), *tanding* 'to arrange' in (79), *ajah* 'to study' in (80), and *jemuh* 'to dry in the sun' in (82). Prefix *ma-* functions in Balinese to turn transitive base verbs into intransitive verbs. Thus, all *ma-* verbs in Balinese are intransitive and can also be used as imperative constructions. Based on the collected data, imperative sentences using the verb *ma-* with a noun base can also be found. The following examples prove this.

- (82) *Maturan di sanggah De, rahinan jani!*
PREF-offering at holly place de, holly day now
'Offer the offering at the holy place De, today is a holy day!'
- (83) *Maubad malu me!*
PREF-medicine first mam
'Get treatment first Mom!'
- (84) *Makenyem nake yen ada anak nyapatin!*
PREF- smile if there is people greet
'Please smile if someone greets you!'
- (85) *Masaut Bli, De mendep dogen!*
PREF-answer brother, do not silent only
'Answer brother, do not just stay silent!'

The imperative verbs in the examples above are intransitive verbs built from the prefix *ma-* with a noun base *aturan* 'offering' in (82), *ubad* 'medicine' in (83), *kenyem* 'smile' in (84), and *saut* 'answer' in (85).

1. *The Prefix Ma- in Resultative Adjective Construction*

It is important to note that the prefix *ma-* combined with the suffix *-an* can also produce resultative adjectives (see Saeed, 1997, p. 72). The followings are the examples.

- (86) *Pagarne mategehan*
Gate-POSS PREF-high-SUF
'The gate is getting higher.'
- (87) *Temboke maputih*
Wall-DEF PREF-white-SUF
'The wall is getting white now.'

The constructions above have been modified from the constructions below by using the prefix *-ma*.

- (88) *Ia negehang pagarne*
He PREF-high-SUF gate-DEF
'He has the gate been higher.'
- (89) *Ia mutihang tembokne*
Wall-DEF PREF-white-SUF
'The wall is getting white now.'

The examples show that the affix combination *ma-/in* can turn transitive verbs, such as *negehang* 'to make something high' with the adjective base *tegeh* 'high' into *mategehan* 'something becomes higher' in (86) and *mutihang* 'to make something white' with the adjective base *putih* 'white' into an intransitive verb *maputihang* 'something becomes white' in (87). Thus, such verbs are called resultative adjective verbs.

Rule:

$N1 + \text{Adjective} + N\text{-/ang} + N2 \rightarrow N2 + \text{ma-/an} + \text{adjective (resultative adjective)}$
--

2. The Prefix *Ma-* in Transitive Resultative Constructions

In addition to producing resultative adjectives, the prefix *ma-* can also produce transitive resultative. In this case, the resultative is created from an action or circumstance stated by the N-nasal transitive verb with a transitive base. The following examples show how:

(90) *Jijihe majemuh*
Rice-DEF PREF-dry in the sun'
'The rice was dried in the sun.'

(91) *Taluhe malalab*
Eggs-DEF PREF-boil
'The eggs were boiled.'

The examples show that the prefix *ma-* can turn transitive verbs, such as *nyemuh* 'to dry in the sun' with the transitive base verb *jemuh* 'to dry in the sun' in (92) into *majemuh* 'dried in the sun' in (90) and *ngelalab* 'to boil' with the transitive base verb *lalab* 'to boil' in (93) into *malalab* 'boiled' in (91).

(92) *Ia nyemuh jijihe*
He PREF-dry in the sun rice-DEF
'He dried the rice in the sun.'

(93) *I meme ngelalab taluh*
DEF mother PREF-boil eggs
'Mother boiled the eggs'

Thus, the rule is:

$N1 + \text{transitive verb} + N\text{-} + N2 \rightarrow N2 + \text{ma-} + \text{transitive verb (transitive resultative)}$
--

(d). Imperative Construction With the Prefix *N-*

Prefix {*N-*} is largely used in Balinese. The prefix *N-* has the variants *m-*, *ng-*, and *ny-*. Many Balinese imperative sentences with the prefix {*N-*} can also be found. This is a topic of interest and something to be studied more deeply, considering that verbs with the prefix {*N-*} are commonly used in declarative sentences. Declarative sentences that use transitive verbs with *N-* can be paraphrased into passive sentences. Based on the data obtained, imperative sentences with the verb *N-* can be classified into intransitive and transitive verbs.

1. Intransitive Imperative With *N-* Verbs

As clarified earlier in this study, in Balinese, intransitive verbs can also be constructed using the prefix *N-* in combination with intransitive and transitive base verbs. A few imperative sentences that use the intransitive *N-* verb can be seen below:

(94) *Negak malu!*
Pref-sit first
'Please sit down first!'

(95) *Nyongkok ditu!*
PREF-squat there
'Please squat there!'

(96) *Ngarit malu!*
PREF-sickle first
'Go to sickle grass first!'

(97) *Ngamah malu mare lanjutang magae!*
PREF-eat first just continue work
'Eat first and then continue your work!'

In the imperative sentences above, intransitive *N-* verbs, namely *negak* 'to sit down' in (94) and *nyongkok* 'to squat' in (95), are used. The two verbs only have one subject element, so they are called intransitive. However, the verb *ngarit* 'to sickle' in (96) and the verb *ngamah* 'to eat' in (97) can syntactically have one or two valences, but semantically the verbs have two valences, namely the subject and object elements. Thus, imperative sentences (96) and (97) can also be in the form of transitive imperatives like (98) and (99).

(98) *Ngarit padang malu!*
PREF-sickle grass first
'Go to sickle grass first!'

(99) *Ngamah nasi malu!*

PREF-eat first just continue work
 'Eat first and then continue your work!'

Based on the analysis above, verbs *ngarit* and *ngamah* can occupy two categories: intransitive and transitive. When they are intransitive, the noun object can already be known semantically, whereas when they function as transitive, the object's presence serves only as a confirmation.

2. Transitive Imperative With N- Verbs

In general, verbs with the prefix *N-* are mostly used in declarative sentences. However, imperative sentences using the *N-* verb can also be found. A few imperative sentences that use the transitive *N-* verb can be seen below.

- (100) *Ngambar kedis jani!*
 PREF-draw bird now
 'Draw bird now!'
- (101) *Maca buku malu!*
 PREF-read book first
 'Read the book first!'
- (102) *Gek ngae jukut mu/malu!*
 Gek PREF-make vegetables please
 'Please make vegetables!'
- (103) *Meli ember malu!*
 PREF-buy bucket first
 'Please buy two buckets!'

Transitive verbs with the prefix *N-* can also be combined with the suffixes *-ang* and *-in* when the function is to increase the valence of the verb. The following examples show how.

- (104) *Meliang meme ember malu!*
 PREF-buy-SUF mother bucket first
 'Please buy bucket for mother!'
- (105) *Ngambarin bukune kedis jadi!*
 PREF-draw book-DEF bird now
 'Draw the bird book now!'

Interestingly, the construction with prefix *N-*, combined with the suffix *-ang/-in*, can create declarative and/or imperative sentences depending on the contextual situation. It means that it refers to declarative or imperative based on the context of the expression. The important thing to pay attention to is that an object following the base verb with the suffix *-ang/-in* must be in the definite form marked by the suffix *-e/-ne*. If the object is a personal pronoun, it does not require definite markers as it already is a definite noun. However, objects that follow the *N-* verb combined with the suffix *-ang/-in* do not require definite markers and personal pronouns are also possible as objects. On an important note, the word *malu* 'first' in the imperative construction with the prefix *N-* is mandatory because if the word *malau* 'first' is eliminated, the construction would be a declarative sentence and not an imperative sentence.

(e). Imperative With a Prepositional Phrase

In Balinese, some imperative sentences do not contain a verb. However, in such constructions, the presence of a prepositional phrase is very important. The following examples prove it.

- (106) *Ke peken mani nah mbok!*
 To market tomorrow okay sister
 'Go to the market tomorrow sister!'
- (107) *Di jumah nyai nah!*
 At home you (female) okay
 'You stay at home!'
- (108) *De ke ma nyanan Bli!*
 Do not to there next time brother
 'Don't go there next time Brother!'
- (109) *De di ni dogen cai, kisdang awake!*
 Do not here just you (male), move yourself
 'Don't just stay here, move over there!'

No verbs can be found in the imperative constructions above. The constructions use prepositional phrases as the predicate of the sentences, such as *ke peken* 'to the market' in (106), *di jumah* 'at home' in (107), *ke ma* 'to there' in (108), and *di ni* 'in here' in (109). The sentences prove that prepositional phrases may be used to make either positive imperative as in (106) and (107) or negative imperative as in (108) and (109).

(f). Negative Imperative

Like other agglutinative languages, Balinese also has a negative imperative construction. The negative imperative has particular markers. The following examples include these markers:

- (110) *De sebet cai*
Don't sad you
'You don't be sad!'
- (111) *De wanen-wanen teken rerama!*
Don't brave with parents
'Don't be brave with parents!'
- (112) *De ajum nyai!*
Don't proud you (female)
'You don't be proud.'
- (113) *Sing dadi takut ajak guru!*
Not can afraid of teacher
'You are prohibited to be afraid of the teacher!'
- (114) *De pules kali jani!*
Don't sleep this time
'Don't go to bed at this time!'
- (115) *De luas padidi*
Don't go alone
Don't go out alone!
- (116) *Sing dadi mulih padidi!*
Not can go home alone
Don't go home alone!'
- (117) *Sing dadi mulih sakonden pragat gaene!*
Not can go home before finish work-DEF
'You are not allowed to go home before you finish the work!'

The data above proves that negative markers *de* 'don't' and *sing dadi* 'not allowed' are used to reach the negative imperative construction in sentences. By delving deeper, an interesting conclusion can be reached. Adjectives such as *sebet* 'sad' (110), *wanen-wanen* 'brave' (111), *ajum* 'arrogant' (112), *takut* 'scare' (113), and intransitive base verbs like *pules* 'sleep' (114), *luas* 'go' (115), *mulih* 'go home' (116), *pragat* 'finish' (116) can be used to create negative imperative sentences, the same way as in English and Indonesian. However, in Balinese, most adjectives cannot be used to create positive imperative sentences. Thus, when the negative imperative marker *de* 'don't' and *sing dadi* 'you may not' in the examples (110-113) are not present, the sentences become declarative (informative) instead of positive imperative, as follows.

- (118) *Sebet cai!*
Sad you (male)
'You are sad'
- (119) *Wanen-wanen teken rerama!*
Brave with parents
'You are brave with parents'
- (120) *Ajum nyai!*
Proud you (female)
'You are proud'
- (121) *Takut ajak guru cai!*
Afraid of teacher you (male)
'You are afraid of the teacher.'

However, when it is forced to make the positive imperative with an adjective, the adjectives have to be verbalized with the suffix *-ang/-in*, and the object must be in reflexive pronoun. Thus, construction (118-121) becomes the following constructions.

- (118a) *Sebetang awake!*
Sad-SUF you (male)
'You have to be sad'
- (119b) *Wanen-wanenang teken rerama!*
Brave-SUF with parents
'You have to be brave with parents'
- (120a) *Ajumang awake!*
Proud -SUFyou (female)
'You have to be proud'
- (121a) *Takutang-SUF awake ajak guru!.*
Afraid of teacher you (male)
'You have to be afraid of the teacher.'

(g). *Passive Imperative*

To this day, passive construction in Balinese is still under discussion. Some published studies declare that passive in Balinese is marked by verbs with the suffixes *ka-* and *-a*. The use of the prefix *ka-* as a passive marker has been proven by a vast amount of data and arguments and is now generally accepted, but there are still differences of opinion regarding the use of the suffix *-a* as a passive marker. On the one hand, some previous studies declare that *-a* can be used as a passive marker when the agent appears in the construction, as in *Kuluke tampela taken I Kaki* "the dog was kicked by grandfather," where the suffix *-a* in *tampela* is used as a passive marker. However, if the agent is not present in the construction, suffix *-a* is not a passive marker but a third-person agent, such as *Kuluke tampela* 'he kicked the dog.' On the other hand, several linguists do not accept the use of the suffix *-a* as a passive marker whether it is used in a sentence with agents or without agents.

The issue with the use of passive markers in Balinese can be resolved based on passive imperative analysis in this study. The marker or suffix *-a* in Balinese is ascertained as a passive marker associated with the imperative construction. This can be proven in imperative passive negative sentences found in Balinese. However, only negative passive imperative constructions can be found in Balinese, but no positive passive imperative constructions. For example, in English, both negative and positive passive imperative constructions can be found, as mentioned previously. The followings are some examples of negative passive imperative sentences.

- (122) *De juanga siape!*
Don't take-SUF cock -DEF
'Don't take the cock!'
- (123) *De adepa motore!*
Don't sell-SUF motor cycle-DEF
'Don't sell the motorcycle.'
- (124) *De orahina I Bapa masalah caine!*
Don't tell-SUF-SUF DEF father problem you-DEF
'Don't tell father about your problem!'
- (125) *De tongosina umah bline!*
Don't live-SUF-SUF house brother-DEF
'Don't live in my house!'
- (126) *De kisidanga motore!*
Don't move-SUF-SUF motor-DEF
'Don't move the motorcycle!'
- (127) *De tegehanga panyengkere!*
Don't high-SUF-SUF gate-DEF
'Don't make the gate high!'
- (128) *De pedihina kurenanne!*
Don't angry-SUF-SUF wife-POSS
'Don't get angry with your wife!'

All of the above imperative negative sentences use verbs with the suffix *-a* where it functions as a passive marker. This proves that *-a* in Balinese is a passive suffix with or without the presence of an agent. With the discovery of data such as above, the discussion about the suffix *-a* as a passive marker can be concluded to be finished and the issue solved. It means that suffix *-a* can function as a passive marker proven by the imperatives above and can function as the third personal agent when the agent is not present in the construction, as mentioned in the previous studies. Furthermore, all the phrases where nouns act as the object in the above imperative sentences are marked by the definite marker *-e*. This can be concluded to ascertain that a noun phrase is signified by a definite marker in passive imperative sentences. Another finding that proves the use of the suffix *-a* can be as a passive marker when the agent of the verb is not present in the construction, and it is not always as the third person pronoun agent as stated in some previous studies, is the evidence of the use of the suffix *-a* in the imperative sentences above. The suffix *-a* in imperative sentences, such as the ones above, is highly unlikely to refer to the third person pronoun agent because the subject is the second person, whether it appears in the construction syntactically or not. The other interesting observation that can be made of the examples above is that if the negative markers in the imperative construction are removed, then the constructions become declarative constructions instead of imperative. Thus, it can be concluded that there are no positive passive imperative constructions in Balinese. The other conclusion is that the imperative sentences with a base transitive verb as in (122-123), verbs with suffix *-in* with transitive verb base as in (124-125), verbs with suffix *-ang* with the transitive base as in (126), verbs with suffix *-ang/in* with adjective base as in (127-128) must be in the form of negative passive imperative. They cannot be in the form of positive passive imperative since if they change into positive, the constructions become positive declarative.

IV. CONCLUSION

Balinese language, as an agglutinative language, has many affixes that are commonly used in producing new words. Morphologically, Balinese has many imperative sentence patterns: imperatives with intransitive and transitive base verbs, imperative base verbs with suffixes *-ang/-in*, intransitive verbs with *ma-* and intransitive, and transitive verbs

with *N-* Syntactically, Balinese also has imperative negative sentences constructed using both verbs and adjectives. Passive imperatives are also found in Balinese, although no data can be found on the use of positive passive imperatives, only negative passive imperatives. The passive imperatives found in Balinese can also be used to align the concept of the use of passive of Balinese, which has until now been under discussion. Some Balinese imperative sentences do not need the use of a verb as a predicate. But instead, prepositional phrases can also be used as a predicate. The last finding was that imperative sentences, where base verbs are used, cannot be made into passive negative imperative sentences, at least not without adding a definite marker - the suffix *-a* - to the base verb.

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Insights Into Vietnamese Bilingual Students' Quizlet-Based English Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—Modern technology has revolutionized the education by offering various tools that can enhance the teaching and learning process in general and English language teaching and learning in specific. Among a wide range of educational apps, Quizlet has been applied in vocabulary teaching and learning in different contexts. Therefore, this study aims at investigating bilingual students' Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning. It involved a cohort of 50 bilingual students, who were conveniently sampled from an international school in Vietnam, in answering the questionnaires. The collected data were analysed in terms of descriptive statistics with the use of software SPSS. The findings have shown that bilingual students perceived Quizlet as a useful, enjoyable, easy, and convenient tool for English vocabulary language learning, and they reckoned that Quizlet could improve their vocabulary learning. Based on such findings, this study has come up with pedagogical implications for the use of Quizlet in English vocabulary teaching and learning in the research context and other similar ones.

Index Terms—bilingual student, English, perception, Quizlet, vocabulary

I. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of technology has facilitated the process of education in general and language teaching and learning in specific (e.g., Jorge et al., 2003; Raja & Nagasubramani, 2018; Tran & Duong, 2022). Accordingly, technology has played a key role in enhancing the quality of education, especially English language teaching. Jorge et al. (2003) point out that technology provides the assistance and practical supports to both learners and teachers. Likewise, Chapelle (2008) states that teachers have opted to apply technology to remove time and space limitations in teaching and learning and avoid lagging behind the time because of realizing the implication and potentials of new technologies. In the same line, Raja and Nagasubramani (2018) assert that modern technology and tools help to improve students' learning and interactivity.

In the context of Vietnam, technology has been extensively applied in English language teaching and learning (Tran & Duong, 2021), and it has played a vital role in enhancing English language teaching and learning in general and vocabulary teaching and learning in specific. Different technological apps have been used to facilitate the vocabulary teaching and learning, and one of which is Quizlet which can assist learners' vocabulary learning (Nakata & Webb, 2016). Learners can get engaged in using Quizlet to learn vocabulary through different modes from learning mode to testing mode (Webb, 2007). Learners can choose any words for certain reasons and design their own learning modules or study sets. Thompson and MacDonald (2005) have proved that Quizlet allows learners to share their own wordlists with other learners, which generates a basis form of learning community, is positive for learning performances. Learners can view the terms as well as their definitions and pictures in the flashcard mode to learn vocabulary. Moreover, they can listen to the pronunciation of words in that learning mode. Learners can also take advantage of the sets created by teachers or make their own vocabulary sets for learning.

Although Quizlet has been considered a useful medium for English vocabulary learning, many concerns about how learners employ Quizlet for their Vocabulary learning have arisen. It has been observed that EFL students do not encounter many difficulties in using Quizlet to learn vocabulary, and they can make use of features (e.g., audios, images, flashcard, spelling, tests) embedded to Quizlet to learn vocabulary. Additionally, there have been many studies in relation to the effects of Quizlet that have been conducted; nevertheless, there is a scarcity of research on secondary school students' use of Quizlet to learn vocabulary in the context of an international school in Vietnam. To that void, this study attempts to explore bilingual students' use of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning in the context of an international school in Vietnam. This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What is bilingual students' perception of the use of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning?
2. What is bilingual students' perception of the effectiveness of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning?

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This study is theoretically expected to enrich evidence in relation to using Quizlet as a technological tool in developing students' vocabulary and to contribute its part to the literature body which can provide a further understanding of the Quizlet-based vocabulary learning. Practically, this study is hoped to inform stakeholders (e.g., teachers, administrators and parents) about the application of the Quizlet in the classroom. It can be one of the choices to vocabulary teaching strategy to cultivate students' vocabulary in bilingual contexts. Additionally, the result of this study can be a reference for EFL policy makers and faculty members in Vietnam to adapt and adopt the incorporation of Quizlet and other online game-apps into their teaching practice to boost students' English vocabulary learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

It is recognized that learners' perception plays an important role in understanding the use of Quizlet in vocabulary learning process. Many scholars (Köse & Mede, 2016) have asserted that learners' perceptions are found to affect the integration of Quizlet and English vocabulary learning. Furthermore, research on learners' perceptions of Quizlet has showed that Quizlet is regarded as a convenient, user-friendly and useful learning tool for vocabulary learning (Chien, 2015; Lander, 2016). Dizon (2016) states that Quizlet can be useful, easy and enjoyable for learners to learn vocabulary. Likewise, Anjaniputra and Salsabila (2018) mention that learners feel enjoyable to use Quizlet to learn vocabulary. Within the scope of this study, the use of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning can be of usefulness, enjoyment, ease of use and convenience.

With respect of the effectiveness of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning, scholars (e.g., Apriliani, 2021; Sangtupim & Mongkolhutthi, 2019; Nguyen et al., 2021; Pham, 2022; Ho et al., 2020) have indicated that Quizlet is an effective tool for vocabulary learning. Sangtupim and Mongkolhutthi (2019) mention that learners can improve their vocabulary via Quizlet. In the same line, Ho et al. (2020) state Quizlet is effective for vocabulary improvement as it provides learners with better results compared to traditional methods. Additionally, Apriliani (2021) confirms that Quizlet is effective for learning vocabulary thanks to its wide range of features and the usability of the application. Pham (2022) argues that the 'Test' feature in Quizlet is useful as it helps learners to review vocabulary effectively. In another aspect, Nguyen et al. (2021) believe that Quizlet is an effective tool for autonomous learning and it can provide them with an interesting method of acquiring vocabulary.

Prior studies relevant to the use of Quizlet for English vocabulary learning have been conducted in different contexts. For example, the study of Dizon (2016) was conducted with the purpose of examining the effectiveness of Quizlet for developing English vocabulary. The study involved 9 students from a Japanese university and collected data through a pre-test and post-test. During the treatment, the students took part in a training course that incorporated Quizlet into vocabulary learning. The researcher found that students had significant gains in their vocabulary learning and concluded that Quizlet was an effective tool for vocabulary acquisition. In another context, Özer and Koçoğlu (2017) conducted a study to investigate the effects of Quizlet and vocabulary notebooks on vocabulary acquisition. The study involved 89 students who were divided into two different control groups, and each group was taught with a specific method. Pre-tests and post-tests were used to measure the ability of the students. The researchers discovered that there were no significant differences between the use of Quizlet and vocabulary notebooks on vocabulary acquisition. In the study of Setiawan and Wiedarti (2020), the researchers aimed to determine how effective Quizlet was at improving the motivation of students for learning vocabulary. Sixty-five students were included in this study and divided into two groups. The researchers observed the control groups to determine whether groups that learned with Quizlet had more or less motivation than those that did not. Students who learned with Quizlet displayed higher levels of motivation and were more enthusiastic than those who did not learn with Quizlet. Aksel (2021) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness of Quizlet on vocabulary achievement for ESL students. The study also investigated students' perceptions of Quizlet for vocabulary learning. Ninety-two university students from a Turkish university were involved. Quantitative analysis was used to determine their perceptions while pre-tests and post-tests were used to determine the effectiveness of Quizlet. It was found that Quizlet was effective for teaching vocabulary and that students felt positive towards using it as a learning tool. In the same year, Apriliani (2021) investigated the perceptions of high school students of using Quizlet for learning English vocabulary. The researcher collected qualitative data by interviewing five students from a senior high school in Indonesia. The findings indicated that students felt that Quizlet was an interesting tool for learning vocabulary and that it made them feel enthusiastic when learning. The researcher also recommended the use of Quizlet for teaching vocabulary.

In the context of Vietnam, Ho (2019) conducted a study to determine the efficacy of Quizlet for vocabulary teaching in comparison to paper flashcards. There were three phases in this study, namely a pre-test, training period of four weeks, and post-test. Thirty-nine high school students were involved in this study. These students were divided into two groups. The groups were taught vocabulary with Quizlet and paper flashcards. One group was taught first with Quizlet, after which the method was changed to flashcards, and the other group did the reverse. The results of the pre-test and post-test indicated that while both methods were effective for improving vocabulary acquisition, Quizlet was more efficient. In the study of Ho et al. (2020), the researchers wanted to find out the effectiveness of Quizlet for enhancing vocabulary acquisition in non-English major freshmen and determine their attitudes towards the Quizlet application. Sixty participants were involved in the study and the researchers implemented a quasi-experimental design with two groups and pre-tests and post-tests for each group. One group was taught vocabulary without the use of Quizlet,

whereas the other was with the use of Quizlet. The researchers found that Quizlet was effective for improving the vocabulary acquisition of the participants. Nguyen et al. (2021) investigated the effectiveness of Quizlet for autonomous vocabulary learning. The study collected quantitative data from 100 participants at a university in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. The researchers found that students experienced enhanced learning motivation from Quizlet due to the enjoyment that the application provided. It was also found that many participants actively made use of the application for autonomous vocabulary learning. In Pham's (2022) study, the researcher wanted to discover the perceptions that students have of Quizlet for vocabulary learning. The researcher made use of both qualitative and quantitative research and included 148 students in the study. A questionnaire and semi-structured interview were used for data collection. The researcher discovered that students preferred Quizlet as a tool for vocabulary learning due to its convenience. In brief, it is noticed that different types of students got involved in the use of Quizlet for vocabulary learning, but there is a scarcity of research on bilingual students' Quizlet-based vocabulary learning. To that void, this study attempted to scrutinise bilingual students' Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning in the context of an international school in Vietnam.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Setting and Participants*

This quantitative study adapted a post-positivist perspective, using the quantitative approach to garner bilingual students' Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The study was conducted in the context of an international school in Vietnam which offered educations from kindergarten to high school. Students had to take a Vietnamese – English curriculum. The Vietnamese curriculum complies with the program of Education and Training of Vietnam, while the English curriculum complies with international Oxford curriculum. The courses were in charge of both Vietnamese and foreign teachers (e.g., USA, UK, Australia). Students had to take general English courses in which Quizlet (free version) was deployed to facilitate their English vocabulary learning. Additionally, students were also required to use Quizlet at home for further vocabulary learning activities.

This study involved a cohort of 50 sixth-grade students, who were conveniently sampled, in answering the questionnaires. Among them, 76% (38) students reported that they spent less than one hour daily learning vocabulary with Quizlet, while 20% (10) students allocated from one to three hours daily to Quizlet-based vocabulary learning and 4% (2) students allotted more than five hours daily to Quizlet-based vocabulary learning.

B. *Research Instrument*

A closed-ended questionnaire adapted from the Dizon's (2016) study was employed for data collection. It is composed of two main sections: Section A collecting participants' background information; Section B containing 20 items (9 items for the use of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning in terms of usefulness, enjoyment, and ease of use; 11 items for the effectiveness of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning in terms of vocabulary improvement, time and place, and motivation and autonomy). The five-point Likert scale (from Strongly disagree to Strongly agreed) was designed for all 20 items. The Cronbach's alpha of the questionnaire was .78, which means the questionnaire was reliable.

C. *Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis*

Before the main study took place, the instrument was piloted with ten students who shared similar characteristics with those in the main study. After modification to the instrument had been carried out, each participant was given a copy of questionnaire which took him approximately 15-20 minutes to finish. All the returned copies of questionnaire were double-checked for the validity of the answers. Regarding the data analysis, the software SPSS (version 23) was utilised in terms of descriptive statistics (Mean: M; Standard deviation: SD). The interval scale of the five-point Likert scale was understood as 1.00-1.80: Strongly disagree; 1.81-2.60: Disagree; 2.61-3.40: Neutral; 3.41-4.20: Agree; 4.21-5.00: Strongly agree (Kan, 2009). Additionally, the intra-rating method was conducted to assure the validity and reliability of the data analysis.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Results*

(a). *Bilingual Students' Use of Quizlet-Based English Vocabulary Learning*

As seen in Table 1, the total mean score of bilingual students' use of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning is 3.48 out of five (SD=.94). The mean scores of the four components (usefulness, enjoyment, ease of use and convenience) were 3.59 (SD=.88), 3.48 (SD=.88), 3.44 (SD=.97), and 3.58 (SD=.90) respectively. This means that bilingual students reckoned that Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning was useful, enjoyable, easy and convenient for them.

TABLE 1
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' USE OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING

No.	Components	N=50	
		M	SD
1	Usefulness	3.59	.88
2	Enjoyment	3.48	.88
3	Ease of use	3.44	.97
4	Convenience	3.58	.90
	Average	3.52	.94

Specifically, the results in Table 2 reveal that bilingual students agreed that “using Quizlet [made] learning vocabulary more interesting” (item A1: M=3.66; SD=.93) and “Quizlet [offered] useful ways to learn vocabulary” (item A2: M=3.52; SD=.83).

TABLE 2
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' USE OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING IN TERMS OF USEFULNESS

No.	Content	N=50	
		M	SD
A1	Using Quizlet makes learning vocabulary more interesting	3.66	.93
A2	Quizlet offers useful ways to learn vocabulary	3.52	.83

Table 3 shows that bilingual students thought that “the different learning modes on Quizlet [were] enjoyable” (item A5: M=3.6; SD=.78), they “[liked] to use Quizlet to learn English vocabulary (item A3: M=3.44; SD=.95), and they “[preferred] using Quizlet rather than using other learning methods for learning vocabulary” (item 4: M=3.41; SD=.92).

TABLE 3
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' USE OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING IN TERMS OF ENJOYMENT

No.	Content	N=50	
		M	SD
A3	I like to use Quizlet to learn English vocabulary.	3.44	.95
A4	I prefer using Quizlet rather than using other learning methods for learning vocabulary.	3.41	.92
A5	I think that the different learning modes on Quizlet are enjoyable.	3.60	.78

As regards Table 4, bilingual students reported that they “[could] easily use study sets on Quizlet created by other people to learn vocabulary” (item A9: M=3.5; SD=.88), “[could] easily understand how to use Quizlet to learn vocabulary” (item A6: M=3.52; SD=.97), and “[used] Quizlet to learn vocabulary without help from parents or teachers” (item A8: M=3.46; SD=1.03). Nonetheless, they were unsure if they “[did not] have any problems when using Quizlet” (item A7: M=3.26; SD=1.15).

TABLE 4
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' USE OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING IN TERMS OF EASE OF USE

No.	Content	N=50	
		M	SD
A6	I easily understand how to use Quizlet to learn vocabulary.	3.52	.97
A7	I don't have any problems when using Quizlet.	3.26	1.15
A8	I use Quizlet to learn vocabulary without help from my parents or teachers.	3.46	1.03
A9	I can easily use study sets on Quizlet created by other people to learn vocabulary.	3.50	.88

It is observed in Table 5 that bilingual students reported that “it [was] convenient for [them] to use Quizlet to learn vocabulary at any time’ (item A10: M=3.66, SD=.84), and they could “learn vocabulary on Quizlet at any place” (item A12: M=3.58, SD=.97) and “use Quizlet effectively on different devices to learn vocabulary” (item A11: M=3.50, SD=.90).

TABLE 5
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' USE OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING IN TERMS OF CONVENIENCE

No.	Content	N=50	
		M	SD
A10	It is convenient for me to use Quizlet to learn vocabulary at any time.	3.66	.84
A11	I can use Quizlet effectively on different devices to learn vocabulary.	3.50	.90
A12	I can learn vocabulary on Quizlet at any place.	3.58	.97

(b). *Bilingual Students' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Quizlet-Based English Vocabulary Learning*

The results in Table 6 indicate that the total mean score of bilingual students' perceptions of the effectiveness of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning is 3.49 out of five (SD=.96). The mean scores of two components are 3.50 (SD=.99) for motivation and autonomy and 3.48 (SD=.97) for vocabulary improvement. The findings can be understood that bilingual students perceived that Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning could improve their vocabulary and enhance their motivation and autonomy.

TABLE 6
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING

No.	Components	N=50	
		M	SD
1	Vocabulary improvement	3.48	.97
2	Motivation and autonomy	3.50	.99
	Average	3.49	.96

In terms of vocabulary improvement, bilingual students believed that Quizlet “[was] better at improving vocabulary than other learning methods” (item 4: M=3.62; SD=.92), “[helped them] to improve [their] vocabulary” (item B1: M=3.42; SD=.99) and “[helped them] to remember words better” (item B3: M=3.41; SD=.96). They also agreed that they “[could] learn many words via Quizlet” (item B2: M=3.56; SD=1.01), and “[felt] more confident about [their] vocabulary knowledge after using Quizlet” (item 5: M=3.44; SD=.99).

TABLE 7
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING IN TERMS OF VOCABULARY IMPROVEMENT

No.	Content	N=50	
		M	SD
B1	Quizlet helps me to improve my vocabulary.	3.42	.99
B2	I can learn many words via Quizlet.	3.56	1.01
B3	Quizlet helps me to remember words better.	3.41	.96
B4	Quizlet is better at improving my vocabulary than other learning methods.	3.62	.92
B5	I feel more confident about my vocabulary knowledge after using Quizlet.	3.44	.99

Regarding the results in Table 8, bilingual students agreed that Quizlet “[helped them] to learn vocabulary on [their] own” (item B7: M=3.66; SD=.91) and “[motivated them] to learn vocabulary” (item B5: M=3.43; SD=.94), and they believed that they “[could] effectively learn vocabulary with Quizlet without help from [their] teachers or parents” (item B6: M=3.46; SD=1.11).

TABLE 8
BILINGUAL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF QUIZLET-BASED ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING IN TERMS OF MOTIVATION AND AUTONOMY

No.	Content	N=50	
		M	SD
B5	Quizlet motivates me to learn vocabulary.	3.43	.94
B6	I can effectively learn vocabulary with Quizlet without help from my teacher or parents.	3.46	1.11
B7	Quizlet helps me to learn vocabulary on my own.	3.66	.91

B. Discussion

Two significant findings from this study have been unravelled. Firstly, bilingual students believed that it was useful, enjoyable, easy, and convenient for them to use Quizlet to learn English vocabulary learning. They found Quizlet a useful learning tool to learn vocabulary. This is likely due to the wide range of modes that the Quizlet app has for different types of learning and ways of assessing user’s knowledge. Additionally, thanks to features on the Quizlet app, students could make use of study sets created by other people for the vocabulary learning purpose. This finding is supported by Thompson and MacDonald (2015) who have indicated that learners can make use of the learning community on Quizlet for the learning purpose. Moreover, bilingual students in this study were interested in Quizlet as they believed that the Quizlet-based vocabulary learning was enjoyable. One of the plausible explanations for this could be the variety of study sets on the Quizlet, so students could feel eager and interested in using Quizlet for learning vocabulary. This finding is in alignment with that from previous studies (e.g., Aprilani, 2021; Setiawan & Wiedarti, 2020) which have indicated that students feel enthusiastic and do not feel bored when learning vocabulary with Quizlet; therefore, they can be actively engaged and have great enjoyment in Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning. Another point is that it was easy and convenient for students to use Quizlet to learn vocabulary. Since the Quizlet is user-friendly, students could use it via different devices such as computers, tablets, iPads, and mobiles phones. Therefore, they could learn vocabulary via Quizlet at any time and any place. This finding is corroborated with that from Pham’s (2022) study who has found out that students preferred to use Quizlet for vocabulary learning due to its convenience.

Secondly, bilingual students perceived that the Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning was effective in terms of enhancing their vocabulary and motivation and autonomy. With respect to the vocabulary enhancement, it was found out that bilingual students could learn many new words via Quizlet. The research participants in this study were still young, and they tended to be eager to learn vocabulary via Quizlet. Additionally, they believed that Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning was more effective in improving their vocabulary than other learning methods. This may be due to the interactive learning mode of the Quizlet which could facilitate students’ vocabulary learning process. Another explanation is that students in this study were bilingual, learning at an international school in which English was one of the main languages for instruction; therefore, it may be easy for them to use Quizlet for English vocabulary

learning. This finding coincides with studies conducted by Dizon (2016), Ho (2019), and Ho et al. (2020) who have compared Quizlet with other learning methods and found that Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning was a more efficient learning method than flashcard-based vocabulary learning. In terms of motivation and autonomy enhancement, bilingual students felt motivated when using Quizlet to learn vocabulary. As the Quizlet could be useful, enjoyable, easy, and convenient for students to use, it could help them to learn vocabulary on their own. Accordingly, they believed that Quizlet could help them to learn vocabulary autonomously. This means that students did not need to rely on the assistance of parents or teachers when learning vocabulary via Quizlet. Nguyen et al. (2021) also found that students were able to use Quizlet to learn vocabulary autonomously.

V. CONCLUSION

The study has reached some conclusions that bilingual students in this study perceived Quizlet as a useful, enjoyable, easy, and convenient tool for English vocabulary language learning, and they believed in the effectiveness of Quizlet-based English language learning. From such conclusions, pedagogical implications are drawn. Firstly, it is found that Quizlet is effective in vocabulary learning, so teachers should make use of Quizlet for vocabulary teaching and learning. Teachers should encourage students to use Quizlet to learn, review and self-assess their vocabulary. Besides, Quizlet can offer a convenient and independent learning experience; therefore, teachers should facilitate their students' Quizlet-based vocabulary learning and help them to be familiar with the different modes with which they can use Quizlet at their convenience. Secondly, students should be trained how to use Quizlet effectively as Quizlet has different useful features for vocabulary learning. As students are encouraged to use Quizlet, they should be regularly checked and monitored to make sure that they can use Quizlet effectively. Thirdly, Quizlet is proved to be effective for English vocabulary learning, so it is advised for academic administrators to allocate budget to buy full accounts for Quizlet in order to use full features in Quizlet.

This study still indicates some limitations. This study collected quantitative data through questionnaires to collect students' perceptions of Quizlet-based English language learning. Additionally, the sample size of the research was small, so the generalisation may not be gained. Therefore, it is recommended that further research should employ the pre-test post-test and interview to examine the effects of Quizlet-based English vocabulary learning.

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The Validity of Hiring Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Instructors: Professional Observers', Learners', and Programme Administrators' Perceptions

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Abstract—In the recent past, considerable attention has been directed towards the issues relating to non-native English speaker teachers (NNESTs) and native English speaker teachers (NESTs) in English language teaching (ELT), especially their employability as English language teachers. This study aimed to investigate the hiring process for an English as a foreign language (EFL) instructor position. The study has adopted a mixed-design approach using a structured questionnaire on 212 students from the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) at Princess Nora University (PNU) and the Common First Year (CFY) at King Saud University (KSU) and semi-structured interviews on six programme administrators and professional observers from the higher education language institutions in Saudi Arabia to achieve the study's objectives. Specifically, this study examined three areas: a) the programme administrators' perception of the hiring criteria of both NESTs and NNESTs; b) the professional observers' perception of the hiring criteria used, linking them to the performance of both NESTs and NNESTs in EFL classes and providing criteria that they deem necessary; and c) the learners' perception of the characteristics of an effective EFL instructor to support the latter's perception. The results revealed that being a native speaker was not important from the perception of programme administrators, professional observers, and learners. However, programme administrators, professional observers, and learners gave more importance to other criteria such as pedagogical skills, personal qualities, and the ability to teach.

Index Terms—teachers' perceptions, textbook, Saudi EFL teachers, quantitative research, qualitative research

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the late nineteenth century, English has been the world's dominant language (Al-Khasawneh, 2017), and it has spread widely to become the most-spoken language (Crystal, 2003). It occupies the status of an official or semi-official language in more than 60 countries (Alcaraz & Navarro, 2006; Medgyes, 2017). Moreover, it has become the dominant language of technology, science, and commerce (Kaplan, 1983). Therefore, English language teaching and learning have become major concerns for educators and students all over the world (Alseweed & Daif-Allah, 2012). Under these circumstances, in ELT (English language teaching), "native speakerism" became a debatable topic (Alseweed & Daif-Allah, 2012).

Robert (1992) and Peter (1994) were the pioneer researchers on this matter, but it took a decade to conduct the research regarding "native speakerism" (Moussu & Llorca, 2008). George Braine's book *Non-native Educators in English Language Teaching* (1999) paved the way for the researchers to conduct further studies on NESTs and NNESTs (Moussu & Llorca, 2008). These include, for example, Medgyes (1992); Reves and Medgyes (1994); Cook (1999); Srva and Medgyes (2000); Matsuda and Matsuda (2001); Davies (2003); Mahboob (2004); Ling and Braine (2007); Wu and Ke (2009); Alseweed and Daif-Allah (2012); Javid (2016); Rondonuwu et al. (2022).

The majority of professionally trained instructors are NNESTs (non-native English speakers), followed by a large number of NESTs (Braine, 1999; Liu, 1999; Graddol, 2006; Tsang, 2017). Accordingly, many arguments have been raised questioning whether NNESTs are capable of teaching English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) (Tsang, 2017). It has been believed that the "ideal language teachers" are NESTs (Moussu, 2010, p. 746). Clark and Paran (2007) asserted that mainly NNESTs are treated unfairly when applying for a language teaching job.

Moreover, this stereotyping has led most policymakers and administrators to recruit NESTs over NNESTs due to native speakership in their hiring criteria, decreasing the NNESTs' employability in the field (Braine, 1999; Moussu, 2006; Selvi, 2010; Li-Yi, 2011; Alseweed, 2012). Furthermore, ELT job offers were mostly directed to NESTs by requiring native English as an essential requirement for employment regardless of teaching ability (Selvi, 2010; Li-Yi, 2011; Alseweed, 2012). This discrimination was clearly expressed to the public by some EFL and ESL programme

administrators during professional conferences and job interviews when programme administrators acknowledged that they only hire NESTs (Braine, 1999).

II. AIMS OF THE STUDY

This study aims to investigate the employment process for an EFL instructor position. More precisely, it sought to assess the hiring requirements and attitudes of the people involved in the recruiting process, Program Administrators (PAs), towards NESTs and NNESTs at two governmental universities in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. It also explored the professional observers' (POs) perception of the hiring criteria used by PAs. In other words, it investigated the performance of both NESTs and NNESTs according to POs who connected it to the hiring criteria used. Results will offer valuable suggestions for both policymakers and administrators to tailor their educational programmes accordingly.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Native and Non-Native English Speaker*

One of the goals of English language teaching is to achieve a native-like mastery of the language in order to be able to communicate internationally (García, 2013). According to Jenkins (2009), today's globalisation of English and the growing number of English speakers around the world have resulted in the majority of English users being bilingual or multilingual. The researchers argued that the language of the community into which a person is born is his or her native language. This gives them language competence, awareness, and creative usage of the language (Bloomfield, 1933; Chomsky, 1965; Medgyes, 1992, 1993, 1994; Cook, 1999). Contrary to that, some scholars view a native speaker as a person who has language competence that comes from training and practice (Davies, 1991; Paikeday, 1985). Thus, due to complex factors, there is no exclusive definition of the term "native speaker." However, this study is based on the term "ELT" as defined by Ellis (2002, p. 7) as an individual who speaks English as his or her first language and who belongs to either the inner circle or the outer circle.

B. *Native and Non-Native English Language Instructors in Higher Education in Saudi Arabia*

The most foreign language taught in Saudi Arabia is English (Al-Seghayer, 2017). All public and private higher education institutions have implemented the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) (Al-Seghayer, 2017). Among its various aims, the central focus is to strengthen learners' English proficiency. There is a very high demand for native instructors in these programmes in Saudi Arabia. Davies (2013) argued that the ability to teach is crucial in a language instructor, and mastery of the written form of the language is paramount among other features. Haque and Sharmin (2022) found that NESTs outstripped NNESTs in the four skills, while NNESTs were better at teaching grammar.

However, in many parts of the world, including Saudi Arabia, ELT job advertisements depict the preference for NESTs (Kirkpatrick, 2006; Selvi, 2010; Alshumaimeri, 2013). Hertel and Sunderman's (2009) findings affirm that ESL university learners had a positive attitude towards NESTs over NNESTs. However, learners in Cheung and Braine's (2007) study favoured the NNESTs and viewed them as just as effective as NESTs, adding the advantage of their capability of code-switching when facing complexity in explanation.

C. *Empirical Studies Viewing Learners' Perception of Native and Non-Native Teaching*

Learners act as the core and active part of the pedagogical process, and they are considered a rich source of information. Liang (2002) described those learners' preferences for NESTs and NNESTs did not depend on their nationality. Pacek's (2005, p. 254) study appreciated NNESTs' good rapport, linguistic awareness of the language, and pedagogical expertise; what mattered was "the teacher's personality, not nationality". However, in Benke and Medgyes's (2005) work, participants showed concern over the poor pronunciation of NNESTs and their frequent use of L1 in class. NESTs, on the other hand, were seen as ideal models for mimicking their speaking, had more "lively" lessons, and were more welcoming. Nevertheless, because of the different dialects, linguistics, and cultural backgrounds of most NESTs, L2 learners faced difficulties understanding them.

Walkinshaw and Oanh (2014) found that learners are satisfied with NESTs for correct pronunciation and Western cultural knowledge. However, sometimes having a different culture causes tension. On the other hand, NNESTs had the privilege of code-switching, switching from L2 to L1, and having the same culture as the learners. Even though learners viewed NNESTs' pronunciation as worse than NESTs', it was easier for them to comprehend. Al-Omrani (2008) revealed that Saudi university learners perceived both NESTs and NNESTs as having positives and negatives. Wang and Fang's (2020) findings suggested that their experience, knowledge, and teaching skills should be more important than their nationalities. Moreover, NESTs and NNESTs should be viewed as collaborators for educational integration, not competitors.

D. *Empirical Studies Viewing Program Administrators' and Professional Observers' Perception of Native and Non-Native Instructors*

Mahboob (2003) explored the recruiting practices and attitudes of university PAs in an intensive English programme toward native speakership as a hiring criterion in the United States. The findings exposed the importance of native

speakership for EFL/ESL instructors. Moreover, 92.1% of employed teachers were NESTs, while NNESTs were only 7.9%. Thus, he stated that it might be that viewing “native speakership” as an important criterion by PAs could deeply affect the decision made when hiring (Mahboob, 2003).

Moussu (2006) examined PAs' perceptions and employment practices. The findings revealed that 95.2% of the responses included teaching experience, 81% included a master's degree in a related field, 28.5% included abroad experience, 23.8% mentioned job interview performance, 19% mentioned having native-like fluency, and 9.5% mentioned recommendation letters. Another very important declaration by all PAs surveyed is that NNESTs can teach just as well as NESTs (55% strongly agreed, while 45% agreed). Moussu's (2006) findings revealed the hiring criteria did not include discrimination practices between NESTs and NNESTs, unlike Mahboob's (2003) findings.

Clark and Paran (2007) conducted the study in the United Kingdom. The findings revealed that teaching qualifications were the most important criterion, followed by the applicant's performance in the interview, teaching experience, educational background, and native speakerism. The least important criteria were ethnicity, European Union citizenship, British nationality, accent, application materials, and teaching demonstration. Nonetheless, the native speakership criterion was considered important; consequently, when recruiters see the native speakership criterion as important, it might result in difficulties for NNESTs who might be qualified, experienced, and fluent when applying for an English language teaching job.

As per the researcher's best knowledge, no investigation on the perception of POs to validate the hiring of native and non-native English-speaking instructors in Saudi higher education EFL institutions has hitherto been attempted. Moreover, findings from the previous studies are mainly focused on instructors' and learners' perceptions. Thus, the researcher chose this topic to investigate in depth.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Questions*

The following two research questions were the focus of this study:

1. What are the requirements that should be met when employing an EFL instructor in a higher education institution?
 - To what extent is teaching experience important in the hiring process?
 - To what extent are academic qualifications important in the hiring process?
 - To what extent is being a native English-speaking teacher or a non-native English-speaking teacher important in the hiring process?
2. How do professional observers and learners perceive native and non-native speakers in EFL classes?

B. *The Context of the Study*

The context of the study is two governmental universities, CFY-KSU and PYP-PNU, in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Specifically, this study examined the following three areas: the programme administrators' perception of the hiring criteria of both NESTs and NNESTs; the professional observers' perception of the hiring criteria used, linking them to the performance of both NESTs and NNESTs in EFL classes and providing criteria that they deem necessary; and the learners' perception of the characteristics of an effective EFL instructor to support the latter's perception.

C. *Mixed-Method Research*

To answer the research questions, the study involves a “mixed-methods approach.” When a single method of data collection is used, the validity of the results is hard to validate. A mixed-methods approach means “adopting a research strategy employing more than one type of research method” (Brannen, 2005, p. 4). This study was conducted using a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods that applied two data collection procedures: 1) thematic analysis; and 2) a questionnaire. The qualitative data came from thematic analysis of the in-depth interviews, and the quantitative data in this study were generated via a questionnaire.

D. *Thematic Analysis*

The study presents the data by themes, and the researcher attempts to seek commonalities among the participants. An analysis of the data revealed various themes, including the following predominant ones: 1) the steps involved in hiring EFL instructors, 2) the hiring criteria, 3) the importance of academic qualification, 4) the importance of native English speakership, 5) the importance of teaching experience, 6) the importance of personal qualities, 7) the importance of pedagogical skill, 8) the hiring criteria that are not valuable to the teaching process when hiring EFL instructors, 9) the hiring criteria that are valuable to the teaching process when hiring EFL instructors, and 10) the teaching abilities of native and non-native speakers.

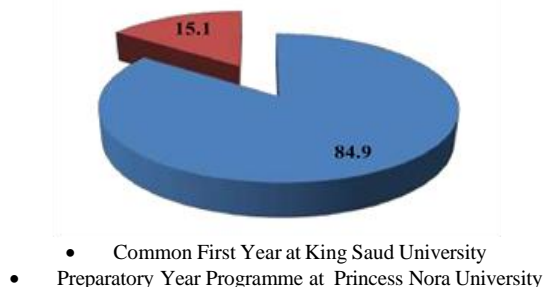
E. *Questionnaire*

Questionnaires have been popular and well-established (Bulmer, 2004). In this study, the researcher applied a questionnaire adapted from Moussu (2006) and Tood and Pojanapunya (2009) to suit the purpose of this research. The researcher also used Todd and Pojanapunya's (2009) questionnaire with adjustments.

F. Participants of the Study

Participants in this study were female PAs from CFY-KSU (N = 8), PAs from PYP-PNU (N = 2), POs from CFY-KSU (N = 7), POs from PYP-PNU (N = 2), and Saudi female learners from higher education language institutions (N = 213). However, not all participants agreed to participate. Only one PA from CFY-KSU agreed to be interviewed, as did four POs from CFY-KSU and two POs from PYP-PNU.

Sample distribution according to the participants' study level



Sample distribution according to the participants' English Language Level

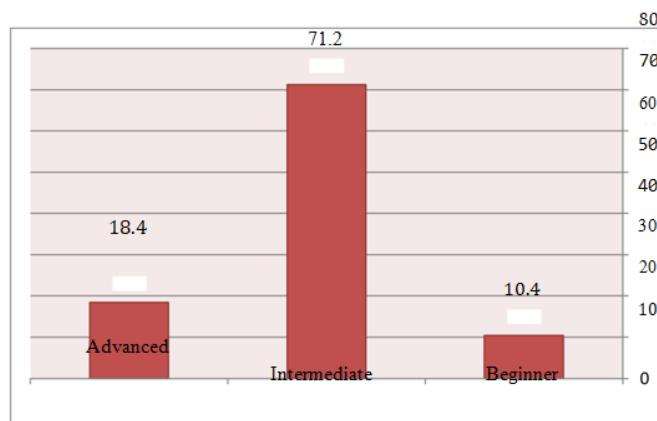


Figure 2 shows the distribution of participants based on their English language class level.

G. Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are the two most essential factors for research instruments. Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Garrett, 1937). The validity of the instrument was ensured by employing a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection. Thus, using more than one technique is necessary to confirm the results. Similarly, reliability refers to “the consistencies of the data, scores, or observations obtained using elicitation instruments.” To maximize the validity of a study, one has to plan, design, and pilot the instruments used for the study well (Brown, 2004). Having that said, the researcher conducted a pilot study to increase the reliability of the research. The researcher found in the literature studies that there were instruments that were tested and validated.

V. FINDINGS

A. Results from Qualitative Data Analysis

This part is devoted to the results of the qualitative data. The findings included the major recurrent themes, which are reflective of all observations about EFL instructors and the hiring process. An analysis of the data revealed various themes, including the following predominant ones:

B. Theme 1: Steps Followed When Hiring EFL Instructors at This Institution

It is important to note EFL instructors' motivation to attend training courses. The researcher asked the participants about the steps followed when hiring EFL instructors at this institution. Two participants expressed that process starts from submitting of CV. After scrutiny the candidate is called for a two-part interview followed by 10-15 minutes' demo lesson.

One participant expressed that candidate is called for interview as a final step, importance of CV is marginal. Two other participants also supported the importance of interview as a main step for hiring; one of them said, “We had a face-to-face interview, and the questions had to be done with the personal experience and cultural related questions. We

also had scenarios in terms of like teaching questions. And then it would be followed by a model lesson”.

One participant stressed that she was not familiar with the steps of hiring process.

C. Theme 2: The Hiring Criteria

The second theme that emerged from the interviews is the hiring criteria for EFL instructors is having at least two years of teaching experiences, a bachelor's degree, and a CELTA, TEFOL, or TESOL. There were no other answers regarding this theme.

D. Theme 3: Importance of Academic Qualifications in the Actual Class and Teaching Process

The third theme is the importance of academic qualifications in the actual class and teaching process. Four participants stated that the academic qualifications are very important one of them said, “*You can't be a high-school graduate and be teaching university students. For this level of college students, at least have that academic qualification, even if it's not in education. You need to show some intellect, and you need to have some knowledge. And you need to have gone through the university experience.*” Academic qualifications are also important because a good instructor should have academic skill.

One of the participants expressed that academic qualifications are important in terms of teaching criteria which mainly based on the CELTA teaching techniques.

E. Theme 4: Importance of Native English Speakership in the Actual Class and Teaching Process

The fourth theme is the importance of native English speakership in the actual class and teaching process. Three participants stressed the significance of native English speaker in the actual class and teaching process. One participant said that “*A native speaker does have that fluency to be able to manipulate the language and also the writing skills and to be able to answer vocabulary questions on the spot, and definitely in terms of the accent as well*”. However, one participant pointed out that the interest and willingness to teach are more important than being a native speaker.

F. Theme 5: Importance of Teaching Experience in the Actual Class and Teaching Process

The fifth theme is the importance of teaching experience in the actual class and teaching process. Four participants pointed out that teaching experience is very important, and two participants that it is moderately important; one of them expressed, “*with experience, instructors become better instructors*”.

G. Theme 6: Importance of Personal Qualities in the Actual Class and Teaching Process

The sixth theme is personal qualities (e.g., friendly, enthusiastic, and responsible) in the actual class and teaching process. Five participants pointed out that it is very important, one participant that it is moderately important. Personal qualities that are necessary for teaching include intrinsic motivation, caring about the students, enthusiasm, friendliness, responsibility, efficiency, and being an effective listener.

H. Theme 7: Importance of Pedagogical Skill in the Actual Class and Teaching Process

The seventh theme is the significance of pedagogical skill (e.g., classroom management, correct pronunciation, knowledge about the subject matter) in the actual class and teaching process. Three participants pointed out that pedagogical skills are moderately important because some of these skills are seen during the interview or demo lesson, and some of them during the observations. One participant pointed out that “*they also have to know how to manage a class effectively.*” That’s why more than half of participants stressed that they are moderately important.

I. Theme 8: Hiring Criteria That Are not Valuable to the Teaching Process When Hiring EFL Instructors

The eighth theme is the hiring criteria that are not valuable to the teaching process when hiring EFL instructors. Three participants stressed that being a native speaker is not valuable to the teaching process, so it should not be considered when hiring EFL instructors. One of the three said, “*Knowledge and experience are more vital.*” One participant pointed out the issue of having a master's degree, saying, “*It was valued when it came to recruiting; however, having a master's doesn't mean that the instructor is able to teach.*” One participant also pointed out that hiring instructors from a certain group of countries is not valuable.

J. Theme 9: Hiring Criteria That Are Valuable to the Teaching Process When Hiring EFL Instructors

The ninth theme is the hiring criteria that are valuable to the teaching process. One participant stressed five important criteria: a deep-rooted passion and interest for teaching, pronunciation accuracy, at least two years' teaching experience, excellent time management, and effective organizational skills. The issue of personality was stressed by one of the POs; he wanted to add a personality test to the hiring criteria, stressing that the instructors needed to be flexible because “*the education here in Saudi is constantly changing, improving, evolving, and developing; instructors need to be able to adapt and adopt this change and be flexible and aware of this reality.*” Moreover, the criterion of having a teaching qualification was expressed by three of the interviewed POs.

K. Theme 10: Teaching Abilities in Native and Non-Native Speakers

The ninth theme is the teaching abilities of native and non-native speakers. Three participants expressed their strong

agreement about the similarity of teaching abilities between native and non-native speakers. Two POs disagreed on this issue: One of them said, *“Instructors differ in teaching styles and abilities, regardless of whether they are native or not. One of the participants expressed his objection by saying, “We had natives who didn't take it seriously—for them, it was a trip to make some money and then travel back home. And we had natives who were the opposite and were committed. However, non-natives would always work really hard just to prove themselves”.*

L. The Questionnaire

In developing it, the researcher drew heavily on part-two items (i.e., 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26) from Moussu’s (2006) dissertation. However, some of these statements were integrated into one statement. For instance, statements 20, 21, and 22 were integrated into *“I can easily understand what my English language instructor is saying because her pronunciation of words is clear.”* The researcher also used Todd and Pojanapunya’s (2009) questionnaire with adjustments, relying on the first part of it. Moreover, the researcher used both Moussu’s (2006) and Todd and Pojanapunya’s (2009) questionnaires with adjustments to provide general information about the participants. This questionnaire was translated into Arabic for learners to fully understand it, as its main aim is to obtain information about their perception of an effective EFL instructor. In order to make sure that the questionnaire questions were not affected by the adaptations made or by translation, a pilot study was conducted.

TABLE 1
LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS IN EFL CLASSES

Overall learning with NESTs and NNESTs	Native		Non-native	
	Mean	Mean%	Mean	Mean%
1. I learnt more vocabulary	4.06	81.2	3.61	72.2
2. Pronunciation of English words became better	4.17	83.4	3.42	68.4
3. Became fluent in speaking	3.94	78.8	3.38	67.6
4. Writing skills in English improved	4.02	80.4	3.65	73
5. Listening skills in English improved	4.13	82.6	3.48	69.6
6. Reading skills in English improved	3.76	75.2	3.49	69.8
Total	4.01	80.2	3.50	70

Table 1 shows the overall learning with NESTs and NNESTs. The table shows that students' perception of "pronunciation" was 83.4% for native and 68.4% for non-native English teachers. Furthermore, 82.6% of the students perceived improved listening skills with native English teachers and 69.6% with non-native English teachers. Similarly, perception of vocabulary learning shows 81.2% satisfaction with native and 72.2% with non-native English teachers.

TABLE 2
LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF NESTS AND NNESTs

Perceived strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs	Native		Non-native	
	Mean	Mean%	Mean	Mean%
7. English language instructor explains difficult concepts in a way that is easily understood	3.86	77.2	4.02	80.4
8. English language instructor explains English grammatical rules in an easy and clear way	3.83	76.6	3.99	79.8
9. My English language instructor motivates me to do my best to learn English (answer about both NESTs- NNESTs)	3.92	78.4	3.71	74.2
10. English language instructor rarely makes grammatical or spelling mistakes when writing or speaking	3.97	79.4	3.60	70
11. It's easy to understand what English language instructor is saying	4.00	80	4.10	82
12. English language instructor can both predict and solve the problems that we face as English language learners	3.73	74.6	3.80	76
13. English language instructor can sympathize with and understands our needs as English language learners	4.08	81.6	3.97	79.4
14. English language instructor was highly qualified and confident when using English language	4.49	89.8	4.11	82.2
15. English language instructor taught me in a way that provoked self-learning	3.86	77.2	3.73	74.6
16. English language instructor focused on preparing the student for the exam more than enabling him/her to use the language for communication	2.94	58.8	2.94	58.8
Total	3.86	77.2	3.79	75.8

Table 2 shows the perception of the students concerning the strengths and weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs, 89.8% and 82.2%, respectively. Additionally, the table shows that 80% and 82% of the students agreed that they felt it was easy to understand the sayings of NESTs and NNESTs, respectively. Further, 58.8% of the students showed consensus that the native and non-native English language instructors focused more on preparing the students for the exam than on enabling them to use the language for communication. The overall mean percentage for the students' perception of strengths and weaknesses for native English instructors is 77.2%, and 75.8% for non-native ones.

TABLE 3
LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF INSTRUCTORS' CLASSROOM BEHAVIOUR AND RESPONSIBILITY

Instructors' classroom behaviour and responsibility	Native		Non-native	
	Mean	Mean%	Mean	Mean%
17Excited and sincere when teaching	4.19	83.8	3.88	77.6
18Aware and knowledgeable about the English language	4.35	87	4.03	80.6
19Has excellent classroom management skills	3.96	79.2	3.82	76.4
20Uses a variety of methods and tools to convey the meaning	4.10	82	3.81	76.2
21English language instructor's lessons feature a set of clear objectives and lively lessons and make the learning environment fun and comfortable	4.02	80.4	3.76	75.2
22Prepares lessons beforehand carefully	3.88	77.6	3.68	73.6
Total	4.08	81.6	3.83	76.6

Table 3 illustrates the perceived behaviour and responsibility of the instructor in the classroom. The ratios for knowledge and awareness of NESTs and NNESTs are 87% and 80.6%, respectively. The percentage level of excitement and sincerity is 83.8% NESTs and 77.6% NNESTs, respectively. According to students' perceptions, 82% of NESTs use various methods and tools, while 76.2% of NNESTs do. The overall mean percentage of students' opinions is 81.6% NESTs and 76.6% NNESTs.

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE EFL INSTRUCTOR

Students' perception of the qualities of an effective EFL instructor	Mean	Mean%
23A NEST is a better English language instructor than NNEST because she does not use the students' first language in the class.	3.67	73.4
24I care about the personal qualities of the English language instructor (such as being friendly, enthusiastic, and responsible) for her to be an effective language instructor.	4.71	94.2
25To be an effective English language instructor, her mother tongue has to be English.	2.65	53
26I prefer that an English language instructor be aware and knowledgeable about my first language and culture.	3.79	75.8
Total	3.70	74

Table 4 shows the perceived qualities of an effective EFL instructor. It shows that the students cared 94.2% about the personal qualities and 75.8% preferred the awareness and knowledgeable qualities of instructors about their first language and culture. A native English speaker was preferred by 53% of students as an effective English language instructor.

TABLE 5
DIFFERENCES IN LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF NATIVE EFL INSTRUCTORS BETWEEN DIFFERENT STUDENTS' STUDY LEVELS

Variable	Category	Nb	Mean (SD)	t statistics (df)	P value"
Learners' perception of native EFL classes	CFY-KSU	1804	0.91(1.793)	(34.63)	0.082
	PYP-PNU	32	3.65(1.61)		
Perceived strengths and weaknesses	CFY-KSU	1803	0.92(0.86)	1.372 (34.89)	0.179
	PYP-PNU	32	3.55(1.47)		
Perceived instructors' classroom behaviour and responsibility	CFY-KSU	1804	1.16(0.97)	1.832 (35.39)	0.075
	PYP-PNU	32	3.64(1.56)		

a. Number of participants, b. independent sample t-test

Table 5 shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the learners' perception of native EFL classes, perceived strengths and weaknesses, and perceived instructors' classroom behaviour and responsibility between the students who are studying at CFY-KSU or studying at PYP-PNU ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 6
DIFFERENCES IN LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF NON-NATIVE EFL INSTRUCTORS BETWEEN DIFFERENT STUDENTS' STUDY LEVELS

Variable	Category	Nb	Mean (SD)	t statistics (df)	p value"
Learners' Perception of non-native EFL classes	CFY-KSU	1803	0.53(1.34)	0.804 (210)	0.423
	PYP-PNU	32	3.32(1.48)		
Perceived strengths and weaknesses	CFY-KSU	1803	0.81(1.25)	0.617 (210)	0.538
	PYP-PNU	32	3.67(1.18)		
Perceived instructors' classroom behaviour and responsibility	CFY-KSU	1803	0.87(1.30)	1.225 (210)	0.222
	PYP-PNU	32	3.56(1.31)		

a. Number of participants, b. independent sample t-test

Table 6 illustrated no statistically significant difference in the learners' perception of non-native EFL classes, perceived strengths and weaknesses, and perceived instructors' classroom behaviour and responsibility between the students of both universities ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 7

DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE EFL INSTRUCTOR BETWEEN DIFFERENT STUDENTS' STUDY LEVELS

Variable	Category	Nb	Mean (SD)	t statistics(df)	P value*
Perceived qualities of an effective EFL instructor	CFY- KSU	180	3.64 (0.69)	3.650	0.001
	PYP- PNU	32	4.04 (0.55)	(50.01)	0.001

a. Number of participants, independent sample t-test

Table 7 shows that there is a statistically significant difference in the perceived qualities of an effective EFL instructor between the students at CFY-KSU and the students at PYP-PNU ($p < 0.05$). The table shows that the students at CFY-KSU have significantly higher mean scores for perceiving qualities of an effective EFL instructor. Differences in learners' perceptions of native EFL instructors between different students' levels of English are shown.

TABLE 8

DIFFERENCES IN LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF NATIVE EFL INSTRUCTORS BETWEEN DIFFERENT STUDENTS' LEVEL OF ENGLISH

Variable	Nb	Mean (SD)	F statistics (df)	P value ^a
Learners' perception of EFL instructor			0.340 (2, 209)	0.712
Beginner	22	4.07 (0.90)		
Intermediate	151	4.03 (1.10)		
Advanced	39	3.88 (0.98)		
Learners' perception of native EFL instructors			0.018 (2, 209)	0.982
Beginner	22	3.88 (0.66)		
Intermediate	151	3.87 (1.06)		
Advanced	39	3.84 (0.86)		
Learners' perception of native EFL instructors			0.110 (2, 209)	0.896
Beginner	22	4.03 (0.82)		
Intermediate	151	4.07 (1.17)		
Advanced	39	4.15 (0.92)		

a. One-way ANOVA, b. number of participants

Table 8 shows that there are no statistically significant differences in the learners' perceptions of native EFL classes, perceived strengths and weaknesses, and perceived instructors' classroom behaviour and responsibility depending on their level of English language proficiency ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 9

DIFFERENCES IN LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF NON-NATIVE EFL INSTRUCTORS BETWEEN DIFFERENT STUDENTS' LEVEL OF ENGLISH

Variable	Nb	Mean (SD)	F statistics (df)	P value ^a
Learners' perception of EFL instructors			12.943 (2, 209)	<0.001
Beginner	22	3.73 (0.98)		
Intermediate	151	3.71 (0.09)		
Advanced	39	2.54 (1.75)		
Learners' perception of native EFL instructors			6.955 (2, 209)	0.001
Beginner	22	4.02 (0.81)		
Intermediate	151	3.93 (1.09)		
Advanced	39	3.14 (1.70)		
Learners' perception of native EFL instructors			5.301 (2, 209)	0.007
Beginner	22	3.81 (0.90)		
Intermediate	151	3.98 (1.16)		
Advanced	39	3.24 (1.81)		

a. One-way ANOVA, b. number of participants

Table 9 shows that there are statistically significant differences in the learners' perception of EFL instructors depending on the students' English level ($p < 0.05$). A post hoc test analysis was performed and revealed that there is a difference between beginners and advanced students. Also, there are statistically significant differences in the perceived strengths and weaknesses of non-native English instructors based on the students' English level ($p < 0.05$); post hoc test analysis confirms the difference between beginners and advanced students. Moreover, there are statistically significant differences in the perceived instructors' classroom behaviour and responsibility of non-native English instructors between the students' English levels ($p < 0.05$), post hoc test analysis highlights the difference between intermediate and advanced students.

TABLE 10
DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEIVED QUALITIES OF AN EFFECTIVE EFL INSTRUCTOR BETWEEN DIFFERENT ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEVELS OF THE STUDENTS

Variable	Nb	Mean (SD)	F statistics (df)	P value ^a
Perceived qualities of and effective Instructor			0.703 (2, 209)	0.496
Beginner	22	3.60 (0.77)		
Intermediate	151	3.69 (0.67)		
Advanced	39	3.80 (0.68)		

a. One-way ANOVA, b. number of participants

Table 10 shows that there are no statistically significant differences in the perceived qualities of an effective EFL instructors based on the students' English level ($p > 0.05$).

VI. DISCUSSION

The main aim of the study was to investigate the employment process for an EFL instructor position as well as assess the hiring requirements and attitudes of the people involved in the recruiting process towards NESTs and NNESTs at two governmental universities in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. It also explored the POs' perception of the hiring criteria used by PAs.

A. Hiring Criteria

Based on the results obtained from the interviewed POs, the minimum hiring criteria to be an EFL instructor at Saudi higher education EFL institutions are having at least two years of teaching experience, a bachelor's degree, and a CELTA, TEFOL, or TESOL. Moreover, the POs stated, which concurs with Wang and Fang's (2020) findings, that knowledge and experience are more vital in selecting EFL instructors, and that the issue of having a master's degree is not important based on the POs' perception. In Clark and Paran's (2007) work, results revealed that the hiring criteria at the UK included teaching qualifications, followed by the instructor's performance in the interview, which also supports the findings of the current study. Moreover, the issues of culturally effective pedagogy, experience in teaching EFL students, and knowledge about effective instructional methods took centre stage during the interview with POs. This could be attributed to the fact that the issue of pedagogy is important in the learning process for both instructors and students, as well as to the importance of instructional methods in English teaching. Helal (2008) revealed that NNESTs did not face discrimination. Also, the study revealed that the reason for having a small number of NNESTs was, as the PAs of the institutions claimed, a lower rate of NNESTs applying to teach at their institutions. More importantly, the issue of personality was stressed during interviews with the POs, which was claimed by Medgyes (1996): that teaching experience, training, skills, age, personality, and motivation are all factors that can be applied equally to both native and non-native instructors.

B. Learners' Perception of Native and Non-Native EFL Instructors

The results showed that 83.4% of the students agreed that "pronunciation of English words became better" with native English instructors, while 68.4% supported the non-native English instructors. These findings confirm the results of Benke and Medgyes (2005), which showed that NNESTs had poor pronunciation. This result could be attributed to the fact that native English speakers are better at pronunciation than non-natives, from the students' point of view. Also, 82.6% of students prefer NESTs for listening skills, while 69.6% support the non-natives. According to the researcher's experience, Arab students' lack of listening skills, which can be addressed through NESTs because their pronunciation differs significantly from that of non-native students, may have an impact on the students' listening skills.

Regarding the vocabulary, 81.2% of the students prefer NESTs, and 72.2% of them support NNESTs. This result could be attributed to the amount of vocabulary that NEST were exposed to when acquiring English. Benke and Medgyes' (2005) findings show that NESTs are perceived by the students as ideal models for imitating their speaking, while NNESTs are perceived as having poor pronunciation and using a lot of LI in class.

C. Learners' Perception of Strengths and Weaknesses of NESTs and NNESTs

89.8% of students thought their native English language instructor was highly qualified and confident when speaking English, while 82.2% thought the same about their non-native English language instructor. Additionally, 80% of the students perceived that it was easy to understand what the native English language instructor was saying, and 82% of them, perceived the same in terms of what their non-native English language instructors were saying. The results obtained from the POs depict that the native speakers' fluency is helpful in manipulating the language as well as their writing skills. Moreover, Medgyes (1992) revealed that the native English instructors are language models, having the advantage of target language proficiency.

D. Learners' Perception of Instructors' Classroom Behaviour and Responsibility

The awareness and knowledge percentage perceptions of learners in terms of NESTs and NNESTs revealed 87% and

80.6%, respectively. Furthermore, excitement and sincerity perception about NESTs and NNETs is 83% and 77.6%. Arva and Medgyes (2000) revealed that native and non-native instructors' teaching behaviours differed in their teaching styles. Arva and Medgyes's (2000) results described that the native instructors lacked classroom management skills, while the non-native instructors were perceived as good explainers of the grammatical rules and served as good learning models.

E. Students' Perception of the Qualities of an Effective EFL Instructor

The study results showed that 75.8% of the students preferred that an English language instructor should be aware and knowledgeable about their first language and culture. On the other hand, 53% of the students perceived that the mother tongue has to be English to be an effective English language instructor. The culture is a very important factor in the learning and education process—it enhances the transmission of the educational values and the basics that are intended to be implanted within the students. The results of the qualitative part support these results: The majority of POs pointed out that the presence of educational qualities such as intrinsic motivation, caring about the students, enthusiasm, friendliness, responsibility, efficiency, and being an effective listener is considered very important; they are all crucial to making an excellent instructor.

VII. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded from the study that students preferred native instructors for seeking skills like pronunciation, listening, awareness, and knowledge about the English language. Moreover, students were in favour of the instructors who had appropriate personal qualities and adequate knowledge of their L1 and culture. The dominant role of native English instructors is palpable, as per the perception of the students and hiring authorities. The teaching skills, delivery and knowledge of relevant subject in classroom stand paramount as compare to academic qualification of the instructor but still academic qualification considered mandatory for instructorship. Further, hiring criteria and the perception of hiring authorities prefer the native instructor and depict discrimination amongst the non-native instructors. Applying rate of non-native instructors for EFL job in the Saudi context is neglect able.

This study might have an effective implication for the instructors themselves and for Saudi higher education. This research provides the insights needed to hire EFL instructors in higher education and examines their effects on students' wellbeing and the educational system. The study seeks to fill this gap by investigating the hiring criteria that are followed by the PAs in the Kingdom and EFL instructors' needs quantitatively and qualitatively. The study might also have a significant contribution to the future concerns, aspirations, and hopes of the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education and Vision 2030.

Finally, further research on other textbooks used in Saudi schools in general is recommended. Also, future research could include a larger sample and compare the textbooks used in secondary schools.

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Indonesian Language Performance of Mentally Retarded Children: Reference for Writing Literacy Text Needs

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Abstract—This research examines the Indonesian language performance of mentally retarded children by identifying the vocabulary and sentence patterns. These two elements have implications for effective reading speed, which is needed in implementing the school literacy program. Identifying the vocabulary and sentence patterns of mentally retarded children is important to show the causes and overcome the low effective reading speed problems. Based on the data and discussion, the vocabulary is dominated by concrete nouns – monomorphemics, and the dominant sentence pattern is a monoclausal – active. Meanwhile, the limitations of abstract thinking trigger the dominance of vocabulary characteristics and sentence patterns. Hence they fail to apply grammatical aspects in forming polymorphemic words and sentences with mult clauses. Text interventions are needed following their Indonesian language performance and repertoire to support their involvement in the school literacy program.

Index Terms—mentally retarded children, Indonesian language performance, literacy, effective reading speed

I. INTRODUCTION

The urgency of literacy skills as an effort to utilize the global information flow proclaimed by UNESCO in 2003 was welcomed by the Government of Indonesia with the establishment of national literacy programs involving family, school and community (Atmazaki et al., 2017). As an element of the national program, the school literacy should be implemented by all levels and types of educational institutions. Schools are no exception in this context, focusing on educating children with special needs. The development of literacy skills for mentally retarded children is directed so that they have life skill.

The relationship between literacy activities and language skills cannot be denied. Language skills are the basic capital in absorbing and disseminating information which is one of the characteristics of a literate society. Therefore, to support the development of these programs, it is necessary to map out their linguistic competencies and Indonesian language skills. Based on the linguistic data, literacy reading materials can be designed according to their needs, and this research aims to achieve this goal.

Mentally retarded children are marked by below-normal intelligence (Kemis & Rosnawati, 2020). As a reference, Ilyas (2016) identified the intelligence dimension of these children under a score of 70. Low intelligence impacts their language skills, the basic literacy capital. However, the Indonesian government requires literacy activities for at least 15 minutes before learning (Kemendikbud, 2015). Text intervention is needed, hence literacy reading materials follow the needs, which is the significance of this research.

As a guide for the school literacy for children with special needs, an implementation guide was compiled (Kemendikbud, 2016a), containing 9 activities to increase the capacity of mentally retarded students. The nine literacy activities are based on Indonesian language skills, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Referring to the

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guide, improving the Indonesian language skills is the focus of activities in literacy. The school literacy program should also be prioritized because these skills help them absorb knowledge.

The Indonesian performance of mentally retarded children represents their language skills. The skills in speaking Indonesian orally and in writing, both productively and receptively, rely on mastery of vocabulary and sentence patterns. This affects the ability to produce and understand discourse or text in school literacy activities. Based on this logic, the research on the Indonesian language performance of mentally retarded children focused on aspects of vocabulary and sentence patterns. The results are expected to be used as a reference in preparing reading materials to support the implementation the literacy program in Special Schools.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Indonesian Language Performance and Development of Mentally Retarded Children

It is important to describe the Indonesian language performance of mentally retarded children as a reference for intervention in providing educational services. This is because every educational service uses Indonesian as an introduction, which is domiciled as the official language in Indonesia. This research defines performance as language use skills (Arnawa, 2008). Therefore, the literacy skills of mentally retarded children are highly dependent on their performance capacity, which is linear with their language development.

Mentally retarded children experience obstacles in acquiring their language. Wijaya (2016) described that even though the language acquisition procedure is the same as for normal children of their age, those that are mentally retarded (a) are relatively lagging in mastering a language, (b) have a deficiency in grammatical aspects, (c) less able to communicate verbally, and (d) less able to understand and express abstract or complex concepts. Similarly, Thurlow et al. (2009) stated that barriers to the ability to use the language productively and receptively impact the low reading skills needed to increase literacy capacity. Qualitatively, Kemis and Rosnawati (2020) explained that the speed of language acquisition is much lower than normal children, and most of them do not achieve normal development. The indicator is that mentally retarded children tend not to master grammatical aspects and fail to use compound sentences. Based on these assumptions, this linguistic barrier is important in preparing literacy readings because language skills are needed in thinking and literacy.

B. Indonesian Language Vocabulary and Sentence Patterns

Vocabulary elements and syntactic structures are the focus of this research. These two elements are influential on the literacy activities of mentally retarded children. Vocabulary elements and syntactic structures are related to the production and understanding of literacy messages. As an agglutinative family, Indonesian vocabulary can be monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Polymorphemic is formed through morphological processes (Kridalaksana, 1996) of affixation, reduplication, compounding, and abbreviation. The process of forming polymorphemic words in Indonesian involves the ability to think abstractly. In this process, there are obstacles to the formation and understanding of polymorphemic vocabulary due to a lack of the ability to think abstractly.

Referentially, vocabulary in Indonesian is divided into concrete and abstract (Arnawa, 2009). Concrete vocabulary deals with physical aspects, while abstract relates to mental aspects. The references of concrete vocabulary are tangible, visible, and touched. In contrast, abstract vocabulary is used to identify groups with intangible references. The two groups involve different mental activities in their use for productive and receptive language activities. Involvement of higher mental activity is required for the use of abstract vocabulary.

Another grammatical aspect examined is the Indonesian sentence patterns of mentally retarded children. The sentence patterns used are mental activities that represent their logical structure. Grammar is an abstract rule of a language in which the use involves cognitive processes. In the linguistic problem, mentally retarded children are identified as individuals with intelligence significantly below the average of normal children (Wijaya, 2016). Indonesian has a variety of sentence patterns, but this research is focused on the number of clauses. Therefore, Indonesian sentences for mentally retarded children will be identified and classified based on the number of clauses and are divided into simple and compound sentences. A simple sentence only consists of one independent clause, while a compound sentence is formed from several independent clauses (Kridalaksana, 1993).

C. Literacy and Reading Skills

Generally, literacy means understanding the letter, sentence or literate. However, not every individual who understands the sentence is identified as literate. Many understand the letter or sentence but are not literate because they are not accustomed to reading and writing to absorb and disseminate information. Technically, literacy is defined as a continuous activity in accessing information, science, and technology by involving critical thinking (Abidin et al., 2017; Suwandi, 2019). The Ministry of Education and Culture of Indonesia (Kemendikbud, 2016b) formulated 6 literacy components. According to the characteristics of mentally retarded children, this research only focused on early and basic literacies. Early literacy is the ability to understand spoken language, which is formed through the experience of interacting with the social environment. In this stage, oral language skills, such as listening and speaking, become very urgent. In basic literacy, mentally retarded children are expected to understand spoken and written language, namely,

reading and writing, fiction and non-fiction. In this stage, they are expected to be able to perceive information and draw meaningful conclusions.

Referring to the explanation above, literacy skills depend highly on their language. This research will identify the literacy skills based on their effective reading speed. This is a measurement that combines speed with reading comprehension. Reading speed is calculated based on the average number of words read in one minute. Meanwhile, understanding is calculated based on the number of questions answered correctly (Jumaidi et al., 2013).

D. Previous Related Research

Research on linguistic aspects of mentally retarded children always attracts the attention of language teaching experts and linguists. Sulistiani et al. (2021) showed that nouns and numerals dominate the mastery of Indonesian vocabulary. The nouns come from their environment, while the numerals follow the noun used to express the amount, for example, 2 chickens (head). The sentence produced consists of nouns and numerals to state the amount. Nisa et al. (2021) found that the vocabulary of mentally retarded children is in the form of basic words, and only a small part uses words with affixes. The results of these two studies are sufficient to illustrate the limitations of vocabulary mastery for mentally retarded children. These vocabulary characteristics are important to consider in literacy learning. Furthermore, research on the syntactic aspects of the Indonesian language was conducted by Al-Mubarrok and Wagiyati (2021). Through this research, the Indonesian sentence structure often used is single-clause.

Conversely, the linguistic barriers promote several education experts to conduct action research as an intervention. Widodo (2016) reported that placard media improve the early reading skills of mentally retarded children. It reports that over 2 cycles, there was an increase in the initial reading level of +14.55. Another action research by Pratiwi et al. (2021) found that the role-playing method improves the speaking skills of mild mental retarded children. After the role-playing method was applied for 2 cycles, there was an increase in the speaking skills between 52 – 58%. This increase occurred because the method provided a freer and more participatory opportunity in language acts. The two action research shows the importance of collective intervention to improve the language skills of mentally retarded children as the basic capital to support the implementation of school literacy programs. This assumption is in line with MacQueen et al. (1973), which emphasize the importance of classroom intervention in language development. This collective approach is important to increase learning motivation by emphasizing the inclusion of language activities in all subjects. Each teacher is motivated to understand the verbal communication process, maintain the classroom environment, assess each child's verbal ability, provide new experiences, and develop methods for integrating speech improvement into daily activities.

III. METHOD

A. Research Design

This research focuses on the relationship between the Indonesian language performance of mentally retarded children and their literacy text needs. The phenomenon needs to be understood to design more effective literacy learning interventions. Therefore, this research used a qualitative design (Strauss & Corbin, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 2014).

B. Sample / Participants

A total of 22 participants were students from the State Special School 1 Buleleng and the State Special School 1 Jembarana, Bali, Indonesia, class X – XII. The participants were identified as mentally retarded from educable and trainable student groups or mild and moderate mental retarded children. In detail, the participants were presented in the following table.

TABLE 1
RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Class	Participant		Total
	Male	Female	
X	8	5	13
XI	4	3	7
XII	1	1	2
Total	13	9	22

Besides students, this research also involved 2 teachers as informants to triangulate and validate the data obtained.

C. Instruments

The data needed were the characteristics of vocabulary, Indonesian sentence patterns, and the effective reading speed of mentally retarded children. Observations, document recording, and tests were carried out (Marzuki, 1986). Observations were made in the classroom learning process to map the Indonesian language's characteristics. The documents were recorded by collecting a portfolio of student work, such as essays and notes. Similarly, the test method was applied to confirm vocabulary and sentence patterns and measure the effective reading speed. The instruments used were observation guidelines, data cards, vocabulary and sentence tests, and reading speed tests related to the data collection technique. Furthermore, the tests were constructed using pictures, while the effective reading speed test was

constructed with a short discourse followed by questions about the discourse content. The test instruments were prepared by referring to reading, writing, and arithmetic assessment for mentally retarded children (Wasdi & Puspita, 2019).

D. Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedure was based on a qualitative design relying on a naturalistic setting (Sugiono, 2012), and the stages were as follows. The first is determining the range of data required. The second is designing observations and recording interactions between students and teachers and students with students. The third is designing vocabulary, sentence patterns and effective reading speed tests by referring to the assessment guidelines for mentally retarded children. The fourth is designing interviews to triangulate and validate the data, while the fifth is identifying and classifying the corpus to determine the core data.

E. Data Analysis

The collected data on the Indonesian language performance was analyzed using a descriptive linguistic approach (Gleason, 1970; Alwasilah, 1985; Arnawa, 2008). The aim was to identify the characteristics of the language used. Furthermore, data on effective reading speed were analyzed by descriptive statistics to calculate the average speed with the following formula.

$$KEM = \frac{jk}{m} \times \frac{sn}{SMI} = \dots kpm$$

(Adapted from Jumaidi et al., 2013)

Description:

KEM = Effective reading speed	sn	= Real score got by each reader
SMI = Ideal max score	jk	= Number of words read
kpm = Reading speed/minute	m	= Reading time (minutes)

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Description of the Indonesian Language Performance of Mentally Retarded Children

This research focuses on vocabulary characteristics, sentence patterns, and the effective reading speed of mentally retarded children related to their literacy text requirements. However, it should first explain a general description of the Indonesian language for mentally retarded children. Hence the vocabulary characteristics, sentence patterns, and effective reading speed can be better understood. Language acquisition is the same as in normal children since it takes place naturally and intentionally without planning. Even though the process is the same, the results are different, caused by the limited intelligence in mentally retarded children, which simultaneously proves the involvement of cognitive roles in language acquisition. Four-year-old normal children can speak their first language, but a mentally impaired child finds this hard. In mentally retarded children, age cannot be used as an indicator of language development.

Mentally retarded children experience language barriers, which can be observed in all aspects of language, such as phonology, morphology, semantics, and syntax. In the phonological aspect, the pronunciation of consonant sounds is often unclear. In broader language constructions, for example, in speech, prosodic elements, such as pauses and intonations, are often mispronounced. In the field of morphology, they tend not to be careful in using polymorphemic word-forming affixes. They only use root words, even though the context requires using derived words. In vocabulary and semantics, vocabulary can be used with concrete references. Furthermore, generic and abstract meanings are poorly understood, while single-clause sentences are used in syntax.

B. Characteristics of Indonesian Vocabulary of Mentally Retarded Children

Vocabulary is related to lexical and grammatical semantics. Lexical semantics is associated with monomorphemic words, while grammatical semantics is associated with morphological processes forming polymorphemic words. Data on the vocabulary of mentally retarded children were taken from two different sources, namely a portfolio of student performance in the form of essay documentation and some notes, as well as through observations of language acts. Based on this procedure, the types of words produced consist of nominal, verb, numerals, and adjective. Among these word classes, nominal and verbal dominate, while using nouns, verbs, and adjectives reached 56.09%, 14.36%, and 6.30%. Other information obtained from the data on the vocabulary is the use of numerals as much as 13.25%. The high frequency is because this type of word expresses the number of nouns. Regarding Indonesian vocabulary production, several types of words are still not or are rarely used, such as adverbials, conjunctions, pronouns, prepositions, articles, and interjections. This interpretation is taken because, in the Indonesian language, there are 10 known types of words.

The high frequency of noun and verbal use is because both types of words are important units in the semantic structure. Hence, every utterance will always involve a noun as an argument from the verb used. Chafe (1970) stated that nouns and verbals are central to semantics. Conversely, using nouns due to their real references does not require abstract thinking skills, which are an obstacle for mentally retarded children (Kemis & Rosnawati, 2020). Nouns and

verbal characteristics still follow the 'present' pattern, and the descriptions are related to personal and environmental experiences (Dardjowidjojo, 2003). Therefore, the difference in vocabulary production can be interpreted as a representation of differences in the social environment.

Morphologically, Indonesian vocabulary is divided into monomorphemic and polymorphemic. Monomorphemic words are commonly called base words, while polymorphemic are often called derivative words. As part of the agglutination family, Indonesian polymorphemic words are formed by combining free morphemes with affixes. There are several types of affixes: prefixes, infixes, suffixes, confixes, and combined. Besides going through the affixation process, such as merging free morphemes with affixes, the formation of Indonesian polymorphemic words can occur through other morphological processes, including reduplication, composition or compounding and contraction or abbreviation (Kridalaksana, 1996). Related to these morphological processes, the vocabulary produced is dominated by the use of monomorphemic. The composition is 83% and 17% monomorphemic and polymorphemic words. From 17% of the use of polymorphemic words, mentally retarded children form it by an affixation process. Other morphological processes, such as reduplication, composition, and contraction, have not been seen. They form polymorphemic words using limited productive affixes in the affixation process with the prefixes {*meng-*, *ber-*, and *di-*}; and the suffixes {*-an*, and *-kan*}. For example: *mengambil* (take), *menyiram* (flush); *berjalan* (walk), *berlari* (run); *dibaca* (be read), *ditulis* (written); *dengarkan* (listen), *ambilkan* (take it); *tulisan* (writing), *lukisan* (painting). This lingual fact shows that the vocabulary represents their daily life.

The polymorphemic vocabulary production reflects the limitation of grammatical mastery. Grammar is an abstract system that allows an individual to use the language (Bloomfield, 1995; Chomsky, 1965; Lyon, 1992; Saussure, 1988). The limitation of grammatical rules is due to cognitive reasons. The cognitive development of mentally retarded children is not linear with their age development (Delphie, 2012). They tend to experience obstacles in abstract thinking, while grammatical mastery requires the ability to think abstractly.

Based on hypernymy - hyponymy semantic relations, the vocabulary of these children represents 'similar meaning' since the generalization and details are not known. As a general rule, the children can identify all fish as "fish," but they cannot determine the specific species. Furthermore, when they are presented with pictures of several types of animals in a single unit, for example, cows, cats, birds, and fish, they can identify each animal but fail to mention the generalization. In hypernymic - hyponymy relationship, the vocabulary of mentally retarded children can be visualized as follows:

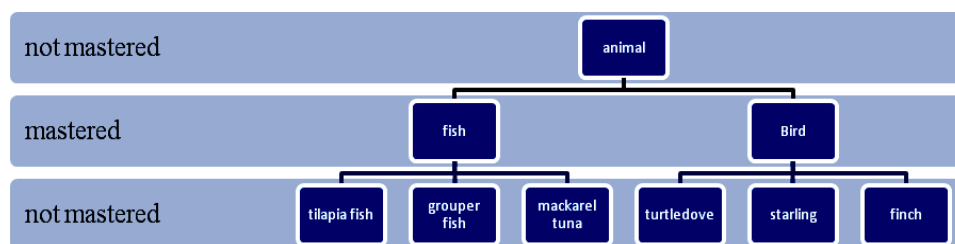


Figure 1. Visualization of Hypernymic – Hyponymy Relationships in Vocabulary of Mentally Retarded Children

Referring to the semantic data above, the vocabulary is dominated by concrete nouns. The children fail to construct hypernymy meanings due to their inability to build generalizations, which involve the ability to think abstractly. Furthermore, they cannot find specific semantic features as their distinguishing characteristics. Associated with cognitive psychology, mentally retarded children tend to think gestalt, which is more concerned with the totality than the parts. General and concrete impressions are the basis for forming the meaning of words.

C. Tendency of Sentence Patterns in the Indonesian Language for Mentally Retarded Children

In a speech event, the sentence is a unit of language to convey the idea as a whole. In Indonesian, sentences can be identified from various points of view. However, in this research, Indonesian sentences were identified based on the number of clauses. Based on this approach, the sentences used are divided into single-clause, often called simple, and plural-clause, compound sentences (Arnawa, 2008; Kridalaksana, 1993). Based on the data, the dominant sentence used is simple, which is 92%, while 87% use active construction. The dominance of using single-clause sentence structures is in line with the vocabulary data. These children are less able to use conjunctions to build relationships between clauses. Barriers to using compound sentences seem to be related to the limitations of children building logical relationships between clauses due to the lack of development of their cognitive aspects. Another aspect that needs attention from the sentence structure is the pattern of inter-phrase order. Many sentences have unnatural sequence patterns, such as *Hujan main bola berdua* (Rain plays football together). Functionally, the message is understandable, but the grammatical rules should be changed to *Berdua main bola ke hujanan* (We are in the rain together while playing football) or *Berdua main bola ke hujanan* (Together playing football in the rain).

From 92% of the simple sentences used, 87% were active construction. The following explanation can be given for this lingual fact. First, mentally retarded children tend to highlight the subjects related to the Tagmemic theory (Verhaar, 1984) that the subjects are filled by noun slots dominating the vocabulary. Second, the limited ability to apply

morphological rules promotes the use of this active construction. The third is the low use of passive sentence construction because this type of sentence prioritizes ideas over subjects while the idea is an abstract concept. Other data revealed about 8% of sentences with multiclauses. However, they are not grammatical, for example *Aku lari jalan licin dan jatuh air* (I ran on a slippery road, and the water fell). This sentence consists of 2 clauses, namely // *I ran on a slippery road // the water fell*/. To this sentence, the following responses can be given. First, they do not understand prepositions as functions and tend to be contentive. Second, there is an error in the use of conjunctions. The relationship between clauses is causality, not equality, hence the correct conjunction used is *hence* not *and*. This syntactic data corresponds to the vocabulary that mentally retarded children do not understand conjunctions and prepositions. Therefore, the fix becomes *Aku berlari di jalan licin sehingga jatuh ke air* (I ran on a slippery road, hence I fell into the water).

D. Effective Reading Speed of Mentally Retarded Children

Literacy is closely related to language activities of oral and written. However, not every language act can be said to be a literacy activity related to cognitive processes. Literacy can process, understand, apply, and transform the acquired knowledge into everyday life (Lederberg et al., 2014; Mayer, 2007; Enns, 2009). Regarding this concept, these activities are closely related to creative reading comprehension skills. Creative reading comprehension activities are the functional language through the process of integrating knowledge possessed with information being read. The reading skills needed to achieve this skill level are reading the lines, between the lines, and beyond the lines (Oka, 1976). Creative reading comprehension skills can be achieved through habituation, development of reading interest, and literacy-based learning. These are challenges in learning literacy for mentally retarded children because the data shows that their average effective reading speed is very low. The number of words that can be read ranges from 42 - 67 words per minute, with an understanding level of 15.6 - 27%. By applying descriptive statistics, the median reading speed is 54.5 words per minute, with an understanding level of 21.3%. The effective reading speed of mentally retarded children is around 11.609 words/minute, referring to the median value. This figure is below the average for normal children. The limitation stems from the existence of obstacles in the intelligence aspect. A text intervention is needed that follows the linguistic performance to become literate.

V. CONCLUSION

Literacy activities are related to language skills. The literacy barriers experienced by mentally retarded children stem from language acquisition barriers and their relatively low intelligence level. The intelligence score is below 70, which has implications for Indonesian language performance as reflected in the limited characteristics of vocabulary and sentence patterns used, as well as the low level of effective reading speed. The Indonesian vocabulary of these children is dominated by concrete and monomorphemic nouns. In syntax, it is dominated by the use of active-monoclausal sentences. The characteristics of the vocabulary and the sentence patterns correspond to each other. With characteristics and limited intelligence levels, the effective reading speed is 11.609 words per minute. The linguistic and cognitive reality requires text intervention to support the implementation of the School Literacy Program. The text intervention needed should follow the Indonesian language's performance possessed by mentally retarded children.

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Correlations Between Learning Style Preferences and Arab-Speaking Gulf Region First-Year College Students' EFL Performance: A Literature Review

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Abstract—This review aims at examining recent and relevant literature that investigates the correlations among learning style preferences, awareness of learning style preferences, motivation, intelligence types, gender, and Arab-Gulf region first-year college students' EFL performance. A lot of studies about the influence of learners' awareness of their learning style and motivation types on their ESL (English as a second language) learning performance have been conducted in English speaking Western countries, but fewer similar research studies have been conducted in EFL (English as a foreign language) contexts, particularly in the Arabian Gulf region Arabic-speaking countries and more particularly with first-year college-students as research participants. This review attempts to explore the dominant learning style preferences, main or obvious intelligence types according to the multiple intelligence theory, main motivation type and how the awareness of these could impact the learners' progress or otherwise in EFL. Due to the relative scarcity of relevant research in the Arab-Gulf region, other studies conducted in neighboring and culturally similar countries were reviewed as well. As a result of examining the literature in this respect, more studies and research are recommended to help learners, instructors, professionals, researchers, and practitioners concerned and involved in EFL in this context.

Index Terms—EFL, learning style, learning approach, cognitive style, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

The topic of learning styles and how they influence learning has been appealing to various researchers in different disciplines such as psychology, psycholinguistics, pedagogy, and language acquisition (Cassidy, 2004). Investigating learning styles is useful for both learners and teachers; it helps both to learn and teach effectively. It particularly helps EFL teachers to personalize and individualize their teaching methodology and instructional practices, which leads to boosting their learners' EFL performance (Irvine & York, 1995). Learning styles and how they influence EFL have been intensively studied particularly in USA and Europe, but similar studies about Arabic speaking college students in the Arab-Gulf region are quite few.

The concept of learning styles has been approached from different perspectives by various researchers. For example, Keefe (1988) focused on perception while investigating learning styles and categorized the learning styles as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile. The same classification of these four modalities was given by Dunn (1983), but Dunn pointed out that age plays a significant role in learning style dominance and preference. For Keefe (1988), perception is the process via which the human brain collects, stores and processes information. Kinsella (1995) stated that each individual has a preference toward one or more learning styles, and this is determined by both biological and environmental factors. An individual's genes as well as the experiences he or she encounters during the early stages of one's life shape his or her learning style dominance and preference.

The construct of learning styles has been handled in the literature using different terms such as learning approach, learning orientation and cognitive style; there's sometimes even some confusion and overlapping between learning styles, cognitive styles, and personality types (Ehrman et al., 2003). There is a strong tendency among researchers toward accepting Keefe's (1979) definition of learning styles as "*distinctive psychological, affective and cognitive behaviors that indicate how learners perceive, respond to and interact with the learning environment*" (p. 4). There are several other definitions of learning styles, and they simply differ because researchers investigate the different dimensions of learning styles, such as the perceptual, social, and psychological dimensions. Keefe's (1979) definition takes all these into consideration. In the context of learning English as a foreign language (EFL), learning styles refer to individual and unique preferences exhibited by learners when they respond to and interact with EFL information and skills until they integrate and internalize such information or skills. The learning environment plays a significant role here; therefore, teachers who are aware of their students' learning styles and learning style preferences can create a healthy and effective learning environment.

Learning styles are related to both learning strategies and intelligence types or multiple intelligences; however, each one of them is a different concept and they should not be confused. Learning strategies refer to specific actions and conscious behaviors chosen and exhibited by the learner to learn the foreign language whereas learning styles are spontaneous approaches or characteristics of individual learners (Nunan, 2010). An individual's specific learning styles determine the learning strategies he or she decides on to process learning a certain EFL linguistic feature. Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligence and the construct of learning styles are closely related because both encourage adopting a personalized, individualized learner-centered approach in teaching to create a healthy learning environment. Prior to Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences, the traditional view of intelligence comprised only linguistic and mathematical competences, but Gardner challenged this view and identified at least eight kinds of intelligence: linguistic, mathematical, musical, spatial, kinesthetic, naturalist, interpersonal and intrapersonal. Gardner (1983) confirmed that all individuals possess all types of intelligence, but with varying amounts.

Another similarity here between multiple intelligences and learning styles is they are not dichotomous; preferring one learning style or possessing one intelligence type does not mean the other learning styles and intelligence types do not exist. Kolb (1981) clearly said that learning styles do not function in an exclusion mode: when one learning style is dominant or preferred, the others are not dormant or non-existing. Learning style dominance can change over time and according to the learning situation, learning task and learning context (Brown, 2007).

Several researchers explored the benefits of matching students' learning styles and teachers' teaching techniques and the disadvantages of mismatching them; Reid (1995) disapproved of high school teachers' dependence on lecturing and catering only for the auditory learning style even though it is the least common learning style among this group of learners. Language learning is basically a type of skill acquisition, and it requires adopting a variety of teaching styles, techniques, and strategies to accommodate all different types of learners. When teachers create a learning environment that facilitates learning in various ways (Gilbert & Swanier, 2008), students' EFL performance is improved as the teacher's instructional practices prove that they are sensitive to the diversity and differences their students bring to the EFL classroom. There are several classifications of learning styles such as Reid's (1987) perceptual learning styles and the VARK model (Fleming & Mills, 1992). In the next section of this article, some recent studies about the correlation between learning styles and EFL learning will be discussed; some of these studies investigate motivation and EFL.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON LEARNING STYLES, MOTIVATION AND EFL

EFL / ESL pedagogy, psychology, psycholinguistics and second language acquisition researchers have extensively and intensively investigated learning styles and how they are related to EFL or ESL performance, but most of the relevant studies took place in ESL settings such as in Australia, Canada, GB, or USA. There are relevant studies that took place in EFL settings in various parts of Europe and Asia; however, a careful examination of the literature yielded no results regarding similar studies that took place in the Arabic Gulf region or in countries such as UAE, Qatar, Bahrain, or Kuwait in an EFL college setting. As Gulf countries such as UAE, Qatar, Bahrain or Kuwait are relatively small Asian countries in the Middle East; therefore, studies that were conducted in neighboring areas are pertinent and useful. Focusing on studies that geographically took place near the Arabic Gulf region is vital due to the role played by culture. Culture comprises beliefs, norms and value systems and plays a significant role in learning and learning modalities; it is of particular importance to EFL because the relation between language and culture is inextricable (Hinkel, 2014). Culture influences learning styles as well because it has been noticed that different cultures seem to be disposed to certain learning modalities and preferred styles (Tileston, 2004).

EFL teachers are noted for their mobility and traveling to work in different corners in the world and they are given culture induction and orientation when they move to a work environment that is different from their own. This shows how crucial culture is for teachers who are willing to excel in their jobs; understanding the learners' culture can help EFL teachers in the effective selection of materials and activities to enhance their EFL retention, success, and achievement. The selected studies mentioned in this review, therefore, took place in culturally similar educational settings because of the limitedness and scarcity of relevant research about learning styles that took place in the Arab world.

A relatively recent study by Wu and Al-Rabah (2009) investigated the effect of cross-cultural context on the learning styles and multiple intelligences of two groups of EFL first-year college students; one group included 112 Kuwaitis and the other 138 Taiwanese students. Wu and Al-Rabah (2009) confirmed that understanding learners' multiple intelligences and learning styles is crucial to effective EFL practices and for an optimal learning environment. This shows that understanding the students' preferred channels and strategies of learning in the form of knowing their learning style preferences is important for both effective instruction on the teachers' side and for the good quality of language acquisition, learning and retention on the students' part. The two groups of the study participants in Wu and Al-Rabah's (2009) study were different in their first language, culture, and faiths; however, they both share their interest in learning EFL and communicating in English as a lingua franca. The researchers used two different instruments to measure the Kuwaiti and Taiwanese college students' learning styles and multiple intelligences; they used Oxford's (1998) SAS or Style Analysis Survey to measure learning styles and Christison's (1998) Multiple Intelligence Inventory for Teachers to measure multiple intelligences. The researchers simplified the content of these two instruments to ensure the participants' comprehension and easily compare the results of the two groups.

Very few of the participants did not respond to the two surveys used by the researchers: 3% of the Taiwanese students and 5% of the Kuwaiti students. The results showed that the most dominant learning style of both Kuwaiti and Taiwanese students was the visual one, followed by the auditory for Taiwanese and tactile or hands-on for the Kuwaiti students. The instruments also measured extroversion and introversion and both Kuwaiti and Taiwanese students displayed preference to extroversion. As for the multiple intelligences survey, Kuwaiti students scored high in interpersonal, visual, kinesthetic, logical, and linguistic intelligences consecutively and low in naturalist, intrapersonal and musical whereas the Taiwanese students scored high on visual and interpersonal and average on the other types of intelligence. The researchers recommended that the results of their research can be used to raise awareness regarding different groups of learners' strengths, but there was no clear indication regarding how these differences affect EFL performance, which means more studies need to be conducted to measure the efficacy of language learners' awareness of their learning styles, innate learning preferences and strategies and how this could impact their EFL learning performance.

Learning styles are basically related to how instead of what: how individual learners collect, interpret, analyze, organize, and process information rather than what they acquire or learn (Al-Seghayer, 2021). Learning styles are innate and learners use them intuitively or unconsciously as they gradually acquire EFL or ESL skills and subskills. According to Al-Seghayer (2021), Saudi EFL learners are multimodal when it comes to which learning style they prefer, but they mostly favor visual and tactile learning styles and like to learn via concrete learning aids. Saudi EFL learners do not like to learn individually, and group work is highly favored in their EFL learning.

Alkhatnai (2011) explored the correlation between EFL college students' perceptual learning styles and whether this could predict their success or effective learning of EFL, something which the previous study done by Wu and Al-Rabah (2009) did not do. Alkhatnai (2011) also sought to investigate the relationship between EFL college students' learning styles and academic satisfaction in two different learning environments: the physical and traditional classroom and the virtual online learning environment. Alkhatnai (2011) used the Perceptual Learning Styles Preference Questionnaire (Reid, 1984) with one hundred Saudi college students and conducted interviews with six students for more in-depth information. The researcher, therefore, adopted the mixed-methods research approach to elicit more information about the study participants' learning perceptual learning styles and how they could be related to their EFL success, performance, persistence, and satisfaction.

Unlike Wu and Al-Rabah (2009) who found that the most dominant learning style among Kuwaitis to be visual, followed by tactile and auditory, Alkhatnai (2011) found that tactile comes first for Saudi college students and it is followed by auditory, visual, collaborative, kinesthetic and finally individual. The two studies used different data collection methods and instruments, but it should be noted here that Saudis and Kuwaitis share a lot in terms of culture, faith, first language, customs, and traditions. Alkhatnai (2011) explored the social dimension of learning styles, which Wu and Al-Rabah (2009) did not and found that Saudi college learners are more collaborative than individual in both traditional and online EFL learning. More studies are needed to confirm Alkhatnai's (2011) study results because collaboration and learning in pairs and groups is very important in learning language skills effectively since communication particularly in its spoken format is at the core of ESL / EFL learning and acquisition.

Alkhatnai (2011) found no correlation between the students' choice or preference of the way of learning whether face-to-face or online and their preferred learning styles, but there was a correlation between the learners' satisfaction, positive learning experiences and success in EFL with their learning styles. Alkhatnai (2011) found that teachers' teaching styles, cultures and personality types affect the learners' way of perceiving learning styles. This study concluded that Saudi college learners prefer online classes to face-to-face instruction and the way they perceive their learning styles influences their motivation and selection of effective learning strategies. It is important to note here that was long before the Covid-19 pandemic which forced almost all classes to be done online, and it is interesting that Saudi language learners had already liked doing language classes online.

When EFL teachers know whether their students are collaborative or individual in their learning ways, this helps them teach effectively because much of the language content is based on interaction and communication, both of which cannot be done individually. A relatively recent study, which was conducted in Saudi Arabia, confirmed the importance of collaborative work in EFL teaching and learning and it was done by Almutairi (2008). The researcher explored the learning strategies and learning styles of 209 Saudi female EFL college students, and how the culture, sociocultural and educational backgrounds of these women could influence their learning ways and strategies. Like Wu and Al-Rabah (2009), Almutairi (2008) used SAS or Oxford's (1998) Style Analysis Survey and interviewed a focus group of 10 students.

Quite similar to the findings of Wu and Al-Rabah (2009), Almutairi (2008) found that the majority of the Saudi female students preferred the visual modality; however, this study is different because the teachers played a significant role in orienting or influencing their learners' choice of their perceptual learning styles. This study confirmed that female Saudi students' learning styles are influenced by the sociocultural background and the students' previous academic profiles. The study aimed at enhancing the roles played by Saudi women in their community through finding out how culture and previous education influence learning style preferences to get value data that can be used in teachers' professional development and training to boost the students' cognitive competencies and learning skills.

Almutairi (2008) stressed that collaborative and group work learning styles and classroom activities are essential for effective EFL learning.

The importance of cooperative and collaborative learning as a learning style that should be encouraged among non-native learners of English in the Arab region was also confirmed in another study by Al-Tamimi and Attamimi (2014) who sampled Yemeni EFL college students for their study. Al-Tamimi and Attamimi (2014) sampled 60 students and collected data at several points of time before, during and after their experimental treatment to have valid and reliable data regarding the effect of cooperative learning styles on improving EFL communication, speaking skills and attitudes. The researchers used diagnostic pre-tests, a Likert scale questionnaire to get data about the students' attitudes, and posttests to track any changes or progress. Al-Tamimi and Attamimi (2014) analyzed the data they collected and concluded that cooperative learning and collaborative learning styles significantly improve the Yemeni EFL speaking skills, oral production, communication skills and the positivity of their attitude toward learning EFL. As a result, Al-Tamimi and Attamimi (2014) highly recommend that EFL teachers encourage the cooperative and collaborative learning styles and do their best to integrate cooperative learning EFL tasks and activities into their classroom practices.

The literature includes fewer studies about learning styles and EFL in Asian Arabic countries in the Arabian Gulf region; therefore, exploring similar studies in other Asian countries such as Palestine or Iran, which is very close to the Gulf region, is relevant and important as well. For example, Aqel and Mahmoud (2006) studied the preferred learning styles of 120 EFL Palestinian college students using the online Penn State Learning Style Inventory and found out that Arab learners at their research site prefer the visual and written learning styles, which is in agreement with most of the previously reviewed studies conducted with students in the Gulf region. The researchers in this study recommended incorporating a basic computer or IT course in the EFL courses because they noticed its great impact on the students' EFL performance and in making them autonomous and independent learners. Aqel and Mahmoud (2006) confirmed that there are no differences concerning the learning styles of both genders in the sample of their study. Aqel and Mahmoud (2006) recommended conducting further research in the area of learning styles and EFL to find out more about how students' learning styles are related to their personality types.

Another study was conducted in Palestine by Naqeeb and Awad (2011) who mentioned in the literature review section of their study that they decided to conduct their own study in response to Aqel and Mahmoud (2006) who recommended in their study that more relevant studies should be conducted in Palestinian universities. Naqeeb and Awad (2011) confirmed that EFL students' learning styles play a significant role in shaping the teaching methods and decisions regarding the teaching practices they decide on in order to cater for their learners' needs. Consequently, Naqeeb and Awad (2011) investigated 396 male and female college students' learning styles in order to familiarize the instructors at the research place with their students' learning preferences and to help them by suggesting additional teaching methods that they can incorporate into their instructional practices to improve their learning environment and help their learners to improve their EFL performance. Naqeeb and Awad (2011) examined whether male and female students differ in their learning styles and whether the academic and EFL proficiency level affect the preference of a certain learning style.

Naqeeb and Awad (2011) investigated only four perceptual learning styles: auditory, visual, tactile and kinesthetic, and they created their own data collection method: a questionnaire consisting of 20 items with 5 items addressing each learning style. Unlike Aqel and Mahmoud (2006), Naqeeb and Awad (2011) found out that the auditory learning style is the most dominant learning style among the Palestinian college students in their sample. As a result of this, Naqeeb and Awad (2011) recommended that EFL instructors in Palestine give more priority to materials and activities that cater for learners with auditory learning ways and preferences; they even recommended that teachers should get some training on doing this effectively. However, Naqeeb and Awad (2011) admitted that the results of their study cannot be generalized at a wide scope because the study was conducted in one single Palestinian university at a particular time. They recommended further research in this area using various data collection methods and investigating other variables such as the effect of the geographical location of the students and their socioeconomic status or standard of living.

As for how both learning styles and motivation are related to Arab learners' EFL performance, there are very few studies in the literature and one of them was conducted by Al-Qahtani (2013) who investigated several factors that affect EFL learning of Saudi medical students; these factors included motivation, learning strategies, attitude, and academic achievement. Qahtani (2013) wanted to investigate what learning strategies medical students adopted in their EFL learning and what types of motivation drove them to study English. Qahtani (2013) also wanted to explore the medical students' attitudes toward speakers of English, and she sought to investigate any relationships between EFL proficiency and variables like motivation, attitude, academic achievement, learning strategies and demographic backgrounds. The participants in that study were 120 female students and they were asked to complete self-administered anonymous questionnaires. The results showed that the students displayed both integrative and instrumental motivation with a slight increase in integrative motivation; they were also positive toward their learning environment. One very important result that there was a positive correlation between the students' EFL proficiency and their social or collaborative learning style: interaction and group work strategies helped the students improve their EFL proficiency.

Motivation is crucial for success at EFL learning, and teachers should develop their strategies to increase motivation and preclude demotivation (Elsheikh et al., 2014). Elsheikh et al. (2014) conducted a study sampling 100 Saudi female

university students to explore the types of motivation and demotivation and what causes them. The researchers assumed demotivation could be caused by economic, social, cultural, or pedagogical factors. The researchers used a 15-item questionnaire that was translated into Arabic to make sure the students would provide valid answers regarding their types of motivation. More than half of the participants stated they did not enjoy learning EFL or using EFL outside the classroom. More than half of the participants said they did not feel competent during EFL classes, and almost 80% of them said they preferred to only sit and listen rather than participate during EFL classes. The overall results showed that the rate of integrative and intrinsic motivation is low while only instrumental motivation is relatively and comparatively high. The researchers recommended adopting a creative motivation strategy to face this challenge.

Finding more studies about learning styles, motivation, and their impact on EFL in Arabic countries and educational contexts was really hard; therefore, reviewing studies conducted in Iran was the alternative here. Iran, a neighboring country to Arabic-speaking countries in the Gulf region, has a lot in common with the Arab world particularly in terms of faith and culture. A relatively recent study conducted by Seifoori and Zarei (2011) explored the correlations between Iranian EFL college students' different learning styles and their types of multiple intelligences. There is a positive correlation between certain learning styles and certain multiple intelligences (Seifoori & Zarei, 2011), and this can be very useful for teachers to do necessary adaptations in their teaching styles, methods, materials, activities and EFL classroom practices in general. This study is different because the participants were not freshmen or first-year college students; they were sophomores and the researchers wanted to find out their dominant multiple intelligences, their preferred learning styles and how they both correlate.

Seifoori and Zarei (2011) sampled 96 male and female sophomores to participate in the study; they were chosen out of 110 candidates based on their score on a modified Cambridge PET exam that measured their English proficiency. They filled out the Perceptual Learning Styles Preference Questionnaire (Reid, 1984) and Christison's (1998) multiple intelligence inventory in addition to interviewing some of the learners to get more in-depth information. The results showed that the tactile and group learning styles were the most dominant ones, which is consistent with the results of Wu and Al-Rabah's (2009) study about the Kuwaiti EFL college students.

As for the Iranian sophomores' dominant type of multiple intelligence, Seifoori and Zarei (2011) found that spatial intelligence is dominant, and it is followed by interpersonal intelligence. There is consistency in the results here because both the dominant group learning style is expected to correlate with the interpersonal intelligence type. As for the correlations between all learning styles and all multiple intelligences, Seifoori and Zarei (2011) found that the tactile learning style correlates with mathematical intelligence, the kinesthetic learning styles with the bodily intelligence and the tactile learning style with the spatial intelligence. The researchers concluded that learners use multiple modalities in the way they learn, and teachers need to be aware of this through doing relevant training programs.

Unlike the study which Seifoori and Zarei (2011) carried out, Gilakjani (2012) conducted a study about Iranian EFL university students' learning styles and found out that the dominant learning style in the 100 students of the study sample is the visual one. Gilakjani's (2012) purpose was to increase faculty awareness of the impact of their students' learning styles on EFL performance. Contrast and conflict among the results of different studies could be attributed to other extraneous variables.

III. CONCLUSION

The reviewed studies here are relevant and important to ELT professionals and practitioners especially those dealing with Arabic-speaking learners in the Arabic Gulf region and nearby countries that share the same culture. EFL teachers and researchers need to conduct more action research driven and affected by the ideas expressed in the reviewed studies regarding the importance of understanding different learning styles, the students' preferred modalities, their intelligence types, the importance of being aware of these preferences, catering for diversity in the classroom, the importance of motivation, the impact of cultural and demographic factors, and how all these could contribute to improving EFL teaching methods, teaching practices and material development.

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Nursing Students' Knowledge and Attitude Towards Medical Writing Skills in the English Language

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Abstract—Medical Writing skills in the English language is challenging for those having English as their second language. Hence, this study focuses on understanding the knowledge and attitude toward medical writing skills in the English Language among undergraduate nursing students in Saudi Arabia. This study adopted an exploratory study design. It included all nursing students enrolled in the first year of the undergraduate nursing program in Abha (n=80) and Muhayil (n=80) female campuses of King Khalid University (KKU), Saudi Arabia. Those students were administered with a self-structured online questionnaire measuring the nursing students' knowledge and attitude toward English medical writing skills. Out of the total students (N=160), 137 responded to the questionnaire. Most nursing students were able to write medical questions (88.3%), abbreviations (92.7%), patient information (91.2%), reports (85.4%), and prescriptions (88.3%) in English. They felt that English medical writing creates a good impression on themselves (95.6%) and makes them professional (97.1%). Most of them liked English medical writing (91.3%) and felt that knowledge of it offers advantages in their future career (99.2%). They can read the medical report in English though it is in Arabic (78.9%). Nursing students of KKU presented a good knowledge and positive attitude towards English medical writing skills. Their knowledge is significantly associated with their attitude toward English medical writing skills. Saudi nursing schools should continue their strategies to improve students' English medical writing skills to improve the quality of the nursing profession and their ability to compete with the global labor market.

Index Terms—medical English, nursing, students, writing skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Education in healthcare professionals (HCPs) focuses on offering students the contextual knowledge, skills, and values to allow them to start independent professional practice. Hence, faculty members can prepare graduates for their imminent practice by focusing on basic skills and attributes. Among those skills, the aptitude to communicate in writing is vital for HCPs (El Tantawi et al., 2016). Those HCPs require strong writing skills to communicate effectively with their target audiences (Ellis, 2021). Also, writing comprehensibly for good clinical practice is necessary, and poor prescription and documentation can lead to dangerous consequences for the patient. Effective writing is also a medium to communicate composite scientific ideas and critical medical information (Malik, 2017). Moreover, medical writing is a science and art that requires knowledge of medical science and writing talent. It comprises writing scientific documents of various types: governing and research-related papers, literature on disease, drugs, promotion, education, publications, and healthcare website contents (Sharma, 2010). The significance of good medical writing must be considered since science rest on clear and precise reporting. Scrupulous research can only seem correct if it is well conveyed to the audience. Those audiences of medical writing include patients, HCPs, citizens, pharmacists, and drug regulators. Hence, the level of medical information and language used has to be suitable to the level of understanding of the target audience (Sharma, 2010).

Concerning the language used, more effective medical writing needs a strong emphasis and crisp usage of the English language (Pal, 2019). English is a global language of medicine and is expanding as a universal communication and educational tool (Chan et al., 2022). Besides, the language of teaching and communication are the basics of understanding knowledge and skills in health sciences schools. Students of those schools feel hard to tackle the language barrier, especially during their first year, which is a crucial obstacle to profound education and innovation (Al-Khlaiwi, 2019). Especially non-native English speakers tend to express the information in their native language; however, their primary barrier is putting that information in a language they might not be comfortable with (Sharma, 2017). A study in Jordan stated that first-year medical students showed a high level of writing anxiety with English foreign language (Rabadi & Rabadi, 2020). Another study also observed that nursing and health sciences students of an Arabic-speaking nation needed better English proficiency and were unfamiliar with medical English (Rabea, 2018). In the Saudi Arabian context, healthcare education is primarily delivered in English, including nursing. Saudi universities are delivering a five-year bachelor of a nursing program with a one-year internship duration (Alqahtani, 2022). Nevertheless, many nursing students join a nursing program after high school with most subjects in Arabic (Allah &

Sahel, 2020). They are anticipated to possess good English skills during their clinical training sessions. Also, they need such skills following graduation for active communication in their working environment, where English is the critical language in the Saudi healthcare system (Alqahtani, 2022). Considering these facts, those nursing students receive English language skills courses during the preparatory year (Alqahtani, 2022). A study by Kaliyadan et al. (2015) stated that the English course was designed to include all facets of medical English, such as medical terms, speaking, reading, comprehension, and writing during the preparatory year. It studied the relationship between the English language proficiency of Saudi medical students during the preparatory year and their academic performance. It concluded that English language proficiency is crucial to medical students' academic performance. An earlier study also found that undergraduate medical students had been deprived of the needed English language proficiency level (Javid, 2011). Another study by El Tantawi et al. (2016) assessed the scientific writing skills in the English language among preparatory year students of the undergraduate dental program offered at a Saudi public university. Female students showed better writing information than their counterparts. However, those need to improve their readability level irrespective of their gender. A review article by Al-Khlaiwi (2019) revealed the effect of language on learning in health sciences schools in Saudi Arabia. It stated that health science students felt discomfort, particularly during their first year to overcome language difficulties. Furthermore, Alqahtani (2022) recently studied the English language usage level and its impact on undergraduate Saudi nursing students speaking English as a second language. Those students showed low average English language usage score; however, their academic achievement was high. Female nursing students showed higher English writing skills than their counterparts. Fourth-year nursing students showed a higher level of English language usage than the remaining year students. In Saudi Arabia, few studies analyzed the medical and dental students' skills in the English language during their preparatory year. However, only one study has focused on English language usage level and its impact on nursing students from the first to the fourth year. Studies have yet to discover the medical writing skills in the English language among nursing students finishing their preparatory year and enrolling in the first year of the nursing program. Hence, this study aims to reveal the knowledge and attitude toward medical writing skills in the English Language among undergraduate nursing students finishing their preparatory year and enrolled in the program's first year.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Study Design

An exploratory study design was applied to discover first-year undergraduate nursing students' knowledge and attitude toward English medical writing skills. This study was conducted during the academic year 2021-2022. The population of this study (N=160) comprises all nursing students enrolled in the first year of the undergraduate nursing program in Abha (n=80) and Muhayil (n=80) campuses of King Khalid University (KKU), Saudi Arabia. All those students are female and Saudi nationals. Those students had already undergone the English language courses delivered during their preparatory year.

B. Questionnaire

A self-structured online questionnaire was administered to the study population (N=160). It consists of two sections with 14 items. One section deals with the nursing student's knowledge of English medical writing skills (7 items). Another section deals with their attitude toward English medical writing skills (7 items). Each item is assessed on a five-point Likert scale, i.e., Strongly Agree-5, Agree-4, Neutral-3, Disagree-2, Strongly Disagree-1. The participants were invited to respond to the questionnaire after giving informed consent. The obscurity and privacy were assured before collecting the responses from the participants. A pre-specified timeline was provided to the participants to respond to the questionnaire.

C. Data Analysis

Data analysis was executed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20 (Chicago, II, USA). Cronbach alpha reliability test was applied to assess the reliability of the questionnaire. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to check the validity of the questionnaire. The descriptive statistics were used to reveal the mean score and cumulative percentage (i.e., Agree-4 and strongly agree-5) of the responses toward items. A Chi-square analysis was carried out to evaluate the association between the knowledge and attitude of nursing students toward English medical writing skills. The level of significance was fixed at 5%.

III. RESULTS

Out of the total students (N=160), 137 responded to the questionnaire. The response rate is 86%. Besides, the internal consistency of the questionnaire was 0.828 (Table 1), denoting that the questionnaire is Good and reliable (George & Mallery, 2003; Jain & Angural, 2017). Further, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value (0.823) for the overall matrix denoted that the sample size was significant for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was observed to be significant ($p < 0.05$). Hence, the sample size was sufficient. Also, the total variance observed in factor analysis using the varimax rotation showed the sum of squared loadings of 70.17 percent.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Variables	Cronbach's alpha	No. of items
Knowledge	0.892	07
Attitude	0.753	07
Overall	0.828	14

TABLE 2
RESPONSES CONCERNING NURSING STUDENTS' KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH MEDICAL WRITING SKILLS

Knowledge	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I can read and write medical questions	1 (0.7)	1 (0.7)	14 (10.3)	41 (29.9)	80 (58.4)
I can write a lot of English medical abbreviations easily.	-	-	10 (7.3)	31 (22.6)	96 (70.1)
I can write medical information from the patient in English.	-	1 (0.7)	11 (8.1)	34 (24.8)	91 (66.4)
I can write English medical reports	-	6 (4.4)	14 (10.2)	36 (26.3)	81 (59.1)
When I write English medical case notes, it creates a good impression on myself	1 (0.7)	-	5 (3.6)	26 (19.0)	105 (76.7)
When I write an English medical referral letter, I think I am professional.	-	1 (0.7)	3 (2.2)	23 (16.8)	110 (80.3)
I can write English medical prescription	-	3 (2.2)	13 (9.5)	36 (26.3)	85 (62.0)

TABLE 3
MEAN SCORE AND CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE FOR NURSING STUDENTS' RESPONSES CONCERNING KNOWLEDGE ITEMS

Knowledge	Mean ± Standard deviation	Cumulative percentage (%)
I can read and write medical questions	4.45 ± 0.766	88.3
I can write a lot of English medical abbreviations easily	4.63 ± 0.618	92.7
I can write medical information from the patient in English	4.57 ± 0.673	91.2
I can write English medical reports	4.40 ± 0.844	85.4
When I write English medical case notes, it creates a good impression on myself	4.71 ± 0.608	95.6
When I write an English medical referral letter, I think I am professional	4.77 ± 0.518	97.1
I can write English medical prescription	4.48 ± 0.758	88.3

Table 2 shows the responses on the items regarding nursing students' knowledge of English medical writing skills. More than 95% of nursing students agreed that writing English medical case notes made a good impression on them (mean score = 4.71), and writing an English medical referral letter made them professional (mean score = 4.71). Further, more than 90% of them acknowledge that they can easily write many English medical abbreviations (mean score = 4.63) and medical information from the patient in English (mean score = 4.57). 88% affirmed that they could read and write medical questions (mean score = 4.45) and write English medical prescriptions (mean score = 4.48). 85.4% of them can write English medical reports (mean score = 4.40) (Table 3).

TABLE 4
RESPONSES CONCERNING NURSING STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS ENGLISH MEDICAL WRITING SKILLS

Attitude	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I like English medical writing	1 (0.7)	1 (0.7)	10 (7.3)	33 (24.1)	92 (67.1)
I dislike English medical writing	29 (21.2)	27 (19.6)	29 (21.2)	19 (13.9)	33 (24.1)
English medical writing is important in globalization	1 (0.7)	1 (0.7)	5 (3.6)	29 (21.3)	101 (73.7)
I need to improve my medical English to succeed in higher education	-	3 (2.2)	2 (1.5)	29 (21.2)	103 (75.1)
Writing in medical English is an advantage	-	-	2 (1.5)	21 (15.3)	114 (83.2)
Knowledge of English medical writing offers advantages in my future career.	-	-	1 (0.7)	11 (8.0)	125 (91.3)
If the medical report is available in both English and Arabic, I will read the report in English	1 (0.7)	4 (2.9)	24 (17.5)	32 (23.4)	76 (55.5)

TABLE 5
MEAN SCORE AND CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE FOR NURSING STUDENTS' RESPONSES CONCERNING ATTITUDE ITEMS

Attitude	Mean ± Standard deviation	Cumulative percentage (%)
I like English medical writing	4.56±0.726	91.3
I dislike English medical writing	3.00±1.470	38.0
English medical writing is important in globalization	4.66±0.656	94.9
I need to improve my medical English to succeed in higher education	4.69±0.613	96.4
Writing in medical English is an advantage	4.82±0.424	98.5
Knowledge of English medical writing offers advantages in my future career.	4.91±0.318	99.2
If the medical report is available in both English and Arabic, I will read the report in English	4.30±0.910	78.9

Table 4 shows the items' responses regarding nursing students' attitude toward English medical writing skills. Most of the students (91.3%) liked English medical writing (mean score = 4.56), and only 38% disliked it (mean score = 3.00). 94.9% agreed that English medical writing is essential in globalization (mean score = 4.66). Almost all nursing students perceived English medical writing as an advantage (98.5%) (mean score = 4.82) and agreed that knowledge of English medical writing offered advantages in their careers (99.2%) (mean score = 4.91). 96.4% of them agreed that they need improvement in their medical English to succeed in higher education (mean score = 4.69). 78.9% acknowledged that they would read the medical report in English even if it is available in English and Arabic (mean score = 4.30) (Table 5).

TABLE 6
ASSOCIATION BETWEEN OVERALL KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDE TOWARD ENGLISH MEDICAL WRITING AMONG NURSING STUDENTS

English Medical Writing Skills		Attitude			Chi-square value (p-value)
		Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
Knowledge	Disagree	-	1 (100)	-	15.470 (0.017)
	Neutral	-	7 (87.5)	1 (12.5)	
	Agree	1 (2.6)	26 (66.7)	12 (30.8)	
	Strongly agree	-	37 (41.6)	52 (58.4)	

The results show a significant association between nursing students' knowledge and attitude toward English medical writing skills (p<0.05) (Table 6).

IV. DISCUSSION

Regarding the nursing students' knowledge, this study observed that more than 90% of nursing students could write more English medical abbreviations easily. This finding is supported by a study in an Arabic-speaking nation, which observed that the English language is used for teaching health sciences students, and their comprehension of medical terminologies was improved as their academic year progressed (Heming & Nandagopal, 2012). However, Saudi pharmacy students struggled to understand basic medical terms (AlRuthia et al., 2020). Previous studies stated that discrepancies might arise when other languages are used for medical terminology (Hur et al., 2018; Ko et al., 2018). Furthermore, a recent study in Saudi Arabia found that 48% and 34% of medical students preferred collecting medical information and had more confidence in history taking in Arabic than in English, respectively (Alnahdi et al., 2021). However, this study found that most nursing students could read and write medical questions (88.3%) and write patient medical information in English (91.2%).

Moreover, this study observed that 85.4% of nursing students could write medical reports in English. More than 95% perceived that writing medical case notes in English made a good impression, and writing a medical referral letter in English made them feel professional. 88.3% could write English medical prescriptions. These findings are supported by Wahyuni (2021), who stated that medical students perceived English language skills as most vital for writing medical reports (77.4%), medical prescriptions (81.08%), and medical purpose letters (79.32%). Besides, English was used for various academic tasks among Arabian medical students. Those academic tasks include lectures, conferences, seminars, group discussions, and writing medical reports and research papers (Muhammad et al., 2018). English is used for knowledge actualization while performing these tasks (Nhan et al., 2016). The individuals serving in healthcare need to communicate in English to become a professional regarding medical needs, such as reading and writing case reports and referral letters (Ferguson, 2013). Likewise, in this study, nursing students understood the significance of the English language for communication and being professional, thereby developing their writing skills in English. Based on the results, nursing students perceived their knowledge of English medical writing skills with a mean score of more than 4.4 out of 5 for all items. This finding indicates a good knowledge of English medical writing skills among nursing students. In the Saudi Arabian context, students enrolling in professional courses should undergo a preparatory year, including English language courses, which aim to improve their confidence in English language usage with a focus on medical terms (El Tantawi et al., 2016).

Concerning the nursing students' attitude, this study reported that 91.3% liked and only 38% disliked English medical writing, which reflects their interest and motivation towards writing in English. However, these findings differ from the findings of Alharbi (2019), who observed that 82% of Saudi undergraduate students disliked writing in English, indicating poor motivation. Furthermore, 94.9% of nursing students perceived that English medical writing is important in globalization since the English language has become vital to the nursing profession to thrive in the globalization era and provide the best to evade the misconception of communication (Noviana et al., 2019). Hawks et al. (2016) stated that professional nurses should own effective written communication, which is an essential skill for them. Hence, it is mandatory to promote earlier in nursing students' careers through various strategies to improve academic literacy. Alqahtani (2022) found that the practice of the English language was linked to Saudi nursing students' academic success. Likewise, the present study revealed that 96.4% of nursing students needed to improve their medical English to succeed in higher education.

Besides, almost all nursing students perceived that writing in medical English would be an advantage (98.5%) and knowledge of English medical writing would offer advantages in their future careers (99.2%). These findings might be because medical English is vital for communication (Perinpasingam et al., 2015). Registered nurses need to utilize medical English for communication at their workplace. They should be able to recognize and collect necessary patient information before case reporting to the doctors, who usually speak in English language (Kunjukunju & Ahmad, 2019). The ability to communicate in English also improves the quality of nursing professionalism and averts misapprehension between nurses and patients, which is the most significant problem in the field of nursing (Aflah & Rahmani, 2019). Furthermore, 78.9% of nursing students said they would read the report in English even though it is available in both English and Arabic. This finding might be because English is a global language of medicine and is expanding as a universal communication and educational tool (Chan et al., 2022). They require such an advantage for active communication in their workplace, where English is the crucial language in the Saudi healthcare system (Alqahtani, 2022). However, a study in the United Arab Emirates stated that Emirati medical students felt more confident in collecting medical history in Arabic than in English (Mirza & Hashim, 2010). From the findings of this study, nursing students demonstrated their attitude toward English medical writing skills with a mean score of more than 4.3 out of 5 for all items except the negative statement related to dislike of English medical writing. This finding indicates nursing students' positive attitude toward English medical writing skills.

Furthermore, Almalki (2016) observed that knowledge of English among Saudi students is significantly related to their attitude toward learning the English language. Likewise, this study revealed a significant association between nursing students' knowledge and attitude toward English medical writing skills. Nursing students possessing adequate knowledge of English medical writing skills reflect a positive attitude towards it.

This study is limited to the female nursing students of a single public university with a smaller sample size. However, it can be conducted across Saudi universities by including nursing students concerning gender, nationality, and academic year. Saudi nursing students' English medical writing skills can be compared with those of nursing colleges in other Arabic-speaking nations. Further, factors affecting the nursing students' knowledge and attitude toward English medical writing skills can be revealed in further studies. Faculty members' needs and difficulties in training nursing students for English medical writing can be explored in the future to improve students' communication skills further.

V. CONCLUSION

Nursing students of KKU presented a good knowledge and positive attitude towards English medical writing skills. Most could write medical reports, questions, abbreviations, and prescriptions in English. They felt English medical writing created a good impression on themselves and made them professional. Most of them liked English medical writing and felt that knowledge of English medical writing offers advantages in their future careers. They can read the medical report in English though it is in Arabic. These findings reflect that English language courses and training are effectively conducted for nursing students at KKU. Further, Saudi nursing schools should continually focus on improving students' medical writing skills in the English language since English is their second language and is also universally used in healthcare for communication. This effort would improve the quality of nursing and patient care and enhance their ability to compete with the global labor market.

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Shifting Divine Moral Values in the Novel *Rahwana Putih* by Sri Teddy Rusdy

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Abstract—The shift in moral values occurred in the postmodern era as a result of the meeting of various moral values in various different cultures. The virtual world seems to play a role in shifting the values of society into a new value system. The study of deconstruction in the research of *Rahwana Putih*'s Novel provides a new view of values relating to divine moral values, which are related to Javanese philosophy, especially the world of wayang. Javanese philosophy, a teaching that is well expressed in *Sastrajendra Hayuningrat Pangruwating Diyu*, is found in *Rahwana Putih* explaining the shift in values that is different from the epic *Ramayana*, as well as in the novel *Anak Bajang Mengiring Angin*. The results of the study resulted in four things related to the shift in divine moral values, namely 1) destiny, 2) darkness, 3) authenticity, and 4) perfection of life. By using the study of deconstruction, the meanings and perspectives of these different divine moral values can be revealed. The difference in perspective is very important to understand so that people understand the importance of critical thinking in understanding plurality so as to create an attitude of tolerance.

Index Terms—deconstruction, philosophy, postmodern, moral

I. INTRODUCTION

Moral values are an emotional mechanism that is needed to create positive and sustainable ethical actions in the system of human life (Bagozzi et al., 2013). Furthermore, it is said that morals function to produce mutually beneficial patterns of cooperation from actions and emotions. Strengthening moral rules will minimize criminal behavior and social conflict (Decety & Cowell, 2014).

Morality rests on a person's personal awareness, not formed by a community (Balliu, 2015). Therefore, in order to survive in the modern world, one must give up all attempts to link personal identity to a grand collective narrative. According to Goodale (2016), pursuing such a narrative means opening the door to greed, economic exploitation, ethnocentrism, and ultimately war. In the highly secure environment of the modern state, people can tolerate more moral ambiguity, which however does not mean that basic moral rules lose their universal validity (Dülmer, 2018).

Moral values have characteristics, namely 1) related to responsibility (Goodale, 2016); 2) related to conscience (Schlegelmilch & Simbrunner, 2018; Goodale, 2016; Balliu, 2015; Suseno, 2005); 3) require (Goodale, 2016; Cawston & Archer 2018; Carbonell, 2018; Tessman, 2018); and 4) formal (Goodale, 2016).

In the postmodern era, emerging values (including moral values), refer to respect for other communities because truth is everything that is able to live and understand others as part of us. All elements of reality are treated as an integral part of human life (Rohman, 2012).

The moral value of divinity as the truth of the locality of Javanese philosophy, *Sastrajendra Hayuningrat Pangruwating Diyu*, which is contained in the novel *Rahwana Putih* by Sri Teddy Rusdy must be studied as part of the reality of human life. This is because an understanding of the moral values that exist in Indonesian society will lead someone to work together and prevent it from harming members of the community.

Often we equate moral or ethical values with religion. However, in reality the two are different. Ethics cannot replace religion, but on the other hand, ethics does not conflict with religion, it is even required by religion. Ethics can help in exploring the rationalism of religious morality (Suseno, 2005). Furthermore, it is explained that in the absence of God, morality itself cannot be understood in absolute terms, like law. Yilmaz and Bahçekapili (2015) in their research opposed previous research which said that children already have a sense of right and wrong before they receive religious education. Opinions about the relationship between morality and religion exist in the post-colonial Philippines, namely religion is used to enforce the idea of morality (Platt et al., 2018).

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The moral values of divinity in the novel *Rahwana Putih* are based on Javanese philosophy, which consists of 4 things, namely a) God as the first being, b) God as a spiritual Essence c) God as the origin and destination of all things d) four stages towards knowledge of God.

God as the first being, in the view of wayang philosophy, explicitly implies a view that God exists and He is the first to exist. This can be exemplified in the play *Dewa Ruci*, God is called by several names, namely: *Hyang Suksma*, *Sukma Mulya*, *Sang Sukma Kawekas*, *Pangeran Hyang Agung*, *Batara Gung*, *Gusti Sang Amurwrengrat*, *Sang Murweng Paradya*, and *Hyang Mahasuci* (Solichin, 2011).

The wayang philosophy holds that God is a spiritual Essence or cannot be seen with the eye. *Dewa Ruci* is something that is not "affordable" or in Javanese it is known as *tan kena kinaya ngapa* or cannot be said or described with anything. This spiritual God carries one implication, namely that God becomes a Essence that is difficult to find. In the story of *Dewa Ruci* it is said that " *mung sasmita aneng jagad amepeki* " or "only those who are aware know the place". In *Dewa Ruci 's story*, it was Bima who finally found *Dewa Ruci*. In other words, the story of *Dewa Ruci* teaches that humans must dive deep into their own hearts to be able to achieve knowledge of God, which will eventually give birth to knowledge of the origin and purpose of all things (*kawruh sangkan paran*).

God as the Origin and Purpose of Everything is explained in wayang performances, namely there is various equipment that implies symbols of the teachings of virtue in life, including in relation to God. The structure of the wayang performance, which begins with *kayon tumancep* and ends with *tancep kayon*, implies the philosophy of life, namely that humans start from nothing, then exist, and eventually return to nothing. The reality in the wayang implies a dynamic of life, which begins with nothing, birth or life, and then no more or death. In addition, puppet performance equipment called *kothak* or box also implies a symbol of human life. *Kothak* or boxes are equipment used to store puppets before and after being performed. This *kothak* equipment symbolizes one life lesson, namely that the origin and place of human return are the same, namely God. The structure of the puppet show shows the Javanese philosophy, namely *sangkan paraning dumadi*. Based on this belief, according to the understanding of the Javanese community, everything that exists (*dumadi*) always experiences dynamics that start from something (*sangkan*) and lead to the same thing (*paran*). In Javanese belief, this "something" is the pinnacle of existence, which is none other than *Hyang Suksma* or God (Solichin et al., 2016).

The four stages to knowledge of God are described in *Dewa Ruci 's play* which gives hope to humans that God can be achieved by a series of processes. The process includes four stages, namely *syariat*, *tarekat*, *hakikat*, and *makrifat*.

In the postmodern era, various literary works are often deconstructed by other authors. Likewise, the novel *Rahwana Putih* which is the result of the deconstruction of the *Ramayana* has a truth that can be referred to from the Javanese philosophy of wayang, *Sastrajendra Hayuningrat Pangruwating Diyu*. The work needs to be studied to capture the meaning contained in it. This is in line with Derrida's (2002) view that interpretation cannot be judged as true or false, but based on the strength or weakness of the arguments put forward. Footprint is a difference. This means that no single sign has a general meaning because traces of other traces are always an integral part of the self-identity of a sign (Derrida, 2016). Barry (2014) said that deconstruction is "a way of reading the text out of the ordinary" or "reading the text against the text itself" because the text cannot understand itself. According to Ibrahim (2016), deconstructed at the outset, challenges what is common sense that language is an important means of conveying truth.

Deep hermeneutics method of suspicion, and then proves the suspicion of something that is not true (the dimension of repression in the text) through deconstructive criticism. The trick is to analyze, parse, and dismantle various assumptions in the text, including the logic of thinking (*logocentrism*, *binary opposition*). Furthermore, Kristeva (1980) explains that deconstruction is a combination of destructive and constructive nature. According to Lipovetsky (2017), binary oppositions which are forever considered stable, stop generating new meanings, but effectively erase and empty existing ones thereby increasing their stability.

There are several articles relevant to this research, including those written by Srinivasan (2013), Sharif (2015), and Kumar and Gupta (2017). However, these articles discuss the moral values in the *Ramayana*. The novelty of this research is to examine the moral values of divinity which have shifted by using Derrida's deconstruction theory and method. In addition, the moral values of divinity are associated with local moral values, namely Javanese philosophy in wayang.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This research is a qualitative descriptive which has the following characteristics: 1) contextual, namely the research is conducted in the context of wayang art in Javanese culture. 2) Collaborative, which involves subject participants and expert triangulation in data inference. 3) Interpretive, namely using analysis based on relevant views and references. 4) Interactive, which has a relationship between research problems, data collection, and data interpretation. 5) Researchers as a key instrument.

The research design is as follows.

- K1. 1. Search for the *Ramayana Major Theme* to find traces.
 - 2. Finding binary opposition as a black/white practice.
 - 3. Find the ambiguity/betweenness/ *differance practice*.
- K2. 4. Build New Construction (*Rahwana Putih*)

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Searching for the Ramayana Major Theme to Find Traces

(a). A View of Destiny

In *Ramayana* it is described that bad destiny is something sad, while in *Rahwana Putih* it is described that bad destiny is something happy

This can be seen in the following quote.

Rama then spoke to Matali "Matali, look at that chariot of Ravana, It seems that he does not know the language of omens and forebodings, his journey towards that direction of apradaksina may indicate his destiny to be killed by me! Go to him and I will destroy him" (R, p. 825) (Subramaniam, 2006).

He promised me that he would give me unrivaled supernatural powers. There would be no creature in this world that could beat me. However, he then reminded me that all the plays in this marcapada will still end and that in time an incarnation of Lord Vishnu will end my life. Actually I somewhat object to the lifeline determined by the gods through Batara Narada. However, I refuse to make a fuss about it. Yes, because I really don't want to live in this mortal world forever (RP, p. 8) (Rusdy, 2013).

Rahwana's view of destiny that he must live with sincerity can be related to the noble pitutur of *Sastrajendra Hayuningrat Pangruwating Diyu* in Javanese philosophy, namely *golek sampurnaning urip lahir batin and golek sampurnaning pati*. Everyone is obliged and responsible to seek the welfare of life in this world and in the hereafter. Life is just living destiny, but to know our good destiny, of course through effort and effort (Sumodiningrat & Wulandari, 2014).

In addition, it is in line with the Javanese philosophy, namely *kawula mung saderma, mobak mosik kersaning Hyang Sukma*. The noble pitutur means that every servant only has to live, while changes in everything (including destiny) of course remain the right and will of God Almighty. Every human being is required to make an effort and try his best, then surrender and surrender all his affairs to God (Sumodiningrat & Wulandari, 2014). This is also in line with the view of Suseno (2005), as a believer, it is impossible for humans to develop fully if their perspective is limited to worldly happiness. We must know that the end of our life, our success or failure, is the gift of God's grace. For the sake of self-development which is actually not right if we are always worried about ourselves. This does not mean that we should give up pessimistically, but that we must realize the limits of our abilities so that we do not despair.

(b). The View of Darkness

In *Ramayana* it is revealed that darkness is not good, while in *Rahwana Putih* it is revealed that darkness is not always bad.

This can be seen in the following quote.

Then Visvamitra replied: "In the famous line of Pulastya there was born a giant named Ravana. Ravana is a powerful king and also a great fighter. He has obtained various supernatural powers from Brahma, the creator because of his asceticism. He likes to annoy sages and good people. And he had defeated his twin brother Kubera and snatched from him the Puspaka chariot, the chariot that could fly in the air. Ravana was the son of Visravas, who was famous in the three worlds. These two giants, Marica and Subahu, are his accomplices. They like to annoy people like me who do penance and those who spread goodness to the world. That's why Rama must protect the world from them" (R, pp. 36-37).

Yes, only black is indestructible and unmixed by any color. Black color is able to absorb all the color elements in the universe because black is the deepest essence of all colors! That is the meaning of darkness. Like the night that becomes the heart of all the day that is born. Like darkness which is the essence of all light. Such is the letter of the Lord of the Universe (RP, pp. 52-53) (Rusdy, 2013).

The evil (dark) Rahwana character is depicted in the *Ramayana* in harmony with the great advice of *Sastrajendra Hayuningrat Pangruwating Diyu* in Javanese philosophy, namely *peteng jagade*. This noble pitutur describes the life of a person who is very difficult. A person considers the world as pitch black because of the many problems and difficulties he faces. Or in other words, someone's evil behavior can cause darkness on earth. This is in line with the opinion of Sharif (2019) who said that Ravan in Valmiki's work is an evil character and has animal-like characteristics.

However, Prabu Rahwana in *Rahwana Putih* is described by Sri Teddy Rusdy by deviating from the Javanese concept of *peteng jagade* that darkness does not always means bad or not good. We must overcome the darkness so that it turns out to be good, that is, by always being grateful and relieved, sincerely *narimo ing pandum*. We must try hard and strive to solve all difficulties and difficulties, then surrender and surrender all affairs to God (Sumodiningrat & Wulandari, 2014). This is in line with the opinion of Sharif (2015) who said that Ravan in Valmiki's work is an evil character and has animal-like characteristics.

Deconstruction of Sindhunata's novel *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* explains that darkness will provide a way. In addition, in the darkness will be obtained nobility and happiness.

Sindhunata's view is found in the following quote.

"Children of men will grope in the dark, but not children of monkeys, like you, my child. For you, even darkness will give way, and there you will find nothing but nobility and happiness" (ABMA, p. 61) (Sindhunata, 2021).

The quote describes the story of Retna Anjani, daughter of Resi Gotama, who because of her lust for possession of the world with *Cupu Manik Astagina*. Dewi Anjani's sin has resulted in the suffering that her son, Anoman, has to endure, in the form of an ape even though he has been treated while performing a terrible penance. He had managed to kill himself to not sin again. This is the law of the whole universe: once a human commits a sin, the sin is still there because who can erase what has happened. What has happened still happens, while man can only try so that he does not sin again.

Anoman with the face of an ape is actually very much awaited by the world which is being filled with wrath. The pride of the world will be conquered by the humility of a monkey. Tapa Retna Anjani has produced holiness which has now incarnated in Anoman, his son so that he became *giri suci, jaladri prawata, suraya sasangka, amila tamu*. Because of the child's holiness, Batara Guru named him Anoman.

From this quote, it can be concluded that darkness does not always mean bad or bad when humans realize that darkness is the result of something bad because of their actions and try to fix it.

(c). *View of Self-Authenticity*

In the *Ramayana* it is revealed that the authenticity of self in life is to unite everything, while in *Rahwana Putih* it is revealed that the authenticity of self in life is not to unite everything.

This can be seen in the following quote.

Rama, who was famous for his truth, heard the words of these gods and put his hands in worship, then said to the thousand-eyes Indra, the leader of the gods. "If the gods really like what I have done, return the life of the brahmin child at the gates of my palace. This is the only grace I ask for. Fill it up, O God. It was my fault that the child died. Give him his life back! I made a promise to his father. May you be well, O gods. Keep my promise" (R, p. 891) (Subramaniam, 2006).

My countless faces, scattered like stars in the sky surrounding the sun. My faces only look real in the dark of night, or when the moon is dim. My dozens of faces are no match for the one sun. Because of that, my countless faces remain scattered wildly in the boundless vast space, with no desire for me to put them together (RP, p. 2) (Rusdy, 2013).

Rahwana's actions refute the Javanese philosophy, namely *bebisik ngewuh-ewuh*. That is, someone who has committed a bad or dishonorable act, then tries to hide or keep it a secret. Unfortunately, his bad deed was actually discovered because of his own behavior. In everyone's soul there is a desire to do good and right. When they have made a mistake, they are generally not calm. It is this uneasy behavior that makes them careless and finally their bad actions are known (Kumar & Gupta, 2017). However, Rahwana tried not to hide the good and the bad in him. Or in other words, Rahwana's attitude against Javanese philosophy *bebisik ngewuh-ewuh*. His life is always as it is, not hiding anything. The fact that Rahwana's attitude is what it is can be used as an example in human life. In reality, no human being is one hundred percent flawless.

In *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*, authenticity in life is determined by human consciousness. Basically, the nature of good and bad is in humans, not outside influences. Human desire to improve something bad to be good is determined by human consciousness. Humans must be responsible for the good and bad deeds they do. An illustration of this can be found in the following quote.

"The evil doesn't come from outside, so you can't blame yourself if you make a mistake, as if the mistake wasn't your responsibility. Evil comes from within, meaning you don't want to make yourself perfect. Goodness is also not merely a gift from the outside, goodness comes from your own desire to become more and more perfect. So this is the meaning and command that you were created as a human being. You were not created for good or bad, but you were created for good and bad, but you were created in a state that still has to reach perfection. In perfection, good and bad are your own, not a gift from the outside world. Then the *three realms* are the basis for your understanding of the greatness of a human being," said Dewa Kangka, the god of all creatures that fly in the sky (ABMA, p. 182) (Sindhunata, 2021).

(d). *View of the Perfection of Life*

In *Ramayana*, the perfection of life is the ability to fulfill everything, while in *Rahwana Putih*, the perfection of life is the unwillingness to perfect life.

This can be seen in the following quote

Valmiki was silent for a moment after saying those conditions and then he smiled as he said, "I know, I expect perfection in a human being. But I want to know if there is such a perfect human! Could a human being possess those qualities! Even devas are not capable of possessing all these qualities then how can a human being wish to be so perfect?"

"In the line of Iksvaku there was a king named Rama. He's the one you're referring to. He is not affected by the emotional vibrations of the mind (R, p. 4) (Subramaniam, 2006).

Even if perfection is real, it does not belong to those who feel they have taken sides with the ultimate truth and intend to do this and that, for this and that. Perfection of life is only owned by people who no longer want this and that for this and that, namely those who have prepared life now, in this world, with their existence like this, without being burdened with desires like this and that for this and that again (RP, p. 10) (Rusdy, 2013).

This can be related to the Javanese philosophy of *mubra-mubra mblabar madu*, which means someone who is self-sufficient in all things, prosperous, peaceful, happy, peaceful, and prosperous. Enjoyable life and never experience difficulties. The life that everyone dreams of. However, the true essence of true happiness is not determined by

abundant possessions. True happiness is a heart that is full of gratitude and sincerely accepts its destiny (Sumodiningrat & Wulandari, 2014).

In addition, it is also related to the Javanese philosophy, namely *janma tan kena ingina*. *Janma tan kena ingina* means that no human is perfect. Everyone is perfect with their humanity, meaning that everyone has their own advantages and disadvantages. God gives these strengths and weaknesses so that humans know each other, complement each other, and work together (Sumodiningrat & Wulandari, 2014).

This is also in line with the Javanese philosophy, namely *sugih tanpa bandha*. This noble pitutur in Javanese philosophy means a person who looks like he has nothing, but all the necessities of life are fulfilled. People who are said to be *sugih tanpa bandha* are usually kind, polite, and easy to help people. The message in this noble pitutur is that we become people who have a rich heart and have a rich mentality. People who are rich in heart will easily give help to others, while people who are mentally rich will give help to others without expecting anything in return (Sumodiningrat & Wulandari, 2014).

The view of the perfection of life of *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin* is different from that of *Ramayana* and *Rahwana Putih*.

In *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*, Sindhunata explains the nature of happiness in human life. This is explained in the following quote.

"No brother, I didn't mean that at all. I just want to remind you, in suffering people are often tempted by the longing for the shadow of happiness, whereas true happiness lies in suffering itself" (*ABMA*, p. 155) (Sindhunata, 2021).

"My son, do not weep for your misfortune. Sing your misfortune into a dharma, for that is the duty of every human being. You both have searched for happiness beyond your misfortune. Whereas for humans, in their misfortunes that is the palace of happiness. Remember, it is impossible for humans to find their true happiness on their own, because humans are bound to the evil that gave birth to the laws of misfortune," suddenly a divine voice greeted Sukesni and Wisrawa" (*ABMA*, pp. 27-28) (Sindhunata, 2021).

"My son, you both think, only with your kindness can you attain that eternal happiness. You both forget that only with divine help can you achieve that noble goal. Man does believe too much in his arrogance, forgetting that his mighty arrogance is just a drop in the ocean of his weakness. Without divine help, you will surely drown again in that sea of your weakness. And that's what you're experiencing now" (*ABMA*, p. 28) (Sindhunata, 2021).

From some of these quotes, it can be concluded that Sindhunata's view of the nature of true happiness is found in suffering. Besides, man cannot find his own happiness without divine intervention. Often because of their arrogance, humans feel that they have found true happiness and always feel that with their good deeds, humans will find true happiness.

B. Binary Opposition

In the *Ramayana* (previous views of society) it is described that there is a binary opposition as a black/white practice. In this study, it was found that there was a binary opposition in relation to the value of the divine philosophy, namely 1) bad destiny is sad >< bad destiny is happy, 2) darkness is not good >< darkness is good, 3) the authenticity of life is to unite all >< authenticity the self of life is not uniting everything, 4) the perfection of life is the ability to fulfill everything >< the perfection of life is the unwillingness to perfect life.

C. Ambiguity or Intermediary Related to Divine Moral Values

(a). *The Mix of One's Bad Destiny Is Pathetic With Human's Bad Destiny Pleasant*

In the view of Javanese philosophy, it is said that the subject of a person's life and status has been determined, his fate is predetermined so that one must endure the hardships of life patiently (Yana, 2010). However, one's bad destiny is often sad because something bad actually makes us depressed, embarrassed, and unhappy. If we are able to refine something bad into something useful and useful, it can certainly be happy, both for ourselves and for others. To achieve such an attitude requires sincerity and great intention in humans to make something bad into something fun. In this life we often see someone who is born disabled or imperfect (bad luck), but that person feels happy and becomes a human being who excels and can do something positive for himself and others. However, we also often see someone who is born perfect, but feels that his destiny is bad so that person feels pressured and takes actions that are not commendable. For that, we need a mature and responsible attitude in dealing with our bad destiny. We must have the view that humans are given a good side and a bad side, advantages and disadvantages, in them so that they feel need for each other and share with each other so as to create harmony in this life.

(b). *The Mixture of Darkness Is Bad and Darkness Is Good*

Darkness is bad because it creates chaos or an atmosphere of insecurity and fear in everyone. However, if a darkness is able to encourage a positive progress or change, that darkness must be something good. This kind of darkness is usually in the form of opposition or contradiction to something established. Such darkness requires an attitude and critical thinking to lead to a good change. Thus, it can be said that darkness is a mixture of something good and bad.

(c). *The Mixture of Authenticity in Life Is to Unite Everything With Authenticity in Life Is not to Unite Everything*

The concept of life is the unification of everything we have, which means that we unite all that is positive so that the identity of a person is realized that distinguishes them from others. Thus, with this concept, a person is often said to have a good character and tries to cover up all his bad character. Or in other words, someone is trying to make an image to be known as a good person. Meanwhile, on the side others say that life is not uniting everything. This means that we only acknowledge the positives we have and try to cover up the negatives. In fact, someone who tries to unite the positive things in himself often inadvertently brings up something negative or vice versa. A mixture of the two must exist in humans. Therefore, a person is required to dare to be responsible for his own existence, both positive and negative.

(d). The Mixture of the Perfection of Life Is the Ability to Fulfill Everything. The Perfection of Life Is the Inability to Fulfill Everything

The concept of the perfection of life is the ability to fulfill everything in the *Ramayana* associated with something observable or material perfection, such as wealth, intelligence, prosperity and harmony. However, in *Rahwana Putih* it is said that the perfection of life is the unwillingness to perfect life. This is because *Rahwana Putih* emphasizes the perfection of life on the human ability to resist the lust to obtain everything that exists in this world. The difference in point of view of the two is what gives rise to ambiguity, namely the perfection of life from the outer side and from the inner side. The perfection of life is a mixture of the human ability to fulfill everything and the human ability to curb his lust for the ability to fulfill these things. This is because basically humans will never be satisfied to fulfill all their needs so that an attitude is needed to be able to control that desire. Humans often look perfect because they already have everything they want, but they always look for that perfection and feel that they are not perfect. Or vice versa, someone who does not have perfection, but feels himself perfect.

D. Build New Construction (Rahwana Putih)

(a). Bad Luck Is Something Sad and Something Happy

Bad fate often causes feelings of sadness in humans. That's because every human being always wants the best in his life and humans are creatures with many values. So, happiness will not be achieved if we only look for one value. The pluralism of values does not mean that humans seem to have to try to achieve all these values. Obviously, a person will only become a complete human being if all the values of the body are familiar to him, namely the values of truth and knowledge, social, moral responsibility, aesthetics and religion (Suseno, 2005). However, in the novel *Rahwana Putih* it is explained that a person's bad destiny is not always sad, it can even make people feel happy when someone is willing to accept it sincerely or *willingly*. Bad destiny that causes happiness if it is based on an awareness of God's destiny that humans must live. No matter how bad humans are, both physically and non-physically, it is a gift that must be grateful for because humans have weaknesses on one side and strengths on the other. Humans who are aware of their weaknesses and look for strengths that must be optimized will produce something useful, for themselves and for others. Humans have talents and potentials that can be developed which can ultimately lead to happiness. Happiness is achieved when humans can use and activate our talents and abilities (Suseno, 2005).

The character of Rahwana who was born as a giant human is a bad fate. However, his bad destiny was trying to be perfected by meditating and mastering *Sastrajendra Hayuningrat Pangruwating Diyu* so that Rahwana also gained unrivaled supernatural powers. This is depicted by the character of Rahwana who sincerely accepts his existence who was born as a giant. He accepts his imperfect physical existence and tries to develop himself from the other side (such as his strength or supernatural powers) so that his life is more meaningful and valuable for others.

Thus, it can be drawn a proposition that bad destiny is something that is sad when we look at the reality we face and at the same time happy when there is awareness in a person to improve his existence.

(b). Darkness Is Something That Is Neither Good nor Good

Darkness is a symbol of humans who have an evil character or something unpleasant. In the novel *Rahwana Putih*, darkness can mean bad and good depending on the way humans view it. When darkness is juxtaposed with light, it is light that attracts and looks good. However, in reality we forget that in order to get light or something good, one must first learn from the dark. Humans continue to perfect their lives so that they get something bright or good so that what is good becomes valuable. So, it can be said that something dark is not necessarily bad because it helps one in the process of searching for something light or good.

Thus, it can be drawn a proposition that darkness is something that does not when we look at its nature that causes chaos, disorder, and discomfort, but darkness is something that is good when viewed from its function as a controller or balancer of the world.

(c). Self-Authenticity in Life Is Uniting Everything and Authenticity in Life Is not Uniting Everything

In fact, the true nature of one's life includes all the good and the bad in our lives. This is described in the novel *Rahwana Putih*, the character of Rahwana who is described as a character who has a black and white character. No human in this world is completely good or completely bad otherwise. Humans have both good and bad sides. However, sometimes the bad side of humans is sometimes covered up in order to seem good. Humans want to be seen as good human beings. Something that was covered up sometimes accidentally came out on the surface. No human is perfect, as

the saying goes, *there is no ivory that is not cracked*. Thus, a proposition can be drawn that the authenticity of life is to unite everything when we are aware of our strengths and weaknesses and not to unite everything when we want to image ourselves for a particular purpose.

(d). *The Perfection of Life Is the Ability to Fulfill Everything or Perfect Life and the Perfection of Life Is the Unwillingness to Perfect Life*

In essence, the perfection of life is related to the human desire to perfect his life and the unwillingness to perfect life. In this life, often the perfection of human life is only associated with material things. However, in essence the perfection of human life is also related to things that are non-material. When a person pursues the perfection of material life in his life, he will never feel satisfied and always pursue to become more maximal. In fact, it is impossible to materialize because in essence humans will never feel satisfied. Humans who pursue perfection, he will feel imperfect. Humans should look at perfection from the material and non-material side. When attaining material perfection, man should be grateful and help others. The perfection of life is the human ability to accept something that has been fought for even though other people say it is not perfect. So, it can be drawn a proposition that the perfection of life is not only related to material things, but also non-material things, namely the heart accepts imperfections in us.

IV. CONCLUSION

Deconstruction study of *Rahwana Putih*'s novel produces a different perspective on divine moral values, both with the epic *Ramayana* and the novel *Anak Bajang Menggiring Angin*. These differences include, *first*, the view of bad destiny as something sad and pleasant, *Second*, darkness is something that is not good and good. *Third*, self-authenticity in life is to unite everything and self-authenticity in life is not to unify everything. *Fourth*, the perfection of life is the ability to fulfill everything or perfect life and the perfection of life is the unwillingness to perfect life. Even though there are differences, it cannot be considered right or wrong, but it adds insight to the existence of various philosophies that exist as the basis of argumentation. Which in the end emerged awareness of diversity (plurality), the need for critical thinking, and the importance of tolerance in looking at it.

V. RECOMMENDATION

This article can be used as a guide for morality education in Indonesia and internationally regarding the understanding of plurality, one of which is the result of deconstruction based on Javanese philosophy. With this study of deconstruction, hopefully, it can be continued in the deconstruction of moral values that raise the moral values of God based on very diverse local cultures.

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Arabic-Speaking EFL Learners' Pronunciation of British English Vowels: A Production-Based Study

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Abstract—The present study investigated the production of British English (BrE) vowels by Yemeni-Arabic learners of English. Specifically, the most problematic BrE vowels for those learners were explored in relation to Lados' (1957) contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) and Flege's (1995) Speech Learning Model (SLM). Sixty-seven Yemeni EFL learners at different proficiency levels completed a questionnaire, which mainly explored how difficult the BrE vowels are for them, and a vowel production test, which measured the learners' production accuracy of the BrE vowels. Overall, the results revealed that Yemeni EFL learners encountered some difficulties when pronouncing BrE vowels, but their production accuracy rates increased as their levels grow. It was found that the same vowels, /e/, /ɒ/, /eə/, /ɜ:/, /ʊ/ & /u:/, were found to be the most inaccurately produced sounds by learners at all levels. The subtle differences between vowels might have caused the learners' production problems. Findings also showed that learners' L1 vowels that are different from the BrE vowels were easier to produce, and this is congruent with the SLM.

Index Terms—British English Vowels, production, Arabic-Speaking EFL learners, pronunciation

I. INTRODUCTION AND STUDY BACKGROUND

British English (BrE) is considered one of the most famous English varieties; it has its own speech vowel sounds that make it different from other English varieties, e.g., American English (Roach, 2010). The "standard variety of English in Great Britain is called standard British English" (Burleigh and Skandera, 2011, p. 6), and such a variety refers to popular non-linguistic terms such as BBC English, Oxford English, etc. According to Burleigh and Skandera (2011) and Roach (1999), BrE is spoken in different accents; one of these accents is Received Pronunciation (RP) which can be used as a model for teaching English pronunciation. RP is considered the most powerful and prestigious accent of standard BrE. Thus, it "has always been chosen by British teachers to teach foreign learners". Additionally, it is "the accent that is fully described and used as the basis for textbooks and pronouncing dictionaries" (Roach, 1999, p. 5). Moreover, BrE is considered one of the most commonly used and taught varieties in most world countries, particularly in the Arab world (Almbark, 2013).

Vowels are the hardest sounds for second/foreign language learners to produce (Geoffrey et al., 2016). Accordingly, the inaccurate production of non-native speech sounds (such as English speech sounds to Arab learners of EFL as non-native speech sounds) may be due to their failure to distinguish the different speech sounds (Evans & Alshangiti, 2018; Flege et al., 1999). As a matter of fact, producing speech sounds inappropriately, especially vowel sounds, "will lower their intelligibility and comprehensibility and interfere with successful communication" (Ho, 2009, p. 2). For instance, producing cut as cot or caught; bit as bet or beat; bought as boot and vice versa, etc., could be confusing and impair the meaning being communicated (Ho, 2009).

There are many hypotheses and models which proposed different claims and predictions regarding second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) speech sounds production. For example, it was early claimed by Lado (1957), who first proposed the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), that "L2/FL sounds that are phonetically different from L1's are most difficult for L2/FL learners to recognize but those that have a counterpart in L1 are produced with ease" (Hung, 2008, p. 7). In other words, the "L2 sounds that are similar to the learners' L1, will be easy to acquire", whereas "the L2 sounds that are different from L1, will be difficult to acquire" (Fu, 2010, p.11). By contrast, Flege (1995) in his Speech Learning Model did not agree with Lado's CAH. According to Flege's (1995) model, "L2/FL sounds that are phonetically similar to or are the same as L1's are most difficult for L2/FL learners to acquire, whereas those that are phonetically distinct from L1's are the easiest" (Hung, 2008, p. 7).

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Noticeably, these two models, which are the focus of our analysis, are based on the differences and similarities occurring between L1 and TL in terms of speech sounds acquisition. In general, according to CAH (Lado, 1957), the similar sounds in L1 and L2 are easy to acquire, whereas the recent SLM (Flege, 1995) claims that the different sounds in the two languages (L1 & L2) or the L2 sounds that are not similar to or do not exist in learners' L1 are easy to acquire. Based on CAH, it is seen that most vowels of English as an L2 or an FL are not similar to learners' L1 (Arabic) as they do not exist in their native language (NL). So, this may make such different sounds difficult to acquire by these FL/L2 learners. According to Flege's SLM (1995), by contrast, most English vowels are different from those of learners' L1 (e.g., Arabic); thus, this may make these FL speech sounds easy to acquire.

A considerable body of literature has been produced to examine how EFL learners produce the English vowel sounds by Arabic-speaking EFL learners (e.g. Alshangiti, 2015; Al-Homaidhi, 2015; Evans & Alshangiti, 2018; Tajeldin Ali, 2013; Munro, 1993) and learners from different L1 backgrounds (e.g., Escudero et al., 2012; Cenoz & Lecumberri, 1999; Ho, 2009; Fridland & Kendall, 2012; Hung, 2008; Iverson & Evans 2007; Lambacher et al., 2005; Mokari & Werner, 2017; Nikolova-Simi, 2010; Nishi & Kewley, 2007; Strange et al., 1998; Yang, 2006) among many others. The findings of the studies mentioned above (e.g., Nikolova-Simic, 2010; Mokari & Werner, 2017; Iverson & Evans, 2007), generally, showed that speakers of languages (e.g., German and Norwegian) with large and complex vowel systems can produce English vowels better than speakers of languages (e.g., Spanish, Arabic, and French) with small and simple vowel systems. According to Iverson and Evans (2007), learners of English, whose native language (NL) is German, were found able to acquire vowels of English more quickly than learners of English whose L1 is Spanish. These results suggested that Arab EFL learners may find English vowels difficult to acquire as their NL has a smaller and simpler vowel system than the vowel system of BrE that appears to be challenging for them.

A few number of studies (e.g., Munro & Derwing, 2008; Pillai & Delavar, 2012; Piske et al., 2002) focused on examining the production of vowels. Surprisingly, the majority of previous studies (e.g., Nikolova-Simic, 2010; Ho, 2009; Strange et al., 1998; Tsukada et al., 2005; Nishi & Kewley, 2007, 2008) have focused more on investigating the American English (AE) vowels production rather than those vowel sounds of BrE which appear to be more extensive than the AE ones. In addition, the participants of most above studies were not EFL learners —i.e., they were ESL learners. Moreover, the majority of such studies did not examine the production accuracy of all vowels of English. They instead concentrated on investigating the production of a few certain English vowels such as the contrasting segments or pairs of vowels (Fabra, 2012; Perkell et al., 2004; Yang, 2006), high-mid front vowel sounds (Escudero et al., 2012; Ho, 2009; Lambacher et al., 2005) and some simple segments or monophthongs (Strange et al., 1998; Tsukada et al., 2005). For instance, the study conducted by Marković (2009) focused only on examining Serbian ESL students' vowel production accuracy of the English segments /e/ and /æ/. The current study, thus, differs from the earlier ones in terms of both kinds and numbers of English vowels that are investigated (BrE vowel sounds rather than those of AE segments; all BrE vowels rather than just a few distinct sounds like those segments of the front or back area of the tongue or the contrasting vowel sounds), environment or the context in which study is conducted (Yemen), the type of learners (i.e., EFL Arabic-speaking Yemeni learners rather than learners of EFL or ESL of different L1 backgrounds).

Finally, in the Yemeni-Arabic learners' context, it appears that no studies (to the researchers' knowledge) have examined how Yemeni EFL learners at different proficiency levels (beginning, intermediate & advanced levels) produce the BrE vowels. Because of the lack of research in this area, the researchers intend to primarily assess the BrE vowels production accuracy by Yemeni-Arabic learners of English Arabic to find out how they produce these types of English sounds, and to see to what extent they correctly pronounce these sounds based on their proficiency levels of English. The present study, thus, addresses this research gap; it attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the most problematic BrE vowels for Yemeni EFL learners to produce?
2. Are the assumptions of the CAH and SLM hypotheses applicable to Yemeni EFL learners' production of BrE vowels?

Vowel Systems in English and Arabic

Vowel systems in English and Arabic are different from each other. Arabic is a Semitic language whereas English is a Germanic language of an Indo-European language family (Holes, 2004; Ryding, 2014). This means that the two languages belong to different language families. Such a difference may give us a hint that they differ from each other in their vowel inventory systems. A complete description of the vowel system in English has been given in previous literature (e.g., Naji & Almakrob, 2023), so to avoid repetition, it is not discussed here.

The two languages differ phonetically and phonologically in terms of the number of their speech sounds, particularly vowels. Arabic has a smaller vowel system than the BrE. With reference to the vowels (i.e. simple and diphthongs) of the two languages, Arabic is an 8-vowel sound system composed of /i, ī, a, ā, u, ū, ai, & au/ (Ryding, 2014), whereas BrE is a 20-vowel sound system composed of /i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /a:/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ʌ/, /ɜ:/, /ə/, /aɪ/, /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /aʊ/, /əʊ/, /eə/, /ɪə/ and /ʊə/ (Nikolova-Simic, 2010).

Additionally, Arabic has only three short vowels and three long vowels, whereas BrE has seven short vowels and five long ones. In terms of diphthongs, Arabic has only two diphthong phonemes, whereas BrE has eight vowel diphthongs. This large vowel inventory system of BrE might be challenging for L2 learners whose primary language vowel system is small, e.g., Arab learners of English. So L2 learners whose L1 is limited in its vowel system (e.g., Japanese, Spanish, Korean, Arabic etc.) may find it difficult to successfully acquire the vowel system of another language (e.g., English)

that consists of a larger number of vowels (Flege et al., 1997; Flege et al., 1999; Hung, 2008; Lado, 1957; Nikolova-Simic, 2010).

On the other hand, Arabic and English vowel systems are similar in terms of voicing, meaning that all vowels of the two languages are voiced as they are all articulated without any airflow obstruction in the mouth because it moves smoothly to the lips coming from the larynx (Roach, 2010; Ryding, 2014; Watson, 2007). In terms of vowel occurrence, Arabic vowels occur in the medial and final positions of a word; however, they never occur in the initial positions of a word unless they are preceded by a glottal stop, 'hamzah' (Al-Ani, 1970).

Similarly, few vowel sounds of English rarely appear in the initial and final positions of a word. Consider the following English vowels /æ/, /e /, and /ɒ / which rarely occur in the final positions of words. Also, the vowel / ʊə / rarely occurs initially (Mugair & Mahadi, 2014). Table 1 summarizes the differences and similarities between British English and Arabic.

TABLE 1
DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES BETWEEN ARABIC & BrE VOWEL SYSTEMS

Features	BrE	Arabic
Indo-European language family	Germanic	Semitic
Vowel inventory system	Large, crowded, complicated	Small and simple
N. of vowels	20	8
Short vowels	7	3
Long vowels	5	3
Diphthongs	8	2
Vowels occurrence	Occur in all word-positions except some vowels, e.g., /æ/, /e/ & /ɒ / rarely occur in final word-positions	Never occur in initial positions of a word
Voicing	Voiced	Voiced

Based on the previous comparison between the two vowel systems of English & Arabic, it is seen that most of the vowels of British English are different from those vowels of Arabic, that is, most English vowels do not exist in Arabic. Thus, they might be difficult to be acquired by Arab learners of English as L2 learners. According to Levey and Cruz (2004), "one difficulty in the acquisition of the sound system of an L2 may derive from the differences between the number and the identity of vowels in the L2 and those in the speaker's native language" (p. 162) (e.g., British English has twenty vowels, whereas Arabic has only eight vowels).

II. METHOD

This study, which aimed at investigating Yemeni EFL learners' production of BrE vowels, focused on the standard BrE because it is the most common English variety used in the education system in Yemen where English is taught as an FL. Furthermore, most English course books/textbooks taught at government schools and universities in Yemen often focus on BrE vowels, especially phonetics and listening-speaking courses. Further, the current investigation focused on vowels because they present difficulties for Arab learners EFL learners to produce (Flege et al., 1997), and this is attributed to their inability to discriminate these sounds.

A. Participants

The total number of learners who participated in the present study was 70. The participants who actually took part in the study were 67 (between 20 and 26 years old) as three learners did not complete the production task, so they were excluded. All of the participants were Yemeni-Arabic learners of English enrolled in the Department of English at Amran University, Yemen. Learners were conveniently selected from all levels except level one learners; they were not included because they were considered real beginners. Additionally, it was observed that the vowel production task was beyond their level, thus, they were excluded. However, the participants' university English levels were not considered for the purpose of the current study as they do not always reflect learners' actual English proficiency levels. Therefore, the Michigan English test (MET) was used as a measure to group the participants into their English proficiency levels and to subject all of them to the same standard.

The scores of the MET test were used for grouping the participants into three proficiency levels (Beginners: 26, Intermediate: 25 and Advanced: 16). More specifically, as is shown in Table 2, beginners were the participants who scored below 40 marks (= 0-49%); the participants who scored higher than 39 and below 63 marks (=50-79%) were classified as intermediate learners, and the advanced learners were the participants who scored higher than 64 marks (=80-100%)

TABLE 2
PARTICIPANTS' DISTRIBUTION BASED ON THEIR MET PROFICIENCY LEVELS (N=67)

level	Beginners	Intermediate learners	Advanced learners
No.	26	25	16
Cut scores	0-39 (0-49)	40-63 (50-79)	64-80 (80-100)

B. Instrumentation and Procedures

This study employed two research instruments for data collection: a questionnaire and a vowel production test. The purpose of the questionnaire was to find out the participants' personal background information. Additionally, the participants were invited to state to what extent their English instructors used the teaching techniques related to English vowel pronunciation in the classroom, specifically when teaching English vowel segments, e.g., repetition drills and examining learners' vowel performance accuracy. Furthermore, the questionnaire included several items related to EFL instruction. For instance, the items focused on the numbers of listening/speaking and phonetics courses learners took in the past, the extent to which teaching aids were used by their English teachers, etc.

Regarding validity and reliability, the majority of the questionnaire items were adapted from earlier literature (Tajeldin Ali, 2011; Jung, 2016) and minor modifications were made to fulfill the study's objectives. As some of the questionnaire items were prepared by the researchers, it was validated by three experts in the field to measure its content validity. Then the appropriate adjustments and changes were made.

The second research instrument used in the current study was a vowel production test whose purpose was to find out the extent to which Yemeni EFL learners can produce the BrE vowels. This test included 57 monosyllabic words presented to each participant and then each participant was asked to read/pronounce these words clearly, i.e., the participants were informed to pronounce the stimuli neither very slow nor very fast, as shown in examples (1) and (2). Overall, 3819 items were produced by all participants on the production test (19 vowels x 3 = 57 words x 67 = 3819).

(1) pot, set, put, sat, boot, part, seat, bought

(2) pat, bet, male, boil, mile, hut, hot, boy

On the production test, each vowel sound of BrE examined in this study was displayed three times in medial places of monosyllabic words. The three stimulus words for each English vowel then were put on the test sheet in a random order since they contained the similar vowel. The researchers' job in this task was to meet each participant individually, distributing the wordlists, and then record the productions of the BrE vowels for every single participant employing a low-noise S-mic system and high-sensitivity Sony Stereo IC recorder [ICD-UX560F], in a calm study room.

After meeting all the participants individually and recording their productions of the stimulus words used to elicit their English vowel production accuracy, we transferred all the recordings from the recorder into a laptop computer for evaluation. To assess whether these Arabic-speaking EFL learners are able to pronounce the BrE vowels accurately, all the participants' English vowel production recordings were given to a native English speaker for judgment to decide whether these English vowels were produced in an intelligible way or not. This way of evaluation (native listener judgments) was used by many researchers (e.g., Murno & Derwing, 2008; Mokari & Werner, 2017). The native English speaker was asked to evaluate the vowel productions of the participants in order to reduce the subjectivity to a minimum; he was provided with a scoring key adapted from Nikolova-Simic (2010) on which he wrote down the participants' scores. The scoring key sheet included the correct vowel productions and 3-4 alternatives for each vowel the participants may mispronounce instead of the target vowel. The rater was also asked to identify the vowels which were not produced properly by the participants. Finally, all the participants' responses to the vowel production test were entered into excel sheets and then transferred into the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) software, version 20.0., for further statistical analysis. Concerning the test validity, the same teaching experts who were consulted to review and judge the content of the questionnaire, evaluated the extent to which the production test is suitable for measuring learners' ability of English vowel pronunciation. As for reliability, it was statistically found that the vowel production test had very good internal consistency, meaning that it was reliable.

C. Data Analysis

Separate analyses were done on the data gathered from both the questionnaire and the production task. All of the participants' responses to the questionnaire were put into excel sheets and then imported into the SPSS program for additional statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the questionnaire items, calculating the frequency, percentage, and overall percentages of participants' responses for each item.

As for the vowel production test, all the stimulus words produced by the participants in the vowel production task were evaluated by a native English speaker to reduce the subjectivity of ratings to a minimum. The native English speaker determined the intelligibility of the produced vowels. That is, if a vowel was not produced properly, the native speaker would identify the mispronounced vowel that was produced instead of the target one. The scoring key worksheet included two main columns: one column for the correct responses (i.e., the correct productions of vowels) coded with A and another column for alternatives coded with B, C, D and E for each vowel that the participants produced incorrectly instead of the target vowel. For example, when a participant produced the luck vowel /ʌ / incorrectly, the native English speaker could identify the substituted vowel for the target one (from the given alternatives: e.g., lack, look, or lock), i.e., the vowel that was mispronounced instead of the target one.

Because the English vowel production test had three items per vowel, three ratings of the correct productions for each vowel were measured. Then, the mean and standard deviation of the correct productions for each vowel were calculated. Finally, One-Way ANOVA was run to determine the variations in the vowel production performance between learners across the proficiency levels.

III. RESULTS

A. The Results of the Questionnaire

Most participants, across the three proficiency levels, reported they were taught only one course of English phonetics (n= 40, 59.7%). Few learners of the advanced level mentioned they had studied more than one course related to English phonetics and phonology (n= 6, 37%). Also, it was found that four participants (5.9%) had never previously attended a course on English phonetics. Concerning the courses of English listening/speaking the participants completed, 22 (32.8%) of them stated they had attended more than two of such English courses (13: advanced level {81.0%}, 6: intermediate participants {24.0%} & 3 learners of the beginning level {11.53%}). The results also revealed that the majority of learners who took more than three of these types of English courses were learners of the advanced level (7, 43.75%).

Learners were asked how much their teachers used recording devices and labs as teaching aids while teaching English vowels. Only three (4.47%) learners mentioned their English teachers frequently used these teaching tools (two at the beginning & intermediate levels and one participant at the advanced level). Additionally, the majority of participants (n=33: 49.25%) stated that their teachers sometimes employed these instructional tools. Moreover, several participants stated that their English professors hardly often (or never) used the aforementioned aids (27.0% & 18.0%). These responses imply that Yemeni EFL teachers do not always employ teaching tools like recorders or labs; they suggest that they are not paying enough attention to the usage of the teaching tools that could enhance their students' acquisition of these English vowel sounds more precisely.

Regarding whether Yemeni instructors of EFL assess their students' accuracy of English vowel pronunciation, it was observed that these English instructors did not always take care about whether or not their learners produce English vowels accurately. The Yemeni participants who reported that their English teachers always examined their accurate English vowel production in the classroom were only two. Similarly, another two Yemeni participants claimed that their English instructors often assessed their accuracy and ability in producing English vowels and provided them with immediate feedback to know how correctly each vowel of English was pronounced. On the other hand, about 29 participants (43.3%) stated that their English instructors hardly often (or never) examined their accuracy and ability in pronouncing English vowels. Concerning the use of the repetition drill by these English teachers, 31.4% of Yemeni learners (n=21) reported that their teachers, who taught them English vowels, never or rarely used such a teaching technique. Moreover, about 30% of participants (n=20) stated that their instructors of English sometimes used the repetition exercise to teach these English speech sounds.

B. The Overall Production of the BrE Vowels by Yemeni EFL Learners

As is shown in Table 3 below, the average rate of the accurate production of English vowels was the highest by learners of high levels (76%, SD=0.106) and the lowest by learners of the beginning levels (52%, SD=0.117). This indicates that the accuracy rate of English vowel pronunciation increased with the participant level. As a result, across all the learning levels, English vowel production accuracy gradually improved (beginners: 52%, intermediate: 62%, & advanced: 76 %, respectively).

TABLE 3
TOTAL ACCURATE VOWEL PRODUCTION PERFORMANCE FOR PARTICIPANTS BASED ON THEIR PROFICIENCY LEVELS

level	Beginners		Intermediate		Advanced		Total	
N	26		25		16		67	
	%	SD	%	SD	%	SD	%	SD
Overall accurate vowel production	52	0.117	62	0.106	76	0.106	61	0.142

With regard to the most problematic vowels produced by learners, it was found that some English vowels, which were found difficult for beginners to produce, were also found difficult to pronounce by intermediate or advanced levels. For example, the vowels /e/, /ɒ/ & /eə/ were regarded as the hardest vowel sounds to pronounce by most participants at all levels. Similarly, the result of the production test revealed that some English vowels, which were found easy for advanced learners to produce, were found easy for beginners or intermediate learners too. For example, English vowels such as /ɔɪ/ and /i:/ appeared to be easy to produce for all participants.

One Way-ANOVA and Sheffe Test

Table 4 presents the findings of the ANOVA test, which revealed that learners' performance was significant across the three groups (beginners, intermediate and advanced) in terms of their English vowel production performance. More specifically, the vowel production performance of Yemeni learners across their three proficiency levels was significantly different, $F(2, 64) = 22.735, P = 0.000 (< 0.05)$.

TABLE 4
THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN/WITHIN LEARNER GROUPS BASED ON ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F.	sig.
Between Groups	.554	2	.277	22.735	0.000
Within Groups	.780	64	.012		
Tot.	1.335	66			

Table 5 shows the findings obtained from the Scheffe test which was used to ascertain whether there were any significant variations among learners' English proficiency levels in terms of their performance of English vowel pronunciation. The Scheffe test findings indicated that the mean scores of the vowel production performance were significantly different for all participants across their proficiency levels, $P < 0.05$. The results, as seen in Table 5, showed significant differences among the three proficiency levels as the significant levels were less than 0.05 ($P < 0.05$).

TABLE 5
THE MEAN DIFFERENCE AMONG LEARNERS' LEVELS BASED ON SCHEFFE TEST RESULTS

(I) Levels	(J) Levels	mean difference [I-J]	Sig.
Beginners	Int. level	-0.9457*	0.013
	Adv. level	-0.23650*	0.000
Intermediate	Big. level	0.9457*	0.013
	Adv. level	0.14193*	0.001
Advanced	Big. level	-0.23650*	0.000
	Adv. level	0.14193*	0.001

C. Participants' Production of BrE Vowels

(a). Production of BrE Short Vowels

Table 6 below shows that the short vowel /e/ was found to be the most difficult in pronunciation for Yemeni learners across the three proficiency levels as it was pronounced with the lowest rates of correct productions (11.5%, 16% & 21.7%). Moreover, Yemeni learners produced the short vowel /ɒ/ with a moderate rate of the correct production (62%), showing that they pronounced this English sound better than /ʊ/ (54.8%). By contrast, the production of the short vowel /ɪ/ was determined to be the simplest for learners at the beginner and intermediate levels (64.1%, 84%), and /æ/ was the simplest for those at the advanced level (95.8%).

TABLE 6
THE ACCURATE PRODUCTIONS OF SHORT VOWELS OF BRE

Vowel	Beginners	Intermediate	Advanced	Total	
	M%	M%	M%	M%	SD
ɪ	64.1	84.0	79.2	75.8	.292
e	11.5	16.0	37.5	21.7	.254
æ	47.4	73.3	95.8	72.2	.338
ʌ	52.6	64.0	81.3	66.0	.300
ɒ	62.8	58.7	64.6	62.0	.280
ʊ	43.6	52.0	68.6	54.8	.273

M= mean

(b). Production of the BrE Long Vowels

Table 7 below shows the accuracy rates of the long vowels as produced by Yemeni learners across their three levels. It appeared that English long vowels were easier to produce than short vowels. The long vowels that were either easy or difficult to pronounce for beginners appeared to be the same vowels that were either difficult or easy to pronounce for intermediate or advanced learners. For Example, /i:/ and /ɑ:/ were produced with the highest rates of the correct productions. This means that these two English vowels were the easiest long vowels to pronounce by these two groups. Similarly, /u:/ and /ɔ:/ were found to be the most difficult to produce by these learners.

TABLE 7
THE ACCURATE PRODUCTIONS OF LONG VOWELS OF BRE

Vowel	Beginners	Intermediate	Advanced	Total	
	M%	M%	M%	M%	SD
i:	71.8	81.3	97.9	83.7	.261
ɑ:	78.2	86.7	89.6	84.8	.204
ɜ:	60.3	64.0	91.7	72.0	.274
o:	39.7	57.3	68.8	55.3	.279
u:	47.4	49.3	64.6	53.8	.261

(c). Production of the BrE Diphthongs

Table 8 shows that although the advanced learners performed in producing English diphthongs better than the lower levels, they still had difficulty producing the diphthongs that were difficult for beginners or intermediate learners. For example, the diphthong /eə/ was problematic for beginners, intermediate learners and even for advanced learners. By contrast, the diphthong /ɔɪ/ was easy to produce by all participants. The overall rates of the correct production of English diphthongs ranged between 37.5% (/eə/) and 86.8% (/ɔɪ/), indicating the diphthong /eə/ is the most problematic diphthong in production and /ɔɪ/ was found the easiest segment at all learners' levels.

TABLE 8
THE ACCURATE PRODUCTION OF BrE DIPHTHONGS

Vowel	Beginners	Intermediate	Advanced	Total	
	M %	M %	M %	M%	SD
eɪ	30.8	57.3	85.4	57.8	.414
aɪ	56.4	65.3	97.9	73.2	.370
ɔɪ	71.8	90.7	97.9	86.8	.254
aʊ	52.6	64.0	66.7	61.1	.176
əʊ	43.6	60	52.1	51.9	.261
eə	33.3	29.3	50.0	37.5	.303
ɪə	64.1	56.0	77.1	65.7	.292
ʊə	75.6	81.3	79.2	78.7	.230

IV. DISCUSSION

To find out the most difficult BrE vowels produced by Yemeni learners of EFL, the rates of the correct production of these English sounds were ranked from the lowest to the highest. The results of the production test indicated that Yemeni learners had difficulty in producing the vowels of the BrE correctly. The learners' production of the BrE vowels, however, differed significantly across their proficiency levels, in which their performance improves and develops as their levels grow. Additionally, learners at all levels encountered difficulty in producing the same vowels (/e/, /ɒ/, /eə/, /ɔ:/, /ʊ/ & /u:/). These sounds were challenging for the learners because they have subtle differences with other vowels (particularly with their close vowels, neighbors or contrasts). Thus, the production difficulties might be attributed to the closeness and similarity existing among these English vowels (e.g., /eə/ as /ɪə/ and vice versa as in fare-fear; /e/ as /ɪ/ as in bet-bit and vice versa).

The findings of the current study support Al-Homaidhi's (2015) findings, in which Saudi female students could not produce the BrE vowels with high accuracy rates; they only achieved 56.6% of the accurate production performance for the beginning learners and 56.9% for advanced students. Al-Homaidhi's (2015) learners' accurate vowel production performance was worse than their accurate vowel perception performance and this is not in line with the results of the present investigation and many previous studies (e.g., Evans & Alshangiti, 2018; Flege et al., 1997, 2004; Ho, 2009; Percell et al., 2004; Rauber, 2010). Similarly, in Tajeldin Ali's (2011) study, Sudanese learners of English showed lower intelligibility scores; they overall correctly scored no more than 69.2% of vowel production accuracy.

Concerning the most problematic English vowels for Yemeni learners and EFL or ESL learners of different L1 backgrounds in the previous studies, it is noticed that the vowel production results of the current study support many findings obtained in the literature (e.g., Al-Homaidhi, 2015; Evans & Alshangiti, 2018; Ho, 2009; Munro & Derwing, 2008; Nikolova-Simic, 2010). It was observed that many English vowels which were found difficult to produce by EFL /ESL learners in many previous studies were also found difficult to produce by Yemeni EFL learners. For example, the vowel /e/ which was the most difficult sound to produce by Yemeni learners at all levels was also found problematic to pronounce properly by Taiwanese EFL learners as it was mapped to their L1 /eɪ/. For Mandarin speakers of English, the vowel /e/ was also among the less intelligible vowels and did not show much improvement over time. (Ho, 2009; Munro & Derwing, 2008).

The learners' production difficulty of BrE vowels, according to the questionnaire findings, may refer to various factors, e.g., teaching aids, testing learners' vowel production accuracy & repetition exercises. According to the data reported in the questionnaire, very few number of the learners who stated that their English instructors always use the teaching tools such as labs and records (6%, n= 4). This indicates that a lot of English teachers in Yemen may often neglect using the teaching aids that help their EFL learners to improve their pronunciation of English vowels. Similarly, a very small number of Yemeni learners (6%, n=4) reported that their English teachers often tested their production accuracy of English vowels and provided them with immediate feedback to know how correctly each vowel of English is pronounced. This also indicates that Yemeni EFL teachers do not usually pay more attention to evaluate whether or not their English learners are able to produce these English sounds accurately. Further, many Yemeni learners reported that their English teachers rarely used the repetition exercise (31.4%, n=21) when teaching these English sounds. Other factors that may affect the acquisition of English vowels by EFL learners include the complicated vowel inventory system of English, transfer, closeness of English vowels, the effect of L1, similarities and differences between L1 and L2, age, type of instruction, training, English experience, activities learners try to improve their English, etc.

With regard to whether or not the claims of CAH and SLM are true regarding the English vowel production by Yemeni EFL learners, it was found that some findings obtained from the vowel production test support such claims of

SLM, but not the CAH. More specifically, it was found that the vowel /ɔɪ /, for example, which is different from learners' L1 vowels (Arabic), was the easiest English vowel to produce by Yemeni learners. This result does not support the CAH hypothesis which claimed that the L2 speech sounds will be difficult to acquire when they are different from those sounds of learners' L1. However, this finding is in line with Flege's (1995) SLM as the vowel /ɔɪ/ is not similar to Arabic vowels. Thus, according to Flege's (1995) SLM, L2 learners will acquire the new or different speech sounds better than those sounds which are similar to those sounds of their native language (Flege, 1995). To conclude, the claims proposed by L2 speech sounds hypotheses and models are not always true because no one of these hypotheses and models is completely accurate regarding the productions of English vowels by Yemeni EFL learners.

V. CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The current study sought to explore how difficult the BrE vowels are for Yemeni EFL learners at different proficiency levels. Results of both the production test and questionnaire showed that Yemeni EFL learners had a difficulty in producing the BrE vowels. The participants did not correctly produce most BrE vowel sounds with high ratings of accurate productions. Learners at the three levels were found significantly different in producing the BrE vowels, in which their performance improves and develops as their levels grow. Thus, there is a gradual development in learners' performance across their English proficiency levels in terms of English vowel production. Additionally, some of the BrE vowels were found to be difficult for Yemeni EFL learners at all levels.

The current study has two limitations. First, it was only limited to evaluating the extent to which Yemeni learners of EFL are able to pronounce the BrE vowels; it was not concerned with examining the learners' L1 influence on their production of vowels. In this analysis, the participants were from different regions and they might have different dialects. Thus, it is impossible to examine the effect of different dialects on the production of the BrE vowels as investigating such a topic requires a great deal of preliminary research. Another limitation is related to the approach by which the vowel production is evaluated (native listeners' judgments). Since the researcher has conducted the research in a foreign country (Yemen), it was hard to find more than a native English speaker, born and grew up in the UK, to rate the participants' productions of English vowels. However, using three items on each vowel of BrE examined through the production test might reduce the subjectivity of ratings to a minimum.

Based on the findings of this study, some directions for future research are suggested. First, further comparative research replicating the research methodology is needed to compare the accuracy of English vowel production by EFL learners vs. native English learners. Such future work might find out the extent to which the English vowel production performance of EFL learners differs from the English vowel production of the native English speakers. Second, this study explored the problematic English vowels that were mispronounced by Yemeni EFL learners. Accordingly, more in-depth research is needed to investigate the sources of mispronunciations (errors) Yemeni EFL learners make when producing BrE vowels. In other words, further research is needed to examine the possible factors that might affect the English vowel pronunciation of EFL learners, and that lead to difficulties acquiring these types of English sounds by these types of English learners. Third, since the present study was limited to participants from one college of language, further research could replicate the research methodology including different types of learners from different colleges of different universities in Yemen in order to get a more complete picture of BrE vowel perceptions and productions by these EFL learners. Finally, as this study focused on how BrE vowels are pronounced by Yemeni male learners, a further investigation could replicate the current study to examine female EFL learners' productions of these English sounds. Such an investigation may help find out the effect of gender in acquiring L2 sounds.

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Polysemous Verbs *Break*, *Run*, and *Draw* Within Prototype Theory From the Perspective of Saudi Learners of English

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Abstract—This paper attempts to explore the nature of polysemous verbs using a cognitive linguistic framework from the perspective of second-language (L2) users: specifically, English as a foreign language (EFL) students in a Saudi Arabian university context. Drawing on Pulman (1983), this analysis examines multiple senses of the verbs *break*, *run*, and *draw* using prototype theory and seeks to identify any semantic patterns in the priority accorded to the polysemous senses attached to each verb by the learner. A questionnaire with sentences as placeholders embodying different senses of each verb and a 4-point goodness-of-fit scale were prepared. The results of this study show that non-native learners of English (EFL learners) are aware that there is a semantic network of meanings for polysemous verbs, and that these meanings exist on a continuum from more central (about three to four senses for each verb, which could be considered core/generic meanings) to more peripheral (between one to three senses, which could be considered more specific meanings). Correlation analyses between learners' perceptions of a verb's polysemy and vocabulary size and years of learning English were performed, yielding few positive relationships, and those only weakly significant.

Index Terms—polysemy, prototype, cognitive linguistics, semantic networks, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Basile (2021) writes that polysemy is 'a phenomenon that is central to the description of how languages function' (p. 96). Polysemy is common in a language (e.g., Basile, 2021; Verspoor & Lowie, 2003), and the notion of polysemy has attracted much attention. It is a pivotal issue in linguistics, both theoretically and empirically, and linguists have explored the mental representation of lexical items, lexis access, and the storage of multiple senses in the human mind (Chen & Wang, 2020). Prototype theory is often associated with polysemy. However, most research using this theory has been concerned with nouns, adjectives, and prepositions, whilst prototypicality in polysemous verbs is under-researched (Stamenković & Tasić, 2013). Yet verbs play a central role in language processing (Viberg, 2002; Tanehaus et al., 1993). Gentner (1981, 1982), for instance, found that verbs make more cognitive demands than nouns during language processing, as verbs are harder to retrieve from memory and have greater breadth of meaning than nouns. For example, the 20 most common verbs in English have an average of 12.4 word senses each, and children acquire verbs more slowly than nouns (Gentner, 1982). L2 learners translate the meanings of verbs and try to find equivalents in their own language; this can be an unstable process that results in persistent usage errors with polysemous verbs (Gentner, 1982).

According to Bensoussan and Laufer (1984), even proficient foreign-language learners with a large vocabulary size find it difficult to guess the meanings of polysemous words from the context, and lexical guessing strategies often result in inaccurate guesses for polysemes. Schmitt (1998) asked participants to explain all the meanings they knew for a given word (definitions, examples, diagrams, sentences, and prompts were provided to illustrate polysemous meanings) and found that even advanced learners rarely knew all the senses of polysemous words; the study concludes that learning all the meanings of a word is a slow process. However, both teachers and researchers, such as Touplikioti (2007), Makni (2014), Verspoor and Lowie (2003), and Akamatsu (2010), have drawn on insights from cognitive linguistics to help EFL learners become aware of the mechanisms underlying the meaning extensions of polysemous words and to acquire the various senses of polysemous words as a closely interconnected set. Hence, there is a need for more research on polysemous verbs and perhaps their prototypicality in an EFL context; these are the goals of this study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section describes the study's theoretical framework and previous related studies.

A. Polysemy

Hurford and Heasley (1983) define a polyseme as 'a word [that] has several very closely related senses' (p. 123).

Mojela (1991, as cited in Mojela, 2007, p. 436) describes polysemy as when ‘one word may have a set of more than one different but related meanings’. According to Taylor (1995), ‘polysemy is the association of two or more related senses with a single linguistic form’ (p. 99). And as Cruse (2006) points out, these related meanings ‘must be felt by native speakers to be related in some way’ (p. 133). As illustrated by Chen and Wang (2020), the English verb *get* spans various related senses. For example, one of its meanings, ‘to obtain’, means to move objects toward the prospective possessor, as in *get it*. It also means ‘to move’, that is, to move objects away from a location or possessor, as in *get out*. Basile (2021) mentions that the more common words in a language are more likely to be polysemous; their meanings vary depending on the context of use. Basile (2021) argues that polysemy is ‘a semiotic necessity’ (p. 97) due to both linguistic economy (a principle preventing every single lexical item from being associated with a single, specific meaning, which might be impossible in a natural language) and the limitations of human memory. Polysemy perfectly meets the functional needs of speakers; effective communication requires only a few thousand words (Basile, 2021).

However, as mentioned in the polysemy literature, it poses ‘a lexicographic challenge’ (Mojela, 2007, p. 436). Mojela (2007) highlights the difficulty of distinguishing polysemes from homonyms, which are ‘roughly two or more words having the same pronunciation and/or spelling, but different in meaning’ (Leech, 1981, p. 228). Homonyms have separate dictionary entries, whilst polysemes are entered in dictionaries as single lexical items with multiple definitions (Mojela, 2007; Saeed, 1997; Taylor, 1995). Researchers (e.g., Mojela, 2007; Saeed, 1997; Taylor, 1995) argue that distinguishing polysemous words from homonyms is both complex and subjective. However, Basile (2021) highlights the positive aspects of linguistic ‘vagueness’, ‘indeterminacy of meanings’, and the emergence of new meanings, as these shifts allow the boundaries of a lexical category to grow and change (p. 97).

B. Polysemy in Cognitive Linguistics

Historically, classical semantics have favoured the single-meaning approach (‘one form, one meaning’) (Nerlich & Clarke, 2003, p. 4). According to this approach, polysemy leads to redundant cognitive representations in the minds of language users (Croft, 1998). However, in the field of cognitive linguistics, which emerged in the 1980s, and specifically the sub-branch of cognitive semantics (Evans, 2007), polysemy is ‘natural’ and ‘ubiquitous’ in language use (Saeed, 1997; Lakoff, 1987). In this view, polysemous words have core or basic meanings, and their peripheral senses extend naturally from these core meanings (Lakoff, 1987; Evans & Green, 2006).

Drawing on Deane (1988) and Cuyckens and Zawada (1997), Basile (2021) argues that words do not accumulate various meanings arbitrarily; rather, the development of polysemy follows certain paths or patterns which are natural to language users’ cognition, and the semantic structures of these words determine speakers’ acquisition and language. Further, the process of interpreting polysemy commences from the speaker’s cognitive context when it involves a communicative language use situation as well as from their encyclopaedic knowledge, and their implicit shared knowledge (Basile, 2021). Hence, if polysemy corresponds to the structures of human cognition, polysemy can provide crucial information about basic mental processes. According to this approach, the meanings of polysemous words are motivated in part by metaphor and metonymy, which are based on speakers’ experiences, and polysemy can be explained using basic conceptual and cultural metaphors (Norrick, 1981). Johnson (1987) also uses the transformation of image schema (a powerful process that helps to capture multiple meanings of a given word) and metaphor and metonymy (the figurative/ peripheral senses of words) to illustrate how polysemous meanings extend from the initial core or prototypical meanings. Later, prototype theory in cognitive semantics was developed to explain polysemy (Taylor, 1995; Evans, 2007; Gries, 2015).

C. Prototype Theory

A number of early experiments on categorization in cognitive psychology were conducted in the United States (e.g., Labov, 1973; Kempton, 1981; Rosch, 1975). Rosch was the pioneer of prototype theory (Taylor, 1995), and her ideas still influence research on prototypicality today (Stamenković & Tasić, 2013). Rosch explored the content and structure of mental representations of semantic categories. She asked university students who were native speakers of English to rate how closely a given sub-category matched a target category (e.g., furniture, clothing, toys) using a 7-point goodness-of-fit scale (1 = the item is a very good example of the category; 7 = the example fits the semantic category very poorly; 4 = the example fits the category moderately well). Her experiments affirmed that natural (e.g., fruit) and nominal (e.g., furniture) semantic categories have no clear-cut boundaries, words have internal structure, and that there are degrees of centrality and periphery within categories. Rosch also proved that ‘degree of membership in a category ... is in fact a psychologically very real notion’ (Taylor, 1995, p. 43).

D. Prototype and Verbs

Relatively few studies have examined prototype and polysemous verbs. However, in one early study similar to those by Rosch, Pulman (1983) asked 20 participants to rate verb prototypicality using a 7-point scale. This study found that, as Rosch found with nouns, aspects of verb meanings can be more or less prototypical and more or less dominant. Pulman investigated the verbs *kill*, *speak*, *look*, *walk*, *deceive*, *rub*, *hold*, and *burn*. He also proposed a verb taxonomy for studying the semantic patterns of these verbs: 0 = unique beginners (e.g., do); 1 = life form (e.g., cause); 2 = generic level (e.g., kill); 3 = specific level (e.g., assassinate). He found that the first two levels were difficult to determine but kept the last two levels in his taxonomy. In his study, Pulman selected six senses (or *category members* or *hyponyms*, as

he calls them) that are associated with the generic meaning of a verb. For example, for *walk*, there are, in order from most to least prototypical, *stride, pace, saunter, march, stumble, and limp*. Pulman also attempted to measure family resemblances (features that category members do or do not share), but this was more difficult to apply to verbs than to nouns.

Drawing on Pulman’s work, Stamenković and Tasić (2013) examined verbs of motion (following Levin, 1993), especially those denoting natural human movement. They asked 45 native speakers of English to take two tests. The first test used direct grading with an inverted 7-point scale; participants were asked to rate the relevance of given verbs to their everyday experiences (1 = the verb is absolutely irrelevant; 7 = the verb is exceptionally relevant). In the second, a free association test, participants were asked to recall as many verbs as possible in three minutes. Later, a corpus-frequency test based on the Corpus of American English (COCA) was conducted, Stamenković and Tasić (2013) then listed 35 verbs of motion in order from central to peripheral. They found that, in general, generic verbs such as *go, walk, run, arrive, jump, and leave* were at the top of the list, as these verbs are more central and thus more prototypical. More specific verbs, such as *strut, stagger, wade, or wander*, appear lower down on the list, as verbs which are more specific or more difficult to describe or define are less prototypical. They also concluded that the number of semantic features increases as verbs move down the list.

To conclude, despite some inconsistencies in methodology and verb selection and their categories in previous research, cognitive linguistic approaches and prototype theory make it possible to observe polysemy in verbs. Cognitive linguists have also analysed prototypicality in polysemous verbs in languages other than English, including Mandarin Chinese (Chen & Wang, 2020), Swedish (Viberg, 2002), and Spanish (Vicente, 2019). However, little research has been done on polysemous verbs within the prototype approach in an EFL context. Therefore, it might be useful to look at these concepts from the perspective of non-native speakers of English.

This study will look at the verbs *break, run, and draw* (following Levin, 1993). These verbs belong to three different verb classes: change of state, manner of motion, and image creation, respectively). All three verbs are associated with multiple senses; in this study, each has ten dictionary definitions (not all the senses may be present, however). Based on the literature, the various definitions for each verb are members of a single category (word) and form a continuum, with more typical features on one end and less typical ones on the other.

The present study thus addresses three research questions (RQs):

- RQ1: What meanings do EFL learners in a Saudi Arabian University context perceive as more typical for the polysemous verbs *break, run, and draw*?
- RQ2: What meanings do EFL learners in a Saudi Arabian University context perceive as less typical for the polysemous verbs *break, run, and draw*?
- RQ3: Is there a relationship between EFL learners’ vocabulary size, years of learning English, and their perceptions of polysemous senses?

III. METHODOLOGY

To answer the research questions, a questionnaire was constructed on an online platform (Google Forms) (see Appendix A). The questionnaire addresses the meanings of three English polysemous verbs (*break, run, and draw*). These verbs were selected from Levin (1993) and because they all have at least ten interrelated definitions, and are commonly used, they are included in the New General Service List (NGSL) (Browne et al., 2013). For each verb, the questionnaire lists ten example sentences that draw on ten of the verb’s possible senses. Senses and example sentences were extracted (and slightly modified) from the following online dictionaries: *Cambridge, Merriam-Webster, Collins, and Macmillan*. I opted to use the top ten meanings for each verb listed in these dictionaries; more than ten might overburden the participants. The senses and example sentences for these verbs are shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3. (The definitions or senses are listed here in the order that they usually appear in the dictionaries, although the dictionaries sometimes list the definitions in slightly different orders.) Participants were asked to rank the sentences with the following prompt: ‘Suppose you wanted to use example sentences to explain the meanings of the verbs *draw, run, and break* to someone who does not understand English very well. How would you rank the following sentences for this purpose: poor, not so good, good, or excellent?’

TABLE 1
SENTENCES AND SENSES OF THE POLYSEMIOUS VERB *BREAK*

Example sentence	Sense
The dish fell to the floor and broke.	To separate into pieces.
Sarah broke her leg.	To damage a bone in the body.
He did not know he was breaking the law.	To fail to obey a rule or fail to keep a promise.
Do not use the cream on broken skin.	To make a hole or to cut.
They tried to break his will.	To destroy someone’s confidence.
It was the local newspaper that first broke the story.	To release a piece of news before other sources do.
We usually break for lunch at 12.30 p.m.	To stop for a short time.
Outside workers broke the strike.	To make something end.
We arrived as a storm was breaking.	To change (describing the weather).
His voice broke when he was 13.	To become deeper (a young man’s voice).

TABLE 2
SENTENCES AND SENSES OF THE POLYSEMOUS VERB *RUN*

Example sentence	Sense
He can run very fast.	To move quickly using one's legs.
She ran her restaurant for five years.	To organize/be in charge of.
The engine is running more smoothly now.	To operate a computer/engine.
Tears ran down her face.	To flow (describing the movement of a liquid).
How long did the film run for?	To be shown on TV or in the newspaper.
John offered to run me into town.	To take somebody in a car.
You could run the cable behind the desk.	To put something, such as a wire, behind something else.
The buses only run until 11 p.m.	To travel on schedule (e.g., buses/trains).
He laughed and ran his fingers through his hair.	To move/rub something along something else.
John announced his intention to run for president.	To try to be elected.

TABLE 3
SENTENCES AND SENSES OF THE POLYSEMOUS VERB *DRAW*

Example sentence	Sense
She drew a picture of a tree.	To make a picture.
He is an excellent speaker who always draws a crowd.	To attract someone to a place/a person.
The train drew into the station.	To move somewhere slowly.
He took her hand and drew her towards him.	To pull something/someone in a particular direction.
We think she wears those strange clothes to draw attention to herself.	To direct attention towards someone/something.
She drew the curtains.	To close (the curtains).
Our advisors have been drawn from a wide range of experts.	To choose or include someone/something.
He has to draw a conclusion after reading the article.	To reach a conclusion.
She drew inspiration for her stories from her childhood.	To get information from someone or something.
England drew 2–2 against Italy.	To end a game in a tie.

In addition to the questionnaire, participants were asked to complete an online test measuring the size of their vocabulary. *The Vocabulary Size Test* (VST) (Nation & Beglar, 2007; <https://my.vocabularysize.com/>) was used. This test does not give a total score; rather, it indicates the level of a learner's vocabulary based on its size. The VST was developed to reliably, accurately, and comprehensively measure the size of learners' receptive vocabulary, in the first to the fourteenth 1000-word families, that is, how many words a learner knows in English (Nation & Beglar, 2007). The VST has 140 items and takes approximately 40 minutes to complete.

The participants completed the test first and then the survey at home (a link was sent to them via their university's Blackboard Learn). Participants are also students in my classes and were briefly informed about the survey and test during class. They were asked not to check the polysemous meanings of the targeted verbs in dictionaries, and not during the test, to ensure that their responses reflected their general knowledge of English. The data gathered via the questionnaire were then statistically analysed, using IBM SPSS (version 20).

Participants are 52 Saudi female students in the Department of English Language and Translation at Qassim University. They are all non-native speakers of English; all are native speakers of Arabic. These students are in the early stages of the English Language and Translation Programme and have only completed the department entry modules, including courses on language skills and a general linguistics and translation course. They have not been introduced to prototype or polysemy theories, nor were they given any information about the meanings of the target verbs before the experiment. All participants gave informed consent to participate.

There were a total of 52 respondents in the study. Table 4 presents descriptive statistics: the mean age of the students is 21 years, while the youngest student in the study is 19 years old and the oldest is 28. The vocabulary test results were reported in the survey as participants were instructed to enter them, the highest test result is 21,300 while the lowest is 630, with a mean of 7,635. However, most of the students' vocabulary results lie within the range of 4,000 to 10,000, with 37 out of 52 results within that range. Average year of study is four (many students entered their current levels in the programme, rather than their academic year, which means that they are, in general, in their second academic year), and average years of learning English is five.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF RESPONDENTS' DEMOGRAPHY

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Age	19	28	21.25	1.65
Vocabulary size test result	630	21300	7635.19	3671.88
Academic year of study	1	15	4.35	3.21
Years of learning English	1	15	5.34	3.16

To answer RQ1 and RQ2, frequency analysis was used, which looks at the number of times a certain letter, word, or phrase appears in a text or speech, and can be used to identify patterns or establish trends in a data set (Koduru et al., 2020); it can also be used to compare different texts or speech samples to look for similarities and differences between them (Gallagher et al., 2021). To answer RQ3, correlation analysis was performed. Kendall Tau-b correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the variables *vocabulary size test*, *years of learning English*,

and learners' perceptions of the senses of the polysemous verbs 'break', 'run', and 'draw'. Kendall's Tau-b is a non-parametric measure of strength and direction of association existing between two variables measured on at least an ordinal scale (Palikhe & Adhikari, 2020). It is considered a non-parametric alternative to Pearson's product-moment correlation when the data have failed one or more the assumptions of the test (Palikhe & Adhikari, 2020). Kendall's Tau-b correlation coefficient "τ" varies over a range of +1 to 0 to -1. The +/- sign signifies the direction of the relationship. In terms of the strength of the relationship, if the correlation value is close to 1, the relationship is strong; if it is close to 0, it is a weak relationship; while if there is no relationship, the coefficient will be approximately equal to zero (Bakar & Rosbi, 2017). This test is appropriate because one of the variables in the correlation is ordinal, while the other variables are continuous; this informs the application of Kendall's Tau-b correlation co-efficient.

IV. RESULTS

RQ1. What meanings do EFL learners in a Saudi Arabian university context perceive as more typical for the polysemous verbs *break*, *run*, and *draw*?

Results of the frequency analyses of the students' perceptions of senses for the polysemous verb 'break', as presented in Table 5, showed that 'to damage a bone in the body' (100%) is a perfect typical sense for 'break', while 'to fail to obey a rule or fail to keep a promise' and 'to separate into pieces' are the next most typical senses for 'break' with 98.1% and 88.5% students' perception, respectively.

TABLE 5
SENSES THAT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH PERCEIVE AS MORE TYPICAL FOR BREAK

Sense	Frequency	Frequency %
To damage a bone in the body.	52	100
To fail to obey a rule or fail to keep a promise.	51	98.1
To separate into pieces.	46	88.5
To stop for a short time.	36	69.3
To destroy someone's confidence.	35	67.3
To release a piece of news before other sources do.	26	50
To change (describing the weather).	21	40.3
To make something end.	19	43.6
To become deeper (a young man's voice).	17	32.7
To make a hole or to cut.	17	32.7

Table 6 shows that 'to move quickly using one's legs' (98%) and 'to organize/be in charge of' (96%) are perceived to be the most typical senses of the verb 'run'. 'To flow (describing the movement of a liquid)' and 'to operate (e.g., a computer/engine)' are the next most typical senses for run at 78.8% and 75%, respectively.

TABLE 6
SENSES THAT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH PERCEIVE AS MORE TYPICAL FOR RUN

Sense	Frequency	Frequency %
To move quickly using one's legs.	51	98.1
To organize/be in charge of.	50	96.2
To flow (describing the movement of a liquid).	41	78.8
To operate (e.g., a computer/engine).	39	75.0
To try to be elected.	29	55.8
To travel on schedule (e.g., buses/trains).	29	55.7
To move/rub something along something else.	25	48.1
To be shown on TV or in the newspaper.	33	44.3
To put something, such as a wire, behind something else.	22	42.3
To take somebody in a car.	15	28.8

Regarding the perceptions of the students for the most typical senses for 'draw', as presented in Table 7, 'to make a picture' (96.1%) is the most typical sense, while 'to direct attention towards someone/something' (85%) and 'to get information from someone or something' (79%) are the next most typical senses for it.

TABLE 7
SENSES THAT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH PERCEIVE AS MORE TYPICAL FOR DRAW

Sense	Frequency	Frequency %
To make a picture.	50	96.1
To direct attention towards someone/something.	44	84.6
To get information from someone or something.	41	78.9
To close (the curtains).	37	71.2
To reach a conclusion.	37	71.2
To attract someone to a place/a person.	36	69.2
To pull something/someone in a particular direction.	25	53.8
To end a game in a tie.	30	57.7
To choose or include someone/something.	27	51.9
To move somewhere slowly.	14	26.9

RQ2. What meanings do EFL learners in a Saudi Arabian university context perceive as less typical for the polysemous verbs *break*, *run*, and *draw*?

Table 8 shows that the senses that the participants perceived as less typical for ‘*break*’ are ‘*to make a hole or to cut*’ (65.4%), ‘*to become deeper (a young man’s voice)*’ (53.4%), and ‘*to make something end*’ (61.6%).

TABLE 8
SENSES THAT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH PERCEIVE AS LESS TYPICAL FOR *BREAK*

Sense	Frequency	Frequency %
To make a hole or to cut.	34	65.4
To become deeper (a young man’s voice).	33	63.4
To make something end.	32	61.6
To change (describing the weather).	31	59.7
To release a piece of news before other sources do.	24	46.1
To stop for a short time.	16	30.8
To destroy someone’s confidence.	16	30.8
To separate into pieces.	6	7.6
To damage a bone in the body.	0	0
To fail to obey a rule or fail to keep a promise.	0	0

Table 9 shows that the senses perceived as less typical for ‘*run*’ are ‘*to take somebody in a car*’ (71.2%), while other senses such ‘*to put something, such as a wire, behind something else*’ (57.7%) and ‘*to be shown on TV or in the newspaper*’, (53.9%) are perceived as on average less typical for ‘*run*’.

TABLE 9
SENSES THAT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH PERCEIVE AS LESS TYPICAL FOR *RUN*

Sense	Frequency	Frequency %
To take somebody in a car.	37	71.2
To put something, such as a wire, behind something else.	30	57.7
To be shown on TV or in the newspaper.	28	53.9
To move/rub something along something else.	26	50
To try to be elected.	21	40.4
To travel on a schedule (e.g., buses/trains).	22	34.6
To operate (e.g., a computer/engine).	11	21.1
To flow (describing the movement of a liquid).	11	21.1
To organize/be in charge of.	1	2
To move quickly using one’s legs.	0	0

The frequency analysis of the senses learners perceive to be less typical for ‘*draw*’, shown in Table 10, revealed that ‘*to move somewhere slowly*’ (71.2%) is the least typical sense from the students’ perspective.

TABLE 10
SENSES THAT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH PERCEIVE AS LESS TYPICAL FOR *DRAW*

Sense	Frequency	Frequency %
To move somewhere slowly.	37	71.2
To choose or include someone/something.	24	46.2
To pull something/someone in a particular direction.	23	44.2
To end a game in a tie.	22	42.8
To close (the curtains).	15	28.8
To reach a conclusion.	14	26.9
To attract someone to a place/a person.	14	26.9
To get information from someone or something.	10	19.2
To direct attention towards someone/something.	10	19.2
To make a picture.	3	5.7

RQ3. Is there a relationship between EFL learners’ vocabulary size, years of learning English, and their perceptions of polysemous senses?

A Kendall Tau-b correlation analysis was performed to determine the association between students’ *vocabulary size test result*, *years of learning English*, and *perceptions of senses* for all the verbs. Table 11 shows that there is a positive weak statistically significant relationship between the vocabulary test results and the senses ‘*to change (describing the weather)*’ ($r = 0.33, p = 0.000$) and ‘*to release a piece of news before other sources do*’ ($r = 0.32, p = 0.000$). This indicates that an increase in vocabulary test results will yield a consequent increase in the perceptions of these senses for ‘*break*’. While years of learning English is positively and significantly associated with the sense ‘*to separate into pieces*’ ($r = 0.25, p = .000$) and ‘*to fail to obey a rule or fail to keep a promise*’ ($r = .38, p = .000$), and negatively associated with the sense ‘*to destroy someone’s confidence*’, implying that an increase in years of learning English yields less perception of this sense for ‘*break*’ ($r = -0.24, p = 0.000$).

TABLE 11
CORRELATION BETWEEN VOCABULARY SIZE, YEARS OF LEARNING ENGLISH, AND SENSES FOR *BREAK*

Sense	Vocabulary Result	Size	Years learning English
To separate into pieces.	-.03		.25*
To stop for a short time.	.03		.13
To change (describing the weather).	.33**		-.05
To fail to obey a rule or fail to keep a promise.	.02		.38**
To make something end.	.05		-.18
To destroy someone's confidence.	.07		-.24*
To damage a bone in the body.	.03		.11
To become deeper (a young man's voice).	.03		-.18
To release a piece of news before other sources do.	.32**		.01
To make a hole or to cut.	.01		-.01

*Significant at $p < .05$, ** Significant at $p < .01$

Regarding 'run', Table 12 shows that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between the vocabulary test results and the senses 'to move/rub something along something else' ($r = 0.29$, $p = 0.000$), and 'to try to be elected' ($r = 0.27$, $p = 0.000$). This indicates that an increase in vocabulary test results will yield a consequent increase in the perceptions of these senses for the verb 'run'. While years of learning English is significantly but negatively, associated with the sense 'to put something such as a wire behind something else', implying that an increase in years of learning English will yield less perception of this sense for 'run' ($r = -0.26$, $p = 0.000$), while a decrease in years of learning English will yield an increase in the perception of the sense 'to put something such as a wire behind something else' for 'run'.

TABLE 12
CORRELATION BETWEEN VOCABULARY SIZE, YEARS OF LEARNING ENGLISH, AND SENSES FOR *RUN*

Sense	Vocabulary Result	Size	Years learning English
To move quickly using one's legs.	-.14		.19
To organize/be in charge.	-.01		.14
To travel on a schedule.	.16		-.16
To flow (describing the movement of liquid).	.15		-.07
To operate (e.g., a computer/engine).	.15		-.06
To put something such as a wire behind something else.	.15		-.26*
To move/rub something along something else.	.29**		-.06
To be shown on TV or in newspaper.	-.01		.03
To try to be elected.	.27*		.07
To take somebody in a car	.09		-.04

*Significant at $p < .05$, ** Significant at $p < .01$

As for *draw*, Table 13 shows that the vocabulary test results do not have any relationship or association with any of the senses. While years of learning English is positively and significantly associated with the sense 'to end a game in a tie' ($r = 0.31$, $p = .000$) and 'to make a picture' ($r = .26$, $p = .000$), but negatively associated with the sense 'to pull something/someone in a particular direction', implying that an increase in years of learning English will yield less perception of this sense for 'draw' ($r = -0.24$, $p = 0.000$).

TABLE 13
CORRELATION BETWEEN VOCABULARY SIZE, YEARS OF LEARNING ENGLISH, AND SENSES FOR *DRAW*

Sense	Vocabulary Result	Size	Years learning English
To move somewhere slowly.	.09		.01
To end a game in a tie.	-.08		.31**
To close (the curtains).	-.12		-.05
To make a picture.	-.02		.26**
To choose or include someone/something.	-.03		-.17
To attract someone to a place/a person.	-.03		.02
To reach a conclusion.	.06		.07
To pull something/someone in a particular direction.	.10		-.24*
To get information from someone or something.	-.16		.02
To direct attention towards someone/something.	.01		.03

*Significant at $p < .05$, ** Significant at $p < .01$

V. DISCUSSION

In general, these findings seem to be consistent with Stamenković and Tasić's (2013) and Pulman's (1983) studies (despite the fact that they grade verbs in their studies with other additional individual synonym verbs, and do so in isolation without presenting them in sentences: e.g. *kill – murder, assassinate*). Similarly, generic meanings of verbs as

they appear in the sentences in this study, such as (*Sarah broke her leg*), (*He did not know he was breaking the law*), and (*The dish fell to the floor and broke*) for *break*; (*He can run very fast*), (*She ran her restaurant for five years*), (*Tears ran down her face*), and (*The engine is running more smoothly now*) for *run*; and (*She drew a picture of a tree*), (*We think she wears those strange clothes to draw attention to herself*), and (*She drew inspiration for her stories from her childhood*) for *draw*, that were closer to the core/central meanings of the verbs, appeared at the top of the list yielded by the frequency analyses. Based on that, it also seems that non-native learners of English have a grasp of three or four top senses for common verbs such as *break*, *run*, and *draw*, since the number of prototypical meanings ranges from three for *break* and *draw* to four for *run*. By contrast, more specific meanings of the verbs tended to be located further down the list, becoming more peripheral, including (*Do not use the cream on broken skin*), (*His voice broke when he was 13*), and (*Outside workers broke the strike*) for *break*. As for *run*, the peripheral meanings consisted of (*John offered to run me into town*), (*You could run the cable behind the desk*), and (*How long did the film run for?*), and (*The train drew into the station*) for *draw*.

This could also be explained by what researchers such as Vicente (2018) have argued: that when the focus is on polysemous verbs, an ‘underspecification’ model assumes that the meaning of a verb is a core meaning, abstract, and underspecified (whether in a literal or a figurative sense) and can extend to other different (although related) senses in play by becoming more specified, and that verbs behave in a way in which their senses relate to the internal argument. Further, and according to Vicente (2018), metaphor-based polysemy should be taken into consideration here, as metaphors generally build on a more literal sense that might later become conventionalized. Hence, participants in this study seemed to rely on the more underspecified senses within a polysemous verb, perceiving them as more prototypical, whether they are literal, such as ‘*to damage a bone in a body*’ and ‘*to separate into pieces*’ for *break*, ‘*to move quickly using one’s legs*’ for *run*, and ‘*to make a picture*’ for *draw*, or conventionalized, figurative senses such as ‘*to fail to obey a rule/keep a promise*’ for *break*, ‘*to organize/be in charge of*’, ‘*to flow (describing the movement of a fluid)*’, and ‘*to operate a computer/a program*’ for *run*, and ‘*to direct attention towards someone/something*’ and ‘*to get information from something/someone*’ for *draw*. Notably, during language processing, especially when the meaning of a verb is conventionalized, there is no distinction between the literal and the metaphorical – that is, language users do not have to access a literal meaning first to interpret a metaphorical one, as has been pointed out by Vicente (2018). However, Taylor (1995) has also stated that the literal meanings are generally acquired or learned in childhood or at the outset of learning a language before non-literal ones, and the more frequent occurrence of central meanings than peripheral ones in our communicative language use situations might mentally reinforce their meanings, thus making them more prototypical. Therefore, it could be that the EFL learners here identified those literal and more common meanings as more prototypical.

Using an ‘underspecification’ model (Vicente, 2018), the core, underspecified meanings extend to more specified senses. As applied to this study, more specified senses extending from the core meaning seem to go down the list: such senses are ‘*to make a hole or a cut*’, ‘*to become deeper (a young man’s voice)*’, and ‘*to make something end*’ for *break*; ‘*to take somebody in a car*’, ‘*to put something such as a wire behind something else*’, and ‘*to be shown on TV*’ for *run*; and ‘*to move somewhere slowly*’ for *draw*, which then become more peripheral senses for such polysemous verbs from the perspective of EFL learners and from the perspective of prototype theory. This may be due to the non-literality or metaphoric elucidation needed for these senses that learners might not typically use; for example, in (*His voice broke when he was 13*), it is obvious that one’s voice does not break in the manner of a cup, instead meaning that its pitch deepens. Even though people, during polysemy, may need to use their encyclopaedic knowledge of things and experiences (Basile, 2021) that break to help them comprehend how a voice breaks, it seems that some EFL learners in this study might not be aware of what Ungerer and Schmid (1996, p. xii) refer to as the transferability of ‘experience of the concrete world’ that is essential when interpreting non-literal senses, resulting in their considering them to be more specified meanings and then coming to see them as more peripheral senses of polysemous verbs.

Concerning the correlation between the variables vocabulary size, years of learning English, and polysemy, the statistical analyses revealed that, while there were a few significant relationships between polysemous senses and the other two variables, there were no strongly significant relationships. This seems to be supported by Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) and Schmitt (1998), who found that learners did not know all the meanings associated with a polyseme, regardless of their EFL proficiency level, even advanced learners, so it could be argued that some EFL learners in this study assigned a lower rating (as poor or not very good examples) to those meanings associated with verbs less familiar to them, or it may be that they knew the verb but not some of its particular meanings. This study, however, depended solely on vocabulary size test rather than using alongside it a measurement for L2 language proficiency, which may have blunted detecting significant relationships amongst these three variables (that might be present). A further finding in support of Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) and Schmitt (1998) is the fact that, in this study, there were more negative significant relationships between some senses and years of learning English (which could be related to language proficiency), which, despite the greater number of years of learning English, made EFL learners less able to perceive senses such as ‘*to destroy someone’s confidence*’ in *break*, ‘*to put something such as a wire behind something else*’ in *run*, and ‘*to pull something/someone in a particular direction*’ in *draw*, rating them as poor or not very good examples of polysemous verbs. However, this was not always the case, for increasing years of exposure to learning English also made EFL learners more aware of perhaps the more general senses of a verb as well as some figurative senses.

Regarding the relationship between vocabulary size and polysemy, it was found with certain senses within the verbs *break* and *run*, but not *draw*, that students who scored higher on vocabulary size were more aware of senses that tended to be lower down the list from the frequency analyses: for example, although it was weak, there was a positive statistically significant relationship between the senses ‘*to change* (used to describe the weather)’ and ‘*to release a piece of news before other sources do*’ for the verb *break*; and regarding *run*, there was a positive significant relationship between vocabulary size and the senses ‘*to move/rub something along something else*’ and ‘*to try to be elected*’. This may be supported by some vocabulary studies such as that of Koizumi and In’nami (2020), who reported that vocabulary size strongly correlated with polysemy and word associations for Japanese low–intermediate learners of English; so a larger vocabulary size means knowing more polysemy.

VI. CONCLUSION

In general, this study concludes that the prototype theory approved by researchers such as Rosch (1975), Taylor (1995), and Lakoff (1987) seems to be applicable in the case of non-native speakers of English (EFL learners) rating English polysemous verbs, as it seems clear that participants realized that lexis can take different paths through semantic extensions (e.g., Basile, 2021; Evans, 2007), and that polysemous verbs have some central and peripheral meanings through a network of senses (e.g., Pulman, 1983; Taylor, 1995), despite that previous studies rating the prototypicality of verbs were more concerned with native speakers of English. However, some limitations should be kept in mind. More qualitative methods such as exercises in polysemy and free association tests could be employed to determine whether a learner rated a sense as peripheral in terms of meaning because it really is so or simply because they did not know its meaning; this study did not divide participants according to language proficiency levels and depended solely on vocabulary size and years of learning English to give an indication of it. Further research also needs to study polysemy and homonymy as they are quite closely related concepts in the literature.

APPENDIX. PROTOTYPE QUESTIONNAIRE

Scale: (1) poor; (2) not so good; (3) good; (4) excellent.

Verb ‘draw’

We think she wears those strange clothes to draw attention to herself.

The train drew into the station.

England drew 2-2 against Italy.

She drew the curtains.

She drew a picture of a tree.

Our advisers have been drawn from a wide range of experts.

He’s an excellent speaker who always draws a crowd.

He has to draw a conclusion after reading the article.

He took her hand and drew her towards him.

She drew inspiration for her stories from her childhood.

Verb ‘run’

He can run very fast.

She ran her own restaurant for five years.

The buses only run until 11 p.m.

Tears ran down her face.

The engine is running more smoothly now.

You could run the cable behind the desk.

He laughed and ran his fingers through his hair.

How long did the film run for?

Jackson announced his intention to run for president.

John offered to run me into town.

Verb ‘break’

The dish fell to the floor and broke.

We usually break for lunch at 12.30 p.m.

We arrived just as a storm was breaking.

He did not know he was breaking the law.

Outside workers broke the strike.

They tried to break his will.

Sarah broke her leg.

His voice broke when he was 13.

It was the local newspaper that first broke the story.

Do not use the cream on broken skin.

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A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Microstructure of Covid-19 Health-Protocol Advertisements in Tourist Facilities

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Abstract—To alleviate the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on tourism, tourist facilities in Bali are informing visitors of the relevant health protocols, using posters to describe the appropriate behaviours. Using critical discourse analysis, this study examines the microstructure of the texts in these posters to identify their semantic, syntactic, lexical, and rhetorical elements. The study findings show that the semantic aspects consist of background, intention, and detail. The syntactic elements involve coherence and the use of the pronouns ‘you’ and ‘we’, and of the imperative, and the declarative. The lexical aspects include abbreviations and vocabulary, related to the health protocol. The textual messages are delivered in official language, supported by pictures and photographs.

Index Terms—Microstructure, Health Protocol, Covid-19, Tourism

I. INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the important sectors in Bali and a major source of income. It is also the most labour-intensive sector in the country. A large number of people are employed in tourist facilities, such as hotels, restaurant, travel agencies, and spas.

The Covid-19 pandemic, which began in March 2020, has harmed tourism in Bali, with a substantial decline in the number of tourists entering Indonesia. This decline began in February 2020 and significantly worsened, reaching a severe low in April 2020. This saw decreases in hotel occupancy, working hours, and consequently, the workforce in the sector (Puspayana, 2021).

In response, the Indonesian government’s Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy implemented a three-stage plan to deal with the challenges. These three stages are emergency response, recovery, and normalisation. ‘Emergency response’ focuses on health in relation to hotels, restaurants, tourist attractions, transportation, event venues and public facilities. ‘Recovery’ involved the staged reopening of tourist attractions, with a health protocol in place to ensure cleanliness, health, safety, and environmental sustainability (CHSE). The ‘normalisation’ stage involved the application of CHSE in all destinations and the promotion of market interest by the provision of discounted tour packages (RI, 2021).

The CHSE guidebook issued by the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy contains guidelines for CHSE in 10 key tourist areas: (1) tourist attractions, (2) home stays, (3) hotels, (4) meetings, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions (MICE), (5) events, (6) restaurants, (7) golf tours, (8) diving tours, (9) spas, and (10) the creative economy. Each of these components is covered by both general and specific guidelines. The specific guidelines cover aspects ranging from entry to tourist attractions to employee accommodation. Furthermore, these guidelines vary depending on the tourist facilities. Public service advertisements were displayed to promote the CHSE guidelines.

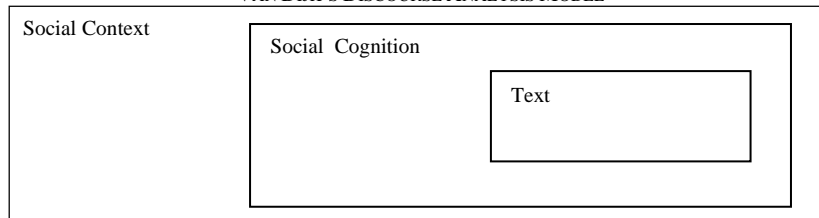
Bali is a major global tourist destination, and the Covid-19 pandemic has had a significant impact on the province, requiring the adoption of various strategies. One such strategy is the implementation of a Covid-19 health protocol in all tourist facilities, intended to ensure that visitors to Bali are protected from the virus. For this purpose, every tourist and health facility was provided with advertisements detailing the health protocol and using semantic and syntactical elements to convey the intended messages. This study examines the microstructures of these advertisements, focusing on their semantic and syntactical elements. The research findings will have value for researchers seeking to widen knowledge of Covid-19 health- protocol advertising. They will also be useful for those in the tourism industry who are creating the advertisements to keep Bali safe from Covid-19. This work is particularly interesting because the advertisements under study have a particular microstructure aims to elicit an immediate response.

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II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Fairclough (1995) suggests that an analysis of discourse attempts to combine several traditions-namely, linguistics, interpretive traditions, and sociology. In this context, the Fairclough (1995) suggests a discourse model consisting of three dimensions: text, discourse practice, and sociocultural practice. Table 1 below provides an illustration of this model.

TABLE 1
VAN DIJK’S DISCOURSE ANALYSIS MODEL



The dimensions of the text (its microstructure) are analysed linguistically, based on the vocabulary, semantics, and syntax. Discourse practice (mesostructure) is related to the process of text production and consumption. Sociocultural practice (macrostructure) is related to the context of the text production. The three dimensions are then analysed in stages: (1) ‘description’ is used to analyse the text, including cohesion and coherence, grammar, and diction; (2) ‘interpretation’ is used to analyse how the text is interpreted, including its production, dissemination, and consumption; and (3) ‘explanation’ is used to analyse sociocultural practices on the situational, institutional, and social levels. Dijk (2008) explains that discourse can have three dimensions: the text, social cognition, and social analysis. This study focuses on the textual dimension, observing the microstructure of the posters.

According to Dijk (1980, 1988, 1991), a text has three structures or levels, and these are mutually supportive. The first level is the macrostructure. This is the global or common meaning of a text. The second is the superstructure. This is a discourse structure associated with the framework of a text. The third is the microstructure, or the meaning of the discourse that can be gleaned by examining the text’s words, sentences, propositions, clauses, paraphrasing, and images. This study examines its topic using the theory of microstructure. Microstructure conveys the local meaning of the discourse through the semantic, syntactic, stylistic, and rhetorical aspects of the text. Part of a writer’s strategy is their choice of words, propositions and rhetoric. The choice of certain words, sentences, and stylistic devices is not only a question of communication; it is also a form of politics that attempts to influence the reader’s perspective. In this structural level analysis of discourse, the microstructure has four units of analysis: semantics, the meaning of the text, through examination of the background, detail, purpose, and presuppositions; syntax, sentence structure, including sentence forms and pronouns; stylistics, the word choices or lexicon of a text; and rhetoric, the stresses of the speaker, such as the metaphors and images employed.

The metaphors and expressions in the microstructure convey to the reader the writer’s intended meaning. Table 2 provides a detailed illustration of the text elements modelled by Dijk (1988).

TABLE 2
THE ELEMENTS OF A TEXT

Discourse structure	Observe element	Element
Macrostructure	Thematic: Theme or topic developed in aTopic text	
Superstructure	Schematic: The scheme of the structure ofScheme the text	
Microstructure	Semantics: Intended meaning of the text, Background, detail, giving detail, explicitly supporting oneintention,presupposition side or countering another	
	Syntax: Chosen sentence form	Chosen sentence form, coherence, pronoun use
	Lexical: Choice of words used in the text	Lexicon
	Stylistic (rhetoric): Intended meaning of Figure/graphic, metaphor the text	

Behnam (2013) used critical discourse analysis to examine how textual features of negation and repetition and intertextual features of argumentation and persuasion could be used to transmit ideological and political messages, using Fairclough’s three-dimensional framework to study discourse at the micro, meso, and macro levels. Benham (2014) shows that “language is not merely a vehicle for explicit transmission of knowledge, but rather a means of implicitly constructing ambiguity” (p. 2196). For example, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), in its reports, attempts to convince the reader that Iran’s nuclear programme is mysterious, but they provide no information regarding the programme itself. Al-Marayat (2021) investigated how the audience’s status affects discourse in terms of

the lexical choices and ideology of a text. The study showed that “editors will seek to satisfy audiences’ expectations by attempting to be neutral, objective, and unbiased, using straightforward editorial styles” (p. 202). Obiora et al. (2021) used critical discourse analysis to examine how hate speech was used as an instrument of dominance by the Nigerian opposition party, the People’s Democratic Party, against the dominant party, the All Progressive Congress. According to their study, members of both parties utilised hate speech to demonstrate their supremacy over the other by making allegations, passing judgements, and mocking, and degrading the other. Addy and Ofori (2020) used the Fairclough approach to examine the use of pronouns and repetition in the campaign speech of a Ghanaian opposition leader, Nana Akufo-Addo, in his introduction of his party’s manifesto. The study revealed that “the Ghanaian leader utilised the pronouns ‘I’, ‘you’, ‘our’, and ‘we’, along with marked repetition, to create a positive bond with the electorate, identifying with them and displaying solidarity” (p. 1279). The strategies were employed to persuade voters to endorse the leader as the most credible candidate for president. This study contributes to critical discourse analysis on the nexus between language, politics, and society. Ahmadian and Faharani (2014) examined the ideological differences between the *Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* in relation to their respective representations of Iran’s nuclear programme. The study showed that the two newspapers used macro-strategies of positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation, along with discursive tactics such as lexicalisation, presupposition, consensus, hyperbole, illegality, and disclaimers to present the same issues in different ways, depending on their respective ideologies. Sadeghi et al. (2014) examined the realisation of Islamic thought through language, by applying a political discourse analysis primarily based in Fairclough’s critical discourse analysis framework. Their results show that Imam Khomeini used active and passive verb constructions as ideological tools. Moreover, Imam Khomeini emphasised pluralism over individualism.

Of the studies discussed in this chapter, none have used the critical discourse analysis of Dijk (1988) to investigate the microstructure of the Covid-19 health-protocol advertisements. Therefore, there is an important research gap here in relation to the tourism industry.

III. MATERIAL AND METHODS

This study’s data were gathered from posters placed on tourist objects, spas, restaurants, and recreational facilities. The posters were displayed primarily in the Ubud area, which is home to various kinds of tourist attractions and facilities. Two research instruments were used: questionnaires and photographic equipment. The questionnaire was used to obtain information about the implementation of the Covid-19 health- protocol, while the equipment was a camera used to take photographs of the posters on display (Cresswell, 1994).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter is divided into three sections, aligned with the elements of the Dijk (1988) critical discourse analysis: semantic, syntactic, and rhetorical.

A. Semantic Aspects

The semantics of discourse are characterised by relative interpretations: sentences in a discourse sequence are not interpreted in an absolute way, but rather as relative to the interpretation of other (usually previous) sentences in the discourse. Therefore, semantics is the study of relative meaning, based on interpretation of previous sentences in the discourse. The semantic aspects of the advertisements under study are the elements of background, intention, and detail.

(a). Background Elements

Background affects the semantics (meaning) of the discourse. It reveals the advertiser’s intent and can provide a basis for understanding the purpose of the discourse. The purpose of the discourse is usually not explained, but the background can help by conveying the hidden meaning. The background element of the advertisements under study is the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic: in short, visitors must comply with the health protocol to prevent the spread of the virus. This background can be seen in the following examples sentences:

- a. ‘Let’s all support Bali by following these important rules...’
‘Wear a mask at all times.’
‘Wash your hands & social distance.’
- b. ‘Let’s prevent the spread of Covid-19.’

(b). Intention

Intention is the element of semantics which allows communicators to deliver clear and explicit messages (Sobur, 2006). Intention can be expressed explicitly through sentences. In this study, the relevant elements were ‘invitation’ and ‘request.’

1. Invitation

The element of invitation means inviting the reader to do something. The following sentences are examples of ‘invitation’:

- c. ‘Let’s all support Bali by following these important rules...’

d. ‘Let’s prevent the spread of Covid-19; please comply with the health protocol.’

In the above examples, the invitation is indicated by the presence of the verb ‘let’. The word ‘us’, as the subject of the verb, invites the reader to support Bali by complying with the health protocol.

2. Request

The ‘request’ element asks the reader to do something. The following sentences include clear request elements:

- a. ‘Guests and staff will be required to wear masks at all times. All employees are screened before entering the museum. Sanitising stations are located on entering to the museum, as well as throughout Neka Art Museum. We adhere to social distancing protocol.’
- b. *Mohon untuk cuci tangan disini sebelum masuk kawasan parkir* (‘Please wash your hands here before entering the parking area.’)
- c. ‘Scan here before entering. Scan here before leaving. (Scan here to exit.)’

In the examples above, the requests are marked by the words ‘required’, ‘mohon’, ‘please’, and the use of the declarative and imperative sentences, which explicitly convey the meaning.

(c). Detailed Elements

Ad creators use detailed elements to implicitly express certain attitudes. According to Sobur (2006), this element reflects the writer or communicator’s control over their information. Communicators tend to put too much beneficial information to get good image. On the other hand, displaying only a small amount of information or including information that does need to be conveyed can be detrimental. In these tourist facility advertisements, the advertisers use element of detail to provide clear and comprehensive information to readers about the health protocol. This is a deliberate tactic, designed to present a specific image. The detailed elements relevant to these advertisements can be categorised under headings of ‘self-identity’, ‘detailed images’, ‘photograph details’ and ‘the identity of the tourist attraction’.

1. Self-Identity

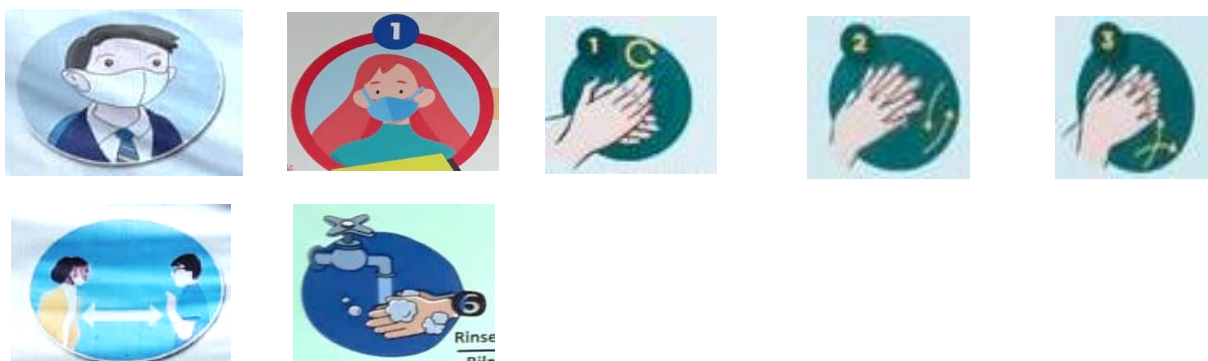
This element provides information about the identity of the advertiser. These descriptive elements may include the advertiser’s position and name. Not all advertisements contain personal identity details, and only one poster in this study did so. Those details were as follows:

- a. Name: *Inspector General. Pol. Drs. Putu Jayan Danu Putra, S.H., M.Sc. and AKBP. I Dewa Made Adnyana, S.I.K., S.H., M.H.*
- b. Position: *The Chief of Bali Police Chief and The Chief of Gianyar Police*

This description contains information about the advertiser’s name and position. This description benefits the reader by informing them and showing that this named individual is responsible for the safety of the visitors to the tourist attraction.

2. Detailed Images

Images are a linguistic instrument used to communicate and convey ideas (Debes, 1969). Images were used in many of the advertisements to underline the information about the health protocol, presenting it in a more interesting and more easily understood manner. The following images were some of those included in the advertisements.



The images demonstrate how the reader can adhere to the Covid-19 health protocol. Thus, they are very important for helping readers to prevent the spread of the virus.

3. Photographs

Detailed photograph elements are used to clarify the information being conveyed. These elements provide information in a more interesting and understandable way.

An example of photograph from one advertisement is given below.



The photograph above informs visitors of the need to wash their hands before entering the space. It also provides visual support to the information given on the advertisement.

4. *Identity of the Tourist Attraction*

This element provides information about the name, address, website, and postal code of the tourist attraction. This was presented as follows:



The examples show that Bali Zoo mentions the name and website. Meanwhile, Ubud Palace mentions the name, address, and postal code. This type of description is beneficial for those who intend to contact or visit the tourist attraction.

B. *Syntactical Microstructure Elements*

Syntax is the structure of phrases and clauses (Ryan, 2014). The syntactic microstructure of these public service advertisements made use of coherence, pronouns, and sentence form.

(a). *Coherence*

According to Brown and Yule (1983), ‘coherence’ is the integrated and unified understanding of a text or speech. Coherence is one of the most important features of discourse, indicating semantic connections (Zhao, 2014). It is vital for organising the ties between propositions and ensuring that they are intact. Coherent wholeness is the existence of a meaningful semantic relationship between parts. Connections between utterances build coherence. In the advertisements for the Covid-19 health protocol, coherence was observed in the arrangement of the ideas. The ideas were conveyed logically, ensuring that the posters had logical forms and could be easily understood. The following provides an example strongly connected sentences.



The advertisement above elaborates on the important rules:

1. ‘Wear a mask at all times.’
2. ‘Wash your hands & social distance.’
3. ‘Obey the road rules and always wear a helmet. (Yes, even on the shortcut.)’

(b). *Pronouns*

Pronouns are grammatical items used to represent other noun phrases in a text (Fromklin et al., 2011). The use of personal pronouns can reveal the discursive strategy of the communication (Gochecho, 2012). Depending on the pronouns used, a speech can convey social distance, politeness, or solidarity between the speaker and audience (Bano &

Shakir, 2015). The pronouns used in the advertisements under study were ‘us’ and ‘your’. The following sentences contain examples:

- a. ‘Let’s all support Bali by supporting these rules.’
- b. ‘Let’s prevent the spread of Covid-19.’
- c. ‘Appreciate your support, your Balinese family.’

The use of the pronoun ‘us’ here indicates a shared action shared between managers, the government, and visitors to the tourist attractions, who must work together to prevent the spread of Covid-19 by following the health protocol. The pronoun ‘we’ is used as part of a strategy to request help from society, inviting the reader to work together with the government. The word ‘your’ refers to the visitors, indicating that they must comply with the health protocol to help Balinese residents and families.

(c). Sentence Form

A sentence is a set of words that make a statement, pose a question, or give an order and which contain a subject and a verb (Hornby, 2015). Sentences can be active or passive. In an active sentence, the person performing the action is the subject; while in a passive sentence, they are the object. Thus, sentences can be categorised as active or passive depending on the subject’s role, where subjects are actors in active sentences and targets in the passive.

The sentences used in these advertisements were imperative and declarative. The imperative sentences began with ‘let’ and ‘*mari*’. The placement of these words at the beginning of the sentences put an invitation to the visitors. The relevant sentences are as follows:

- a. ‘Let’s all support Bali by following these important rules.’
- b. *Mari kita cegah penyebaran Covid-19* (‘Let’s prevent the spread of Covid-19 by complying with the health protocol.’)

Imperative sentences begin with verbs, modals and adverbs. The following quotations provide examples of these from the advertisements under study:

- a. **Gosokkan** telapak tangan diantara punggung tangan kiri dan sebaliknya.
‘Rub hand sanitiser on both palms in a circular direction.’
- b. **Letakkan** punggung jari saling mencuci, kemudian gosokkan perlahan.
‘Put the backs of your fingers against each other, then rub gently.’
- c. **Wajib** mencuci tangan pakai sabun sebelum masuk dan keluar.
‘It is mandatory to wash your hands with soap before entering and leaving.’
- d. **Please help us** by reminding your friends.’
- e. **Rajin mencuci tangan** pada air mengalir
‘Frequently wash hands in running water.’

The imperative sentences began with verbs such as ‘rub’, ‘put’, and ‘must’ to emphasise the actions to be taken. The word ‘please’ at the beginning of the sentence indicated that this was a polite request. The adverb *rajin* (‘frequently’) emphasised that the action must be routinely carried out.

The declarative sentences used in the advertisements were as follows:

- a. ‘Guests and staff will be required to wear masks at all times.’
- b. ‘All employees are screened before entering the museum.’
- c. ‘Sanitising stations are located at the entrance to the museum and throughout Neka Art Museum.’
- d. ‘We adhere to social distancing protocol.’

These sentences begin with the subject, thereby emphasising the importance of this element: ‘guests and staff’, ‘all employees’, ‘sanitising stations’, and ‘we’.

C. Lexical

The lexical microstructure of the advertisements consisted of abbreviations, contractions, acronyms, and vocabulary.

(a). Abbreviations

An abbreviation is a short description of a long phrase (Zhang et al., 2012). In the advertisements, the abbreviation ‘CHSE’ was applied to represent the phrase ‘cleanliness, health, safety, and environment’, and the abbreviation ‘JL’ represented *Jalan* (‘street’)

(b). Contractions

Contractions are reduction of written representations (Quirk et al., 1985). In the advertisements, a contraction of ‘let us’ (‘let’s’) was used:

- a. ‘Let’s prevent the spread of Covid-19. Please comply with the health protocol.’
- b. ‘Let’s all support Bali by following these important rules.’

(c). Acronyms

Acronyms are formed from the initial letters (or initial two letters) of the words in a phrase (Allan, 1986). The acronyms found in the advertisements were 'KAPOLRES', which comes from the words *Kepala Polisi Resort*, meaning 'Head of Resort Police', and 'KAPOLDA', from *Kepala Polisi Daerah*, meaning 'Head of Police Area'.

(d). Vocabulary

'Vocabulary' can be defined as words, the variety of words employed by the speaker or writer, words used in the field of science, or a list of words combined, as in a dictionary, with brief and practical explanations. The vocabulary used in the advertisements included nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, conjunctions, prepositions, and adverbs.

1. Nouns

Nouns are words used to indicate things and people (Wierzbicka, 2000). The nouns used in the advertisements were related to the health protocol. These were 'soap', 'hand sanitiser', 'water', 'masks', 'distance', 'temperature', 'family', 'friend', 'hand', 'finger', 'body', 'mouth', 'health', 'crowd', 'Covid-19', 'rules', 'experience', 'Bali', 'part', 'support', 'protocol', 'visitors', and 'employees.'

2. Verbs

Verbs are words referring to actions and processes (Wierzbicka, 2000). The verbs used in advertisements were 'wear', 'wash', 'guard', 'rub', 'put', 'welcome', 'wear', 'use', 'wash', 'maintain', 'cover', 'avoid', 'help', 'appreciate', 'play', 'remind', 'obey', 'prevent', 'comply' and 'must'.

3. Adjectives

Adjectives are words used to describe something (Wierzbicka, 2000). The adjectives used in the advertisements included 'correct' and 'important'.

4. Conjunctions

Conjunctions are devices used to link sentences or clauses in a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The conjunctions used in the advertisements were 'when' and 'and'.

5. Prepositions

A preposition is a word used to connect one thing to another, usually followed by a noun or pronoun (Seaton & Mew, 2007). The prepositions in the advertisements were 'on', 'before', 'for', 'to', 'with', and 'of'.

6. Adverbs

Adverbs are words used to modify verbs or adjectives and other adverbs (Ansel, 2000). The adverbs used in the advertisements were 'always', 'frequently', and 'slowly'.

D. Rhetorical

Rhetorical concerns the writer or speaker's manner of delivery, whether formal or informal (Dijk, 1988). The rhetorical microstructure of the advertisements in this study included elements of language style and graphics. The style of language was official. The graphic elements in the research data were photographs and pictures.

V. CONCLUSION

This microstructure analysis has shown that the Covid-19 health-protocol advertisements comprised four main elements: semantic, syntactic, lexical, and rhetorical. In semantic term, the background of the texts was the desire to prevent the spread of Covid-19. The detailed elements included images, photographs, and information about the identities of the tourist attractions and the advertisers' themselves. Intention was expressed explicitly, using clear sentences and pictures. The syntactic structures were coherent, with first-and second-person pronouns and different sentence forms used to express the messages. An examination of the lexical elements of the microstructure revealed the use of abbreviations, contractions, and acronyms. The vocabulary included nouns, verbs, pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, adjectives, and adverbs, all referring specifically to the health protocol. The rhetorical microstructure included the use of official language and graphics.

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Comprehension of Metaphors by Typically Developing Arabic-Speaking Jordanian School Children

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Abstract—This paper reports on the findings of a study investigating the comprehension of Arabic metaphors by Jordanian school children. Thirty typically developing school children aged 6, 8 and 10 years old performed a metaphor verbal comprehension task based on 10 lexicalized metaphorical expressions incorporated into 10 short stories. Each short story ends with a target metaphorical expression and is followed by a question about identifying the referent of the metaphorical expression. The results show that old children were better at comprehending metaphors than young children. The study concludes that the comprehension of metaphor develops significantly with chronological age. Furthermore, the degree of the child's familiarity with given metaphors plays a crucial role in influencing the comprehension of metaphors.

Index Terms—Chronological age, comprehension, metaphor, metaphorical expressions, school children

I. INTRODUCTION

The domain of this paper is figurative language comprehension in typically developing school children. In particular, it aims at exploring how Jordanian school children who belong to different age groups (6, 8 and 10 years old) interact with Arabic metaphorical expressions on the receptive level.

In figurative language, the intended meaning of words, expressions and sentences differ from their literal meaning (Glucksberg, 2001). Accordingly, the comprehension of figurative language requires identifying the speaker's intention in a given context (Rapp & Wild, 2011). Figurative language can take multiple forms, such as metaphor, simile, idioms, personification, hyperbole, etc. Figurative language is used frequently in speech and writing since people use approximately six nonliteral expressions per minute (Glucksberg, 1989). However, not all figurative expressions are equally pervasive in spoken and written discourse. This may explain why some figurative forms, such as metaphor, simile, idioms have received more attention in literature than other figures of speech (Cacciari & Padovani, 2012, p. 505).

Metaphor is "pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p. 3). Thus, understanding metaphorical expressions plays a crucial role in measuring the success of communication in relation to adults in general and children in particular. This may explain the growing research interest in investigating metaphor comprehension and production by children (Winner et al., 1976; Reynolds & Ortony, 1980; Abulhaija, 1988; Gentner, 1988; Perason, 1989; Seitz, 1997; Al-Qassas, 2006; Bosco et al., 2009; Rundblad & Annaz, 2010; Rocha et al., 2020).

Winner et al. (1976) assessed the effect of domain on the comprehension of metaphor for children aged 10, 12 and 14 years old. The researchers incorporated the psychological-physical metaphors and cross-sensory metaphors. The results indicated that the ability to comprehend metaphors develop through age since the performance of 14-year-old children was better. In addition, the performance of ten-year-old children on cross-sensory metaphors was much better than psychological-physical metaphors.

Reynolds and Ortony (1980) investigated the ability of elementary school children ranging in age from 7 to 12 years to comprehend metaphorical expressions by asking them to read several short stories and to choose the target sentence that it best completed the story out of a number of sentences which were metaphorically and literally related to the story. The researchers revealed that children faced more difficulty in comprehending metaphor than simile. In addition, metaphoric competence is established until around the age of nine years old and a half, whereas the competence in understanding simile develops as early as seven years old and a half.

Abulhaija (1988) examined the comprehension of metaphor by children aged from 3 to 9 years old. Children were asked to choose the picture that matches the target figurative expression. The researcher also elicited data from children's spontaneous speech. The researcher concluded that the ability of children to use figurative language emerges early at the age of 3 years old and it develops further when they grow up.

Perason (1989) explored the comprehension of metaphors by fifty two preschool children aged from (3;0- 5;2) through a repetition task in which their performance on repeating metaphors was compared to their performance on repeating sentences that are semantically well formed and other ones which are semantically anomalous. The study concluded that "metaphor was not semantically anomalous to the children and that they were processed on a par with

literal language". Furthermore, the results showed that "metaphor emerges early in the child's linguistic repertoire" (p. 185).

Seitz (1997) examined the ability of 40 children (4 years old) and 40 children (6 years old) to use and comprehend six kinds of metaphorical relations "color, shape, physiognomic, cross-modal, psychological-physical, and taxonomic matches" by developing a comprehension task conducting in words and pictures. The findings indicated that young children showed the crucial role of pictures in understanding perceptual metaphors, whereas old children showed the significant effect of words on comprehending conceptual metaphors.

Al-Qassas (2006) explored the ability of Jordanian children to produce and comprehend figurative comparisons. Regarding the comprehension task, the participants were asked to select the picture that best matches the figurative comparisons. Regarding the production task, the children were asked to answer questions (N=21) presented with pictures and related to their domains in order to produce figurative expressions. The researcher concluded that age plays a significant role in the ability of children to produce figurative expressions. Furthermore, children's ability to comprehend figurative comparisons precedes their ability to produce them.

Bosco et al. (2009) investigated the comprehension of the communicative meaning of a number of figurative expressions for 108 children aged (7 to 10; 6 years old) by asking them to listen to audio-recorded stories including a figurative expression. The findings revealed that sincere figurative expressions were easier to be comprehended by children than deceitful ones which are in turn easier than ironic figurative expressions to be understood. Moreover, the researchers concluded that the complexity of the mental representations justifies the difference of difficulty that children experience in understanding the communicative meaning of the figurative expressions as well as the non-figurative expressions.

Rundblad and Annaz (2010) examined the comprehension of metaphor and metonymy for forty five typically developing individuals ranging in age from (5; 3- to 37; 1 years old) through a verbal comprehension task based on twenty short picture stories. The study concluded that "the development of metaphor and metonymy comprehension is strongly linked with chronological and MA [mind age], but metaphor comprehension develops at a slower rate compared to metonymy" (p. 547).

Rocha et al. (2020) assessed the comprehension of metaphors by Portuguese typically developing school children. The researchers examined the influence of the following factors, namely, gender, number of siblings, parents' educational levels, and family history of language disorders on metaphor comprehension. The study found that no gender significant differences were found regarding metaphor comprehension, whereas the number of siblings positively correlated with metaphor comprehension. In addition, children whose parents have a family history of speech or language disorder performed worse than their peers. Finally, children whose parents have a higher educational level performed better than their peers.

As is clear, the review of related studies indicated that age plays a vital role in the ability of children to produce and comprehend figurative language. In addition, the ability of children to comprehend figurative expressions develops earlier than their ability to produce them. The current study makes a contribution to the body of already existing literature on school children's acquisition of figurative language in general and of metaphor comprehension in particular. The current study is meant to fill a gap in the literature as the previous developmental research has examined the comprehension of metaphors in native speakers of English (Winner et al., 1976; Reynolds & Ortony, 1980; Gentner, 1988; Perason, 1989; Seitz, 1997; Bosco et al., 2009; Rundblad & Annaz, 2010; Rocha et al., 2020). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there are just two studies that tackled the acquisition of metaphors by Arabic-speaking children (Abulhaija, 1988; Alqassas, 2006, etc.). Accordingly, the current study is the first study that examines the comprehension of Arabic metaphors by Jordanian-Arabic speaking children by the use of short stories; hence, it may provide additional evidence for the typical developmental pattern of metaphor comprehension in children, regardless of their native language.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 provides a brief account of metaphor, whereas section 3 specifies the study objectives and significance. Methodology is described in section 4. Results are presented in section 5. Discussion is presented in section 6, and conclusion and recommendations are provided in section 7.

II. METAPHOR: A BRIEF ACCOUNT

The concept of metaphor is defined in Online Merriam-Webster dictionary as "a figure of speech in which a word or phrase literally denoting one kind of object or idea is used in place of another to suggest a likeness or analogy between them". Defining metaphor as a figure of speech represents the traditional view which refers back to Aristotle who confines the use of metaphors to the literature in which metaphor is of great aesthetic value both in poetry and in prose. In this view, metaphor is considered "a kind of decorative addition to ordinary language" and regarded as something that is located outside normal language, and thus it needs a special type of explanation (Finch, 2000, p. 170).

Richards (1963) posits that metaphor is an interaction between "thoughts of different things active together and supported by a single word, or phrase" (p. 93). He also introduces two technical terms: "the tenor" and "the vehicle" to talk about metaphor. For example in the following metaphor "men are wolves", the word "men" is called the tenor, the word "wolves" is called the vehicle. In other words, the tenor (men) is understood metaphorically in terms of the

vehicle (wolves). Later, Richards introduces another technical term which is called “ground” to refer to a set of characteristics shared between the tenor and the vehicle (ibid: 96).

On the other hand, Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) which was originally proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) viewed metaphor in a way that is distinctly different from the way in which traditional approaches represent metaphor. Thus, instead of considering metaphor a stylistic and artistic ornament to the literal language, metaphor is perceived as something essential to human thought and reasoning (p. 3). Put another way, the main tenet of this theory is that “metaphors are conceptual in nature, that is, that they reside in the conceptual system, and not just in language” (Kövecses, 2005, p. 9).

Metaphors rely on embodied human experiences (e.g., Lakoff & Johnson, 1999; Grady, 1997a, 1997b). Since human beings grasp abstract notions through their bodies and physical experience, embodied experience is expressed metaphorically (Kövecses, 2005, p. 2). For example, affection is perceived metaphorically as warmth because of the association that is established between the passionate embrace of our parents and the bodily warmth that we felt when we were hugged by them since childhood. This creates the conceptual metaphor AFFECTION IS WARMTH. Thus, thinking and talking about “affection in terms of warmth arises naturally from our embodied experience”. For instance, we describe the relationship that we have with someone as warm e.g., “We have a warm relationship” (ibid: 3).

In the same vein, Kövecses (2010) stated that metaphor in the cognitive linguistic view is defined as “understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain” (p. 4). In particular, Kövecses (2010) argued that conceptual metaphor consists of two conceptual domains: Source and target domain. The conceptual domain which is used to understand another conceptual domain is called the source domain, while the conceptual domain which is understood in this way is called the target domain. For instance, in the conceptual metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY the source domain which tends to be more concrete is JOURNEY which is used to understand the target domain which tends to be more abstract LIFE (p. 4).

III. OBJECTIVES

This study investigates the extent to which Jordanian typically developing School children aged 6, 8, and 10 years old comprehend Jordanian Spoken Arabic (JSA) metaphors. It also examines the influence of school children’s familiarity with metaphor on metaphor comprehension. The study aims to find answers to the following research questions:

- (1) Does understanding of metaphor develop in relation to chronological age in typically developing school children?
- (2) Does the degree of familiarity with metaphor affect the comprehension of metaphor in typically developing school children?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

Thirty (18 males, 12 females) Jordanian Arabic-speaking children from 3 age groups (6, 8, and 10 years old) participated in this experiment. All children were monolingual and had Arabic as their first language. All participants were sampled from a public school in Amman, the capital of Jordan. All participants belonged to middle-class families, had normal hearing and vision abilities and had no language learning impairments.

B. Material and Procedures

A comprehension task was developed to assess the ability of Jordanian school children to comprehend metaphorical expressions. Ten lexicalized metaphors were selected based on consultation with the participants’ teachers who evaluated the metaphorical expressions in relation to their familiarity and age of acquisition. The ten lexicalized metaphors were incorporated into the end of ten short stories (see appendix) representing everyday situations. Each short story was followed by an open ended question, such as *Who did the character/ characters see?*

During one session, children were tested orally and individually in a quiet room at their school. Each story was read by the researcher and was followed by a question to evaluate the comprehension of lexicalized metaphors. All participants took between 10 to 15 minutes to finish the task. Communication between the researcher and the children in all tasks was in Jordanian Spoken Arabic (JSA) and all sessions were audio-recorded by the researcher. All children’s responses were classified as either figurative or literal interpretations of the target word.

C. Scoring

Quantitatively, responses were categorized based on the participants’ interpretation of the target metaphors as literal or figurative interpretations. Figurative interpretations of target metaphors were given one point, whereas literal interpretations were given zero.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Overall Frequency and Percentage of Literal and Figurative Interpretations of All Target Metaphors

Table 1 presents the complete list of the frequencies and the percentages of both literal and figurative interpretations of target metaphors identified in the whole comprehension task for each age group. The general findings show that the 10- year- old children's performance on the comprehension task was better than the performance of children belonging to other age groups, i.e. 6-year-old children and 8- year-old children.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF LITERAL AND FIGURATIVE INTERPRETATIONS OF ALL TARGET METAPHORS IDENTIFIED IN THE WHOLE COMPREHENSION TASK

Age Group	The frequency and percentage of literal interpretations		The frequency and percentage of figurative interpretations	
Six years old	59	55%	41	41%
Eight years old	36	36%	64	64%
Ten years old	0	0%	100	100%

Table 1 shows that the percentage of correct responses (the figurative interpretations) of target metaphors for children of 10 years old was the highest, accounting for 100%. This means that children at this age were able to comprehend the target lexicalized metaphors completely, whereas the percentage of figurative interpretations of lexicalized metaphors provided by children aged 8 years old was 64%. This emphasizes that children at the age of 8 have not mastered the acquisition of metaphorical expressions completely compared with children aged 10 years old. On the other hand, the performance of six-year-olds was the poorest compared with other age groups, accounting for 41%. The results revealed that six-year-olds depend heavily on the literal interpretations of the metaphorical expressions, accounting for 55%. The results show that the frequencies and percentages of correct responses increase steadily with age. Thus, the ability of children to comprehend metaphors increases significantly with chronological age.

B. The Overall Frequency and Percentage of Literal and Figurative Interpretations of Each Target Metaphor Based on the Age Group

The following section shows the frequency and percentage of literal and figurative interpretations of each target metaphor based on each age group.

C. The Overall Frequency and Percentage of Literal and Figurative Interpretations of Each Target Metaphor for Six-Year-Old Children

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF LITERAL AND FIGURATIVE INTERPRETATIONS OF EACH TARGET METAPHOR FOR SIX-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN

Item No. Target metaphor	Degree of Familiarity	Frequency and percentage of literal interpretations		Examples of the literal interpretations	Frequency and percentage of figurative interpretations		Examples of the figurative interpretations
1-(The moon)	Familiar	3	30%	The moon	7	70%	Laila
2-(The honey)	Familiar	4	40%	Honey	6	60%	Sarah, the baby, the girl, his sister
3-(The cow)	Familiar	3	30%	The cow, the animal,	7	70%	The boy, the fat boy
4-(The plane)	Familiar	5	50%	the plane	5	50%	Saeed, The fast boy
5-(The oven)	Familiar	5	50%	The oven	5	50%	The warm room
6-(The lion)	Unfamiliar	9	90%	The lion, the animal, the tiger, the predacious animal	1	10%	Saeed
7-(The angel)	Unfamiliar	9	90%	The angel, The king	1	10%	Ali, the kind person
8- (The stones)	Unfamiliar	7	70%	Stones, rocks	3	30%	The bag, the books
9- (The fox)	Unfamiliar	9	90%	The fox, the animal, the doll	1	10%	Saeed
10-(The prison)	Unfamiliar	9	90%	The prison	1	10%	The room, the house
Total		59			41		

The results demonstrated that six-year-old children's performance was not satisfactory compared with other age groups. Put another way, the youngest children aged six years old were found to be the most literal in their interpretation of metaphors as indicated by their overall performance across the task. Despite their poor performance, six-year-old children showed an early stage of metaphor comprehension especially when these metaphors are frequently heard and used in their daily life. For instance, six-year-old children were able to provide the metaphorical interpretations of the expression "the cow" which is used metaphorically to refer to a fat person, accounting for 70%. 70 % of children aged six years old were also able to identify the metaphorical usage of the word "the moon" which is used to refer to a beautiful girl, whereas 60 % of children aged six years old were able to identify the metaphorical meaning of the word "the honey" which is used to refer to a lovely girl. The main findings revealed that children's familiarity with the metaphorical expression plays a significant role in their ability to identify its metaphorical usage in a given context. On the other hand, only 10% of children aged six years were able to figure out the metaphorical meaning of the words, *the fox, the lion, the angel, the prison* which are used to refer metaphorically to, Saeed, Saeed,

Ali, one's room or house, respectively. It seems that the vast majority of children aged 6 years old failed to recognize the metaphorical meaning of the previously mentioned words, namely, *the fox*, *the lion*, *the angel*, *the prison* which are used metaphorically to refer to a cunning person, a brave person, a kind person, and one's room or house, respectively. It seems quite obvious that children aged 6 years failed to identify the metaphorical meaning of these words because they are not commonly used in their daily life.

D. The Overall Frequency and Percentage of Literal and Figurative Interpretations of Each Target Metaphor for Eight-Year-Old Children

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF LITERAL AND FIGURATIVE INTERPRETATIONS OF EACH TARGET METAPHOR FOR EIGHT-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN

Item No. Target metaphor	Degree of Familiarity	Frequency and percentage of literal interpretations		Examples of the literal interpretations	Frequency and percentage of figurative interpretations		Examples of the figurative interpretations
1- (The moon)	Familiar	2	20%	The moon	8	80%	Laila
2- (The honey)	Familiar	0	0%	The honey	10	100%	Sarah, the baby, his sister, the girl
3- (The cow)	Familiar	0	0%	The cow	10	100%	The boy, Samir,
4- (The plane)	Familiar	1	10%	The plane	9	90%	Saeed, the fast boy
5- (The oven)	Familiar	2	20%	The oven	8	80%	The warm room
6- (The lion)	Unfamiliar	9	90%	The lion	1	10%	Saeed,
7- (The angel)	Unfamiliar	6	60%	The angel	4	40%	Ali
8- (The stones)	Unfamiliar	6	60%	The stones	4	40%	The bag, the books
9- (The fox)	Unfamiliar	9	90%	The fox	1	10%	Saeed
10- (The prison)	Unfamiliar	6	60%	The prison	4	40%	The house, the room
Total		36			64		

The results revealed that eight-year-old children's performance was better than the performance of six-year-olds. The high frequency of correct responses (the figurative interpretation) for certain items might be attributed to the fact that children are more exposed to certain metaphorical expressions than others in their daily life, such as *"the honey"* is used to refer to a lovely girl, accounting for 100%, *"the cow "* used to refer to a fat person, accounting for 100% and *"the plane "* used to refer to a fast person, accounting for 90%. 80% of children aged 8 years were able to figure out the metaphorical meaning of the word *"the oven"* which is used metaphorically to mean a warm place or room. On the other hand, 90 % of children aged 8 years failed to figure out the metaphorical meaning of the word *"the fox"* and *"the lion"* which are used metaphorically to mean a cunning person and a brave person, respectively. 60% failed to figure out the metaphorical meaning of the word *"the prison"* which is used metaphorically to mean one's room or house. 60% failed to figure out the metaphorical meaning of the expression "the stones" which is used metaphorically to mean the heavy things, such as a heavy bag or heavy books. The findings demonstrated that the familiarity of the metaphorical expression is considered an important factor that influences the ability of children to comprehend metaphors.

E. The Overall Frequency and Percentage of Literal and Figurative Interpretations of Each Target Metaphor for Ten-Year-Old Children

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF LITERAL AND FIGURATIVE INTERPRETATIONS OF EACH TARGET METAPHOR FOR TEN-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN

Item No. Target metaphor	Degree of Familiarity	Frequency and percentage of literal interpretations		Examples of the literal interpretations	Frequency and percentage of figurative interpretations		Examples of the figurative interpretations
1- (The moon)	Familiar	0	0	The moon	10	100	Laila
2- (The honey)	Familiar	0	0	The honey	10	100	Sarah, the baby, his sister, the girl
3- (The cow)	Familiar	0	0	The cow	10	100	The boy, Samir,
4- (The plane)	Familiar	0	0	The plane	10	100	Saeed, the fast boy
5- (The oven)	Familiar	0	0	The oven	10	100	The heater
6- (The lion)	Unfamiliar	0	0	The lion	10	100	Saeed,
7- (The angel)	Unfamiliar	0	0	The angel	10	100	Ali
8- (The stones)	Unfamiliar	0	0	The stones	10	100	The bag, the books
9- (The fox)	Unfamiliar	0	0	The fox	10	100	Saeed
10- (The prison)	Unfamiliar	0	0	The prison	10	100	The house, the room
Total		0			100		

The findings indicated that the performance of 10-year-old children was the best among all age groups. The eldest age group was the most metaphorical in their interpretations of the metaphorical expressions since all participants answered the questions of the comprehension task correctly. This might be attributed to the fact that they are the oldest participants. This might have been an indication that children at the age of 10 years have almost acquired the ability to comprehend metaphors.

VI. DISCUSSION

Children's performance on metaphor verbal comprehension task incorporating 10 short stories showed a developmental change on metaphor comprehensions with chronological age. The performance of older children was better than other younger participants since 100% of the children aged 10 years were able to figure out the figurative interpretations of the target metaphors fully and easily compared with other age groups. The performance of the youngest children who are aged 6 years was not satisfactory as it was mainly based on the literal interpretation of the metaphorical expressions. For instance, 55% of children aged 6 years failed to show metaphor comprehension. This lends support to Winner et al. (1980) who stated that children younger than seven were not able to rephrase or correctly select the meaning of a metaphorical statement that involved an implicit comparison.

The main results have revealed that the ability of children to comprehend metaphors improves gradually with age. For example, whereas only 41 % of children aged 6 years were able to comprehend metaphors, and 64% of children aged 8 years were able to comprehend metaphors, 100 % of children aged 10 years were able to comprehend metaphor. The results of the current study are in line with the findings of previous research studies (Winner et al., 1976; Gentner, 1988; Winer et al., 2001) which revealed that the comprehension of metaphors steadily develops through age. In the same vein, Gentner (1988) stated that the ability to comprehend metaphors improves throughout the school years.

Furthermore, the current study found that the degree of familiarity of metaphors plays a vital role in facilitating the comprehension of metaphorical expressions. Put another way, children show better comprehension of metaphors as long as they are used widely in their daily life and they are already familiar with it. For instance, the majority of students were able to comprehend the following metaphorical expressions, namely, *the honey*, *the moon*, *the oven* which are used to refer to a lovely girl, a beautiful girl, and a warm room, respectively. On the other hand, the majority failed to comprehend the following metaphorical expressions which are not commonly used in their daily life contexts, and thus they are not familiar with, namely the fox, the lion, the prison and the stones which are used metaphorically to refer to a cunning person and a brave person, one's room or house, and heavy things, respectively.

VII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The current study aimed at exploring the comprehension of Arabic metaphors by Jordanian school children aged 6, 8 and 10 years old. Children's performance on metaphor comprehension was tested by a verbal comprehension task incorporating 10 short stories. The main finding showed a developmental change on metaphor comprehensions with chronological age. The results revealed that the degree of familiarity of metaphors plays a vital role in facilitating the comprehension of metaphorical expressions since children showed a better understanding of metaphors which they are more familiar with in their daily life contexts.

Examining the effect of task type on metaphor comprehension may furnish ground for further future research to include different task types. In this regard, a number of variables should be taken into account in relation to picture-matching tasks, such as the number of provided pictures and to what extent they facilitate metaphor comprehension. Furthermore, future research may examine the production of metaphors by both Jordanian school and pre-school children. Future research may also investigate the acquisition of other types of figures of speech, such as metonymy, irony, personification, and idioms in school children.

APPENDIX

(1). An example of a metaphor story: (The moon: a beautiful girl).

انعزمت ليلي على حفلة عيد ميلاد صاحبيتها سلمى. الحفلة رح تبدا الساعة تسعة المساء.
فراحت ليلي على السوق و اشترت فستان جديد و راحت على الصالون و عملت تسريحة لشعرها حلوة كثير.
لما وصلت ليلي بيت صاحبيتها المسارنت الجرس.
ففتحت صاحبيتها سلمى الباب و قالت لصاحبيتها الثانيات : تعوا شوفوا القمر .
فركضت البنات على الباب .
ايش شافن البنات؟

Laila was invited to her friend's birthday "Salma". The party will start at nine in the evening. Laila went to the market, bought a new dress, went to the salon and did a very sweet hairstyle for her hair. When Laila reached her friend's house, the bell rang.

So her friend Salma opened the door and said to her other companions: Come see the moon. The girls ran to the door.

What do the girls see?

(2). An example of a metaphor story: (A Fox : a cunning person).

سعيد و محمد أصحاب وبيتهم قريب من حديقة الحيوانات. أخذ سعيد من محمد خمس دنانير و حكا له بكرة بشترليك لعبة جديدة . و في اليوم الثاني شاف سعيد محمد فقوله الخمس دنانير ضاعوا مني فعرف محمد انه سعيد كذب عليه. و في اليوم الثاني راح محمد على المدرسة و حكى لأصحابه شوفوا هي الثعلب بمشي في الساحة.

ايش شاف محمد و اصحابه في الساحة؟

Saeed and Mohamed are friends and their houses are close to the zoo. Saeed took five dinars from Muhammad and said to him I would buy a new game for you the day after. On the following day, Saeed saw Muhammad r, and he told him the five dinars had lost from me, so Muhammad knew that Saeed had lied to him. And on the following day, Muhammad went to school and told his friends "see the fox is walking in the yard".

What did Muhammad and his friends see in the yard?

(3). An example of a metaphor story: (A lion : a brave person).

كان سعيد شجاع كثير و يحب صحابه و بدافع عنهم و كان يحب يحضر افلام عن الحيوانات المفترسة زي الاسود و النمر. و في يوم من الايام ساعد سعيد ولد صغير و وقع في الحفرة. و في اليوم الثاني من مساعدته للولد وصل سعيد على المدرسة فسمع الاولاد يحكوا تعوا شوفو الاسد؟ ايش شافوا الاولاد؟

Saeed was very brave and loves his companions and defended them, and he likes to watch films about predatory animals such as lions and tigers. And one day Saeed helped a little boy who had fallen in a hole. And on the following day, Saeed arrived at the school, and he heard the children saying, "Do you see the lion"?

What did the children see?

(4). An example of a metaphor story: (An Oven : a warm room).

كان سمير و احمد يلعبوا كرة قدم في الملعب في فصل الشتاء كانوا فرحانين كثير بس بنفس الوقت بردانين و لما غربت الشمس رجعوا على البيت و دخلوا على غرفتهم النوم كانت امهم مشغلة التدفئة فيها من الصبح فحكوا يا سلام هاي فرن. ايش الفرن الي بيحكوا عنه سمير و احمد؟

Samir and Ahmed were playing football in the stadium in winter. They were very happy, but at the same time cold, and when the sun set, they returned home and entered their bedroom, their mother was heating it since morning, so they said, "Oh, my God, this is an oven".

What is the oven that Samir and Ahmed are talking about?

(5). An example of a metaphor story: (An Angel : a kind person).

كان علي شخص منيح و طيب و يحب كل الناس و يساعد المحتاجين و كل الصغار كانوا يحبوا لانه يحكيهم قصص و حكايا خيالية و بيوم من الايام زار علي بيت جارهم لؤي لانه وعد اولاد لؤي انه يحكيهم قصة الامير النائم و لما فتح لؤي الباب لحتى يفتح لعلي الباب حكي لا اولاده تعوا شوفوا الملاك؟ ايش شافوا الاولاد؟

Ali was a good and kind person and loved all people and helped the needy. All children loved him because he told them stories and fairy tales. One day, Ali visited their neighbor (Loay) because he promised Loay's children that he would tell them the story of the sleeping prince, and when Loay opened the door to open for him, he told his children, come and see the angel?

What did the children see?

(6). An example of a metaphor story: (Stones : heavy things).

ماجد طالب في مدرسه المدينة الجديدة و بروح على المدرسة مشي لانها قريبة من بيته بس بكره يوم الاحد لانه عليه سبع حصص يعني بدوا يحمل في الشنته سبع كتب ثقلا فلما حمل الشنته نزلها على الارض و حكي هاي حجار؟ ايش الحجار الي يحكي عنها ماجد؟

Majed is a student in the new city school and he goes to the school on foot because it is close to his house. Tomorrow, he will carry seven heavy books in the bag because he has seven classes. When he carried the bag, he threw it on the ground and said "they are stones" What are the stones that Majid is talking about?

(7). An example of a metaphor story: (Honey : a lovely girl).

كانت ام احمد في المستشفى لانها جابت طفلة جديدة اسمها سارة. اول ما وصلت البيت و اجى احمد من المدرسه حكتله تعال يا ماما شوف العسل الي جبته؟ ايش شاف احمد؟

Umm Ahmed was in the hospital because she had a new baby called Sarah. As soon as she got home and Ahmed came from school, she told him, "come on, Mama, see the honey that I brought?"

What did Ahmad see ?

(8). An example of a metaphor story: (A cow : a fat person).

كان سامر ولد ناصح كثير و يحب يلعب لعبة شد الحبل و كان ابوه بربي حيوانات بجنب البيت و بيوم من الايام نادى صحابه عشان يلعبوا معه فلما اجوا صحابه و بلشوا يلعبوا صاروا يحكوا البقرة مش قادرة تشد الحبل؟ مين البقرة؟

Sameer was a very fat boy and he loved to play the tug-of-war game a lot. His father kept animals near the house, and one day he called his friends to play with him, so when his friends came and started playing the tug-of-war game, they said the cow can't you pull the rope? Who is the cow?

(9). An example of a metaphor story: (A rocket : a fast person).

كان سعيد اسرع طالب في الصف ففاز في سباق الجري و حصل على الميدالية الذهبية و في نفس الوقت كان يحب يلعب بالطائرات و بياي لعبه بطير بالهوا و في اليوم الثاني لما اجوا صحابه على المدرسة و شافوه حكوا شطنا الطيارة بتلعب في الساحه. ايش شافوا الاولاد

Saeed was the fastest student in the class. He won the running race and won the gold medal. At the same time, he liked to play with airplanes, and he used to play with birds in the air. On the second day, when his friends came to the school and saw him, they said we saw the plane playing in the yard.

What did the boys see?

(10). An example of a metaphor story: (A prison : room).

نبيل يحب يلعب برة و ما يحب يدخل على البيت و كان يضل يعمل مشاكل مع اولاد الجيران و يضربهم و الكل كان يشكي منه فلما نادته امه وقت الغروب لينام في غرفته قلها مش داخل على السجن. وين بده يدخل نبيل؟

Nabil likes to play outside, and he doesn't like to enter the house, and he keeps making problems with the neighbors' children and beating them. Everyone has been complaining about him. When his mother calls him at sunset to sleep in his room, he says I do not want to enter the prison.

Where doesn't Nabil want to enter?

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Using the Motivation and Engagement Wheel to Examine the Interplay Between Learner Engagement, Motivation, Year Level, and Academic Achievement in an EFL Tertiary Context

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Abstract—This study utilized Martin's (1999-2022) Motivation and Engagement Wheel (MEW) framework and its associated Motivation and Engagement Scale for University/ College (MES-UC) students to identify four typologies based on positive and negative academic engagement and motivation. It also investigated the latent factors comprising positive and negative motivation and engagement that greatly impact second language (L2) learner academic achievement and the relationship between L2 learner engagement and motivation level, on one hand, and academic year level and grade point average (GPA) on the other. Data collected from 456 female undergraduates majoring in English at a public university in Saudi Arabia were analyzed using descriptive statistics and structural equation modeling. The results largely supported the hypothesized effects of positive engagement, positive motivation, and negative motivation and six of their latent factors on L2 learner academic achievement. It also showed that the participants' positive engagement and motivation levels decreased as they progressed in the academic years of their program.

Index Terms—L2 learner engagement, motivation, student achievement, academic year, Smart PLS-SEM

I. INTRODUCTION

Learner motivation and engagement in academic life are recognized as enablers (DiPerna & Elliott, 2002) that facilitate learning and academic success (Christenson et al., 2012; Bakker et al., 2015; Dotterer & Lowe, 2011). While engagement is associated with observable actions and behaviors (Martin et al., 2017), motivation is the force and energy that drive the relevant actions for learning and achieving. Mercer and Dörnyei (2020) stress that "no method of language teaching can deliver results without ensuring that students are actively engaged in the process" (p. 4). Engaged L2 learners enjoy deeper interest and greater motivation (Egbert, 2020).

In addition, learner engagement and motivation can result in improving their performance and achievement and increasing their satisfaction (Ma & Wei, 2022; Martin & Bolliger, 2018; Palos et al., 2019). Jang et al. (2010) recognize the importance of engagement for student learning. They state that "engagement is particularly important because it functions as a behavioral pathway through which students' motivational processes contribute to their subsequent learning and development, including the skills they develop and the grades they make" (p. 588). Thus, L2 learner motivation and engagement levels can be key determinants of their success and achievement.

Based on the above benefits of engagement and motivation for L2 learners, it is significant for L2 teachers to assess and evaluate the engagement and motivation levels of their learners. Such assessment will assist teachers in boosting and maintaining the engagement and motivation levels of their students who are already engaged and motivated so that they continue to achieve to their potential (Martin, 2019). Similarly, when identifying disaffected and unmotivated learners, teachers can design appropriate intervention plans to actively involve and engage them in their language learning, thus increasing their chances for success (Mercer, 2019).

A widely utilized and validated conceptual model to evaluate university learner academic engagement and motivation and identify learner typologies is Martin's (1999-2022) Motivation and Engagement Wheel (MEW) and its associated Motivation and Engagement Scale for University/ College (MES-UC) students. Elphinstone and Tinker (2017), Yin and Wang (2016), and Yu et al. (2019) employed the MEW along with the MES-UC to identify student engagement and motivation typologies. The MES-UC provides good model fit, reliability, and is invariant across younger and older university students and gender (Martin, 2009).

The purpose of the present study is to use Martin's MEW model and its accompanying MES-UC (2022) to assess the motivation and engagement of a sample of 456 Saudi undergraduate English-major students and identify their engagement and motivation typologies. The study also aims to find out the effect of the MEW's four higher-order factors and their 11 first-order factors on the academic achievement of the participants as reflected in their grade point

average (GPA). The interplay between the higher-order and first-order factors and L2 learner academic year level will also be explored. The study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent are Saudi undergraduate English-major students motivated and engaged in their learning?
2. Are Saudi undergraduate English-major students' levels of motivation and engagement consistent with their GPA?
3. How do Saudi undergraduate English-major learner motivation and engagement levels vary as they progress from the first to the fourth academic year in the program?
4. What factors have the greatest impact on Saudi undergraduate English-major learner engagement and motivation levels and their academic achievement?

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The conceptual framework guiding the present study is Martin's updated MEW model and its associated MES-UC (2022). The MEW is a framework made up of 11 factors that fall within four higher-order factors. The first higher-order factor is positive motivation, which reflects students' positive attitudes and orientations towards their academic learning. This dimension is comprised of three first-order factors: self-belief, valuing, and learning focus. Self-belief reflects enabling agentic cognitive and emotional responses to challenges in academic learning. In tandem with self-belief to gain desirable academic outcomes (Schunk & Mullen, 2012), valuing entails that students who value the task are more motivated to carry it out and move to a higher level (Martin, 2022). Learning focus stems from the goal orientation framework and focuses on mastery and performance goals.

The second higher-order construct is positive engagement, which reflects learners' positive behavior and engagement in their learning. This factor subsumes three first-order behavioral factors: planning, task management, and persistence. Planned behavior includes planning work and assignments and keeping track of progress. Task management refers to how students organize and manage their study time. Persistence entails continuing to work on a challenging task until it is accomplished.

The third higher-order factor is negative motivation, reflecting students' attitudes and orientations that handicap academic learning. It comprises three first-order factors: anxiety, failure avoidance, and uncertain control. Anxiety has been identified as having a debilitating effect on L2 learning and achievement (Dewaele et al., 2018). Failure avoidance, characterized by fear of failure, results in students' attempts to find excuses to justify their setbacks. Uncertain control refers to learners' uncertainty about their ability to succeed or avoid failure.

Finally, negative engagement entails two first-order factors: self-sabotage and disengagement. Self-sabotage means that students actively handicap their chances of success, while disengagement refers to the fact that learners may abandon effort and give up (Covington, 2000).

Martin (1999-2022) integrated several theoretical perspectives into the MEW model. Figure 1 below clearly matches the 11 factors with the theoretical perspectives that informed their synthesis within the MEW model to help conceptualize positive and negative engagement and motivation.

Central theoretical perspectives and associated constructs that inform the Motivation and Engagement Wheel. Reproduced from Martin, A.J. (1999-2022). *Motivation and Engagement Scale: Test User Manual*. Sydney: Lifelong Achievement Group, with permission from Lifelong Achievement Group (www.lifelongachievement.com)

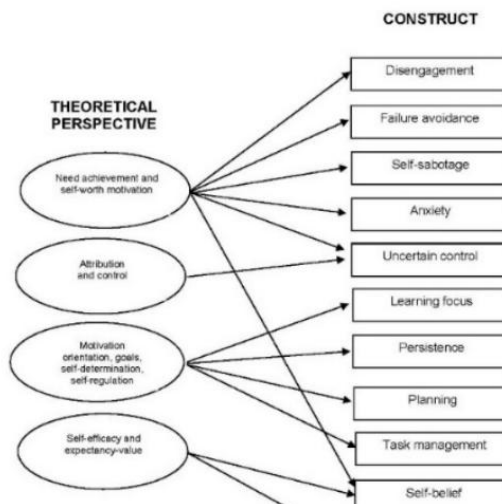


Figure 1 Theoretical Perspectives that Inform the MEW

For example, the self-belief and valuing factors located within the positive motivation quadrant align with self-efficacy, which stipulates that how people behave is often better predicated on the beliefs they hold about their

capabilities than on what they are capable of accomplishing (Bandura, 2006). The uncertain control factor included in the negative motivation quadrant is informed by the controllability dimension of Weiner's (1986) attribution theory. Controllability refers to achievement causes that can (e.g., skills) or cannot (e.g., luck) be controlled (Weiner, 1986). Chan and Moore (2006) emphasized the need to help learners attribute failure to controllable causes and gain control over their learning.

The MES-UC has been used to measure the motivation and engagement levels of university learners. Fredricks and McColskey (2012) recognized the MES-UC as a comprehensive measure with strong empirical and theoretical support for investigating student behavioral, affective, and cognitive engagement and motivation. The MES-UC has been validated for the university learner population and found to be reliable in research conducted on undergraduate students (e.g., Edgar, 2015; Elphinstone & Tinker, 2017; Fredricks & McColskey, 2012; Martin, 2008; Wu, 2019; Wurf & Croft-Piggin, 2015; Yin & Wang, 2016; Yu et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the MEW model and its associated MES-UC enable scholars to establish a relationship between the academic year level at university and the degree of engagement and motivation of students. For example, Shi et al. (2011) reported that first-year students were more motivated and engaged in their academic life, while third- and fourth-year students were motivated but less engaged and placed less significance on their learning. However, Yin and Wang (2016) revealed in their study that second-year students were less motivated and engaged due to their academic burdens compared to first-year students. Such varied results from one context to another could reflect the adaptability of the MEW model and its associated MES-UC to be implemented in a variety of contexts.

Based on the above discussion of the MEW and its associated MES-UC, the present study proposes the following research hypotheses:

- H1: Positive engagement significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H2: Positive motivation significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H3: Negative engagement significantly and negatively influences student achievement.
- H4: Negative motivation significantly and negatively influences student achievement.
- H5(a): Learning focus significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H5(b): Self-belief significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H5(c): Valuing significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H6(a): Persistence significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H6(b): Planning significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H6(c): Task management significantly and positively influences student achievement.
- H7(a): Anxiety significantly and negatively influences student achievement.
- H7(b): Failure avoidance significantly and negatively influences student achievement.
- H7(c): Uncertain control significantly and negatively influences student achievement.
- H8(a): Self-sabotage significantly and negatively influences student achievement.
- H8(b): Disengagement significantly and negatively influences student achievement.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Study Context and Participants*

This study was conducted in a four-year Bachelor of Arts in English Language program at a female campus of a large public university in Saudi Arabia. The EFL program consists of 120 credit hours of coursework, including 14 credit hours of cultural preparation courses in Arabic and 106 credit hours of content subject matter courses in language skills, linguistics, English literature, and translation. In the academic year 2021-2022, the total number of enrolled female students was 947. All students enrolled in the program were sent an email in Arabic, informing them about the research topic and aims and seeking their voluntary participation. The students were asked to complete the Arabic version of the MES-UC, which was posted online using Google Forms. Individual consent was obtained from each student at the start of the survey. A total of 456 participants completed the MES-UC. The participants' demographics are presented in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC STATISTICS

	Frequency	Percent	Total
Year			456
1	74	16.2	
2	128	28.1	
3	140	30.7	
4	114	25.0	
GPA			456
A	123	27.0	
A+	3	0.7	
B	86	18.9	
B+	59	12.9	
C	73	16.0	
C+	26	5.7	
D	52	11.4	
D+	34	7.5	

B. Instrument

In this research, the instrument for data collection was the MES-UC. A few questions asking the participants to indicate their academic year level and GPA were added. Dörnyei (2010) provided guidance on translating questionnaires from one language to another, and two experienced, certified translators translated the survey from English to Arabic, as "the quality of the obtained data increases if the questionnaire is presented in the respondents' own mother tongue" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 49). The MES-UC consists of 44 items that assess 11 first-order factors. The following are samples of the MES-UC items used to assess the 11 factors:

1. Self-belief: "If I work hard enough, I believe I can get on top of my university work."
2. Valuing: "It is important to understand what I am taught in university."
3. Learning: "I feel very pleased with myself when I learn new things in university."
4. Planning: "I usually stick to a study timetable or study plan for university."
5. Task management: "When I study for university, I usually study at times I can concentrate."
6. Persistence: "When I'm taught something that is difficult, I keep trying till I understand it."
7. Anxiety: "In terms of university, I consider myself anxious and nervous."
8. Failure avoidance: "Often the main reason I work in my English courses is because I do not want people to think I am stupid and a loser."
9. Uncertain control: "I'm often unsure how I can avoid doing poorly again".
10. Self-sabotage: "I sometimes do things other than study the night before an exam, so I have an excuse if I do not do well on the exam."
11. Disengagement: "I don't really care about university anymore."

Each item was measured using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), with a maximum sub-score of 28 (7 x 4) for each factor. Each dimension was weighted by 3.57, and the overall score was calculated by aggregating all the sub-scores, with a maximum total score of 100.

C. Data Analysis

IBM SPSS v28 was used to perform descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, and ANOVA). The missing value analysis revealed that there were no missing values, so no cases were dropped or imputed. To test the significance of score differences by level, ANOVA analysis was conducted along with the post-hoc Tukey test. K-means cluster analysis was also performed to identify student typologies, and the subsequent clusters were related to the academic year level and student achievement using the Chi-square test. Furthermore, structural equation modeling was used to test the proposed hypotheses (Hair et al., 2011). The relationships were computed using Partial Least Square Smart PLS 3.3.4 (Senaviratna & Cooray, 2019). The use of Smart PLS was justified because it increases the possibility of producing correct calculations of moderating impact (Hair et al., 2022). Smart PLS also provides good validity and reliability for the measurement constructs. The two-step method suggested by Hair et al. (2022) and the bootstrapping procedure recommended by Hair et al. (2011) will be used to determine the level of significance for the regression coefficients, with a resample size of 5000 for the algorithm and bootstrapping method.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Engagement and Motivation Levels

The first research question aims to find out to what extent Saudi English-major students are motivated and engaged in their learning. The summary statistics for the MEW four higher-order factors (a second-order measurement model) and 11 factors (a first-order measurement model) were computed and presented in Table 2 and Table 3, respectively.

TABLE 2
4-FACTOR SUMMARY STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS (N = 456)

	Mean	SD	Correlation Coefficients				
			Cronbach	1	2	3	4
1. Positive Motivation	79.78	20.109	.837				
2. Positive Engagement	74.52	21.112	.880	.924			
3. Negative Motivation	40.41	22.400	.795	-.911	-.923		
4. Negative Engagement	38.40	23.664	.846	-.899	-.917	.910	1.000

* - all coefficients <0.05

TABLE 3
11-FACTOR SUMMARY STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS (N = 456)

	Mean	SD	Correlation Coefficients												
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
1. Learning Focus	83.51	20.965													
2. Valuing	79.20	20.852	.815												
3. Self-Belief	76.63	22.333	.817	.847											
4. Planning	70.93	21.574	.789	.840	.844										
5. Task Management	76.06	22.439	.776	.826	.840	.826									
6. Persistence	76.57	22.991	.789	.814	.867	.853	.841								
7. Anxiety	43.66	25.021	-.807	-.820	-.845	-.828	-.830	-.855							
8. Failure Avoidance	38.30	22.341	-.725	-.769	-.772	-.770	-.790	-.769	.791						
9. Uncertain Control	39.27	24.604	-.785	-.813	-.843	-.823	-.813	-.839	.858	.769					
10. Self-Sabotage	40.12	24.863	-.791	-.813	-.833	-.839	-.833	-.850	.860	.756	.839				
11. Disengagement	36.69	24.540	-.783	-.824	-.815	-.824	-.802	-.831	.840	.749	.827	.835	1.00		

* - all coefficients <0.05

From the overall findings, Table 2 shows that higher scores were reported for positive motivation (M = 79.78, SD = 20.109) and positive engagement (M = 74.52, SD = 21.112), while lower scores were received for negative motivation (M = 40.41, SD = 22.400) and negative engagement (M = 38.40, SD = 23.664). According to the user manual (Martin, 2022), higher scores are better for positive factors and lower scores are better for negative factors. These results confirm that among the participants, positive motivation and engagement were more prevalent than negative motivation and engagement. All the intercorrelations were statistically significant.

With respect to positive motivation, the highest rating was for learning focus (M = 83.51, SD = 20.965), followed by valuing (M = 79.20, SD = 20.582), and the lowest was self-belief (M = 76.63, SD = 22.333) as shown in Table 3. For positive engagement, persistence (M = 76.57, SD = 22.991) had the highest mean rating, while task management (M = 76.06, SD = 22.439) was second, and planning (M = 70.93, SD = 21.574) was the lowest. On the other hand, for negative motivation, anxiety (M = 43.66, SD = 25.021) was rated higher, followed by uncertain control (M = 39.27, SD = 24.604), and the lowest was failure avoidance (M = 38.30, SD = 22.341). For negative engagement, self-sabotage (M = 40.12, SD = 24.863) had the highest mean rating, while disengagement (M = 36.69, SD = 24.540) was the lowest. All the intercorrelations were statistically significant.

B. The Relationship Between Academic Year and Student Engagement and Motivation

This study also aimed to examine the relationship between the academic year level of the participants and their levels of engagement and motivation. ANOVA analysis was conducted to determine if the mean ratings were significantly different based on the participants' academic year level. The results for the MES-UC are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
ANOVA - COMPARISON OF MES BY ACADEMIC YEAR LEVEL (N = 456)

	Year Level								ANOVA	
	1		2		3		4		F	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Learning Focus	87.31 _a	17.39	86.66 _a	19.63	80.74 _b	23.11	80.89 _b	21.16	3.229	0.022
Valuing	83.54 _{a,b}	19.09	84.07 _a	17.77	75.87 _{b,c}	22.44	75.00 _c	21.69	6.345	0.000
Self-Belief	79.58 _{a,b}	20.85	80.80 _a	20.66	74.29 _{a,b}	23.33	72.90 _b	23.07	3.555	0.014
Planning	73.79 _a	22.35	73.35 _a	19.11	69.62 _a	23.12	67.95 _a	21.45	1.881	0.132
Task Management	78.14 _a	21.95	79.32 _a	18.77	73.57 _a	25.46	74.09 _a	22.27	1.994	0.114
Persistence	80.89 _a	22.46	79.35 _a	21.01	73.14 _a	25.00	74.87 _a	22.34	2.274	0.081
Anxiety	40.49 _a	24.18	40.76 _a	22.31	46.35 _a	26.72	45.68 _a	26.01	1.763	0.154
Failure Avoidance	37.74 _a	23.24	36.38 _a	21.25	38.70 _a	22.85	40.32 _a	22.41	0.653	0.581
Uncertain Control	35.18 _a	22.79	35.66 _a	22.15	41.94 _a	26.10	42.70 _a	25.80	2.124	0.097
Self-Sabotage	37.21 _a	23.07	36.72 _a	24.23	43.42 _a	26.45	41.76 _a	24.29	2.139	0.095
Disengagement	32.87 _{a,b}	23.96	32.42 _a	20.80	40.38 _b	25.76	39.41 _{a,b}	26.39	3.469	0.016
Positive Motivation	83.48 _{a,b}	17.77	83.84 _a	17.74	76.96 _b	21.67	76.26 _{b,c}	21.05	4.771	0.003
Positive Engagement	77.61 _a	21.18	77.34 _a	18.51	72.11 _a	23.05	72.31 _a	20.95	2.338	0.073
Negative Motivation	37.81 _a	21.52	37.60 _a	20.59	42.33 _a	23.69	42.90 _a	23.04	1.826	0.142
Negative Engagement	35.04 _{a,b}	22.74	34.57 _a	20.91	41.90 _b	25.33	40.59 _{a,b}	24.41	3.000	0.030

Note: Values in the same row and sub-table not sharing the same subscript are significantly different at $p < 0.05$ in the two-sided test of equality for means. Cells with no subscript are not included in the test. Tests assume equal variances.¹

1. Tests are adjusted for all pairwise comparisons within a row of each innermost sub-table using the Bonferroni correction.

The comparison of scores by academic year of study revealed that there were statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) mainly between first and second years and third and fourth years. These differences were observed for two broad factors: positive motivation ($F(3,452) = 4.771, p = 0.003$) and negative engagement ($F(3,452) = 3.00, p = 0.030$). The mean ratings for positive motivation were higher for the first and second years compared to the third and fourth years. On the other hand, the mean ratings for negative engagement were lower for the first and second years compared to the third and fourth years.

For positive motivation, significant differences were seen for the sub-dimension of valuing ($F(3,452) = 6.345, p = 0.000$), with the first and second years having higher mean ratings than the third and fourth years. The second major difference was observed for self-belief ($F(3,452) = 3.555, p = 0.014$), with the first and second years having higher mean ratings than the third and fourth years. The least significant difference was observed for learning focus ($F(3,452) = 3.229, p = 0.022$), with the first and second years having higher mean ratings than the third and fourth years. For negative engagement, the only sub-dimension with a significant difference among year levels was disengagement ($F(3,452) = 3.469, p = 0.016$), with the first and second years having lower mean ratings than the third and fourth years.

C. Learners' Engagement and Motivation Typologies

While the foregoing analysis provided an overall perspective of the engagement and motivation of students, to identify the dominant characteristics of the students and detect the student motivation and engagement typologies, a K-means cluster analysis was conducted for the four higher-order constructs of positive motivation, positive engagement, negative motivation, and negative engagement. The Gap statistic method determined that four clusters were optimum, and these four were extracted. The cluster plot is shown in Figure 2.

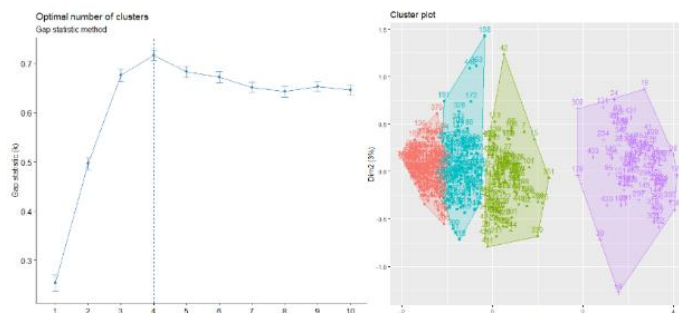


Figure 2 Optimal Clusters and Cluster Plot

To distinguish the typologies, a discriminant analysis was further carried out using the extracted clusters as the grouping variable and the four dimensions. The differences in the cluster attributes were found to be statistically significant, $\chi^2(12) = 1591.789, p < 0.05$. The extent of correct classification of the respondents was 97.6%, indicating the accuracy of the cluster analysis. The centered scale means for the four motivation and engagement dimensions are related to the clusters and are illustrated in Figure 3.

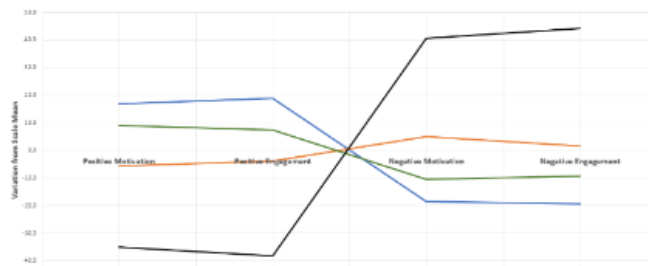


Figure 3 Centered Scale Means by Cluster

From the results, Cluster one, consisting of 146 highly engaged and motivated students, displayed high levels of positive motivation and engagement. Cluster two, consisting of 101 students with moderate negative engagement and negative motivation, had below-average levels of positive motivation and engagement but slightly above-average levels of negative motivation. Cluster three, consisting of 101 students with moderate positive engagement and motivation, had slightly above-average levels of positive motivation and engagement and slightly below-average levels of negative motivation and engagement. Lastly, Cluster four, consisting of highly demotivated and disengaged students, displayed high levels of negative motivation and negative engagement. The distribution of the clusters by academic year level and GPA is presented below.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF THE FOUR CLUSTERS BY LEVEL AND GPA

	Cluster								χ^2	p	
	Cluster 1		Cluster 2		Cluster 3		Cluster 4				
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			
Level Year 1	32	43.2	16	21.6	15	20.3	11	14.9	17.223	0.045	
Year 2	47	36.7	32	25.0	33	25.8	16	12.5			
Year 3	40	28.6	30	21.4	36	25.7	34	24.3			
Year 4	27	23.7	23	20.2	39	34.2	25	21.9			
GPA	D	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	52	100.0	986.098	0.000
	D+	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	34	100.0		
	C	0	0.0	67	91.8	6	8.2	0	0.0		
	C+	0	0.0	24	92.3	2	7.7	0	0.0		
	B	19	22.1	6	7.0	61	70.9	0	0.0		
	B+	15	25.4	4	6.8	40	67.8	0	0.0		
	A	109	88.6	0	0.0	14	11.4	0	0.0		
	A+	3	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0		

The results indicate that with respect to academic year level, the majority of highly motivated and engaged students (Cluster one) were in their first year (43.2%) and second year (36.7%), while the moderately motivated and engaged students (Cluster three) were distributed almost evenly across all levels. The same was true for moderately demotivated and disengaged students (Cluster two). However, the majority of completely demotivated and disengaged students were in their fourth year. The association between the clusters and academic year level was statistically significant, with a $\chi^2(9)$ value of 17.223 and a p-value of 0.045. Regarding the relationship between the clusters and student achievement, the majority of highly motivated and engaged students (Cluster one) had high grades, with 100% of those who received an A+ belonging to this cluster, as well as 88.6% of those who received an A. Moderately motivated and engaged students (Cluster three) were primarily associated with either a B or a B+, as 70.9% of students who received a B were in this cluster, along with 67.8% of students who received a B+. Moderately demotivated and disengaged students were associated with a C or C+, as 92.3% of students who received a C+ and 91.8% of students who received a C were in this cluster. Completely demotivated and disengaged students were primarily associated with a D or D+, with 100% of students who received either a D+ or a D belonging to this cluster. The association between the clusters and student achievement, expressed as GPA, was statistically significant, with a $\chi^2(21)$ value of 986.098 and a p-value of 0.000.

D. Hypotheses Testing: The Relationships Between MEW's Constructs on Student Achievement

The study also aimed to examine the relationship between motivation and engagement and student achievement, and to identify the most significant factors. To do this, a structural equation model (SEM) was used to test the hypotheses predicting the relationships between the four higher-order constructs, their underlying 11 constructs, and learner achievement. When evaluating structural equation modeling, it is important to check for *multi-collinearity* by examining the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). A VIF value of 5 or greater suggests potential collinearity problems (Hair et al., 2011). The study ran both first-order and second-order measurement models to test for VIF values and Table 6 shows that there is no collinearity issue between the dimensions in the study.

TABLE 6
MULTI-COLLINEARITY STATISTICS (VIF)

	First-Order Measurement Model	Second-Order Measurement Model
	Student achievement	
Anxiety	2.054	
Disengagement	1.452	
Failure Avoidance	4.209	
Learning Focus	1.908	
Persistence	3.071	
Planning	2.201	
Self-Belief	3.114	
Self-sabotage	2.740	
Student Achievement		
Task Management	3.084	
Uncertain Control	4.452	
Valuing	1.726	
Negative Engagement		2.012
Negative Motivation		1.892
Positive Engagement		1.071
Positive Motivation		1.123

In structural equation modeling, PLS-SEM is a technique that allows the estimation of complex causal relationships in path models that contain latent constructs (Wong, 2013). The statistical significance of several PLS-SEM outcomes can be tested using a non-parametric method known as bootstrapping (Ramayah et al., 2018). Thus, the study utilized the bootstrapping technique with 5000 sub-samples and the maximum iteration capacity. The "beta" values are regression coefficients that multiply the X data to predict the Y data. It is possible to visualize the relative importance of each explanatory variable by plotting the beta values associated with the respective X variables against the corresponding latent variables. The significance level is typically set at .05 in hypothesis testing and is referred to as alpha. For a 5% significance level, the t-value should be greater than +1.96, and the p-value should be less than 0.05 (Afthanorhan, 2013; Ramayah et al., 2018; Wong, 2013). The t-value is used to determine the truth of the hypotheses.

(a). *Second-Order Measurement Model*

Table 7 shows that positive engagement has a statistically significant and positive impact on student achievement ($\beta = 0.084, p = 0.044$), thus accepting hypothesis H1. Positive motivation has a statistically significant and positive impact on student achievement ($\beta = 0.695^{***}, p = 0.000$), thus accepting hypothesis H2. Negative engagement does not have a statistically significant impact on student achievement ($\beta = 0.014, p = 0.797$), thus rejecting hypothesis H3. Meanwhile, negative motivation has a statistically significant and negative impact on student achievement ($\beta = 0.095^*, p = 0.042$), thus accepting hypothesis H4.

TABLE 7
PATH COEFFICIENTS (SECOND-ORDER CONSTRUCTS)

	Original Sample (O)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
H3 Negative Engagement -> Student Achievement	0.014	0.257	0.797
H4 Negative Motivation -> Student Achievement	0.095	2.043	0.042
H1 Positive engagement -> Student Achievement	0.084	2.022	0.044
H2 Positive Motivation -> Student Achievement	0.695	25.503	0.000

The results of the analysis of the impact of student motivation and engagement on academic achievement using PLS-SEM are shown in Figure 4.

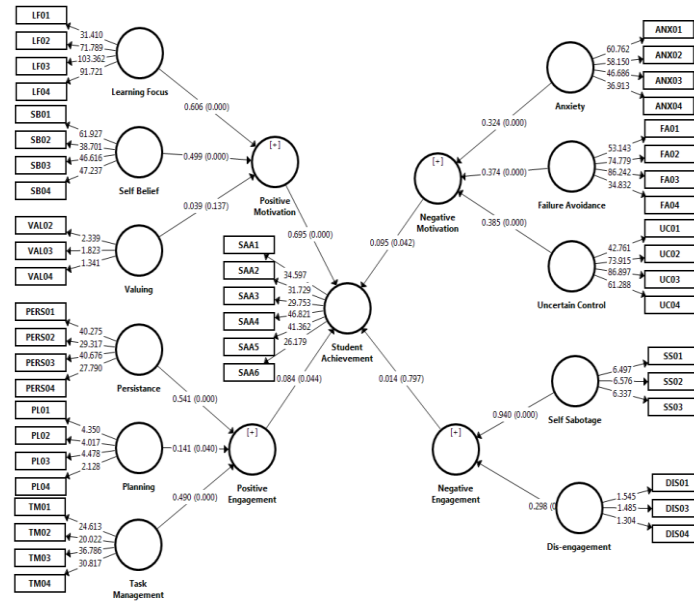


Figure 4 Second-Order Measurement Model

(b). First-Order Measurement Model

Table 8 shows the results of the PLS-SEM analysis that tested the effect of different motivational and engagement factors on student achievement. The results indicate that learning focus has a significant positive effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.310^{***}$, $p = 0.000$), so hypothesis H5(a) is accepted. Self-belief has a significant positive effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.263^{**}$, $p = 0.000$), so hypothesis H5(b) is accepted. Valuing does not have a significant positive effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.016$, $p = 0.688$), so hypothesis H5(c) is rejected. Persistence does not have a significant positive effect on student achievement ($\beta = -0.028$, $p = 0.601$), so hypothesis H6(a) is rejected. Planning has a significant positive effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.249^{***}$, $p = 0.000$), so hypothesis H6(b) is accepted. Task management does not have a significant positive effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.079$, $p = 0.174$), so hypothesis H6(c) is rejected. Anxiety has a significant negative effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.374^{**}$, $p = 0.007$), so hypothesis H7(a) is accepted. Failure avoidance does not have a significant negative effect on student achievement ($\beta = -0.087$, $p = 0.347$), so hypothesis H7(b) is rejected. Uncertain control has a significant negative effect on student achievement ($\beta = -0.222$, $p = 0.002$), so hypothesis H7(c) is accepted. Self-sabotage has a significant negative effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.140$, $p = 0.012$), so hypothesis H8(a) is accepted. Disengagement does not have a significant negative effect on student achievement ($\beta = 0.010$, $p = 0.808$), so hypothesis H8(b) is rejected.

TABLE 8
PATH COEFFICIENTS (FIRST-ORDER CONSTRUCTS)

	Original Sample (O)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
H7(a) Anxiety -> Student Achievement	0.374	2.698	0.007
H8(b) Disengagement -> Student Achievement	0.010	0.243	0.808
H7(b) Failure Avoidance -> Student Achievement	-0.087	0.941	0.347
H5(a) Learning Focus -> Student Achievement	0.310	5.714	0.000
H6(a) Persistence -> Student Achievement	-0.028	0.523	0.601
H6(b) Planning -> Student Achievement	0.249	4.459	0.000
H5(b) Self-Belief -> Student Achievement	0.263	4.404	0.000
H8(a) Self-sabotage -> Student Achievement	0.140	2.524	0.012
H6(c) Task Management -> Student Achievement	0.079	1.362	0.174
H7(c) Uncertain Control -> Student Achievement	-0.222	3.151	0.002
H5(c) Valuing -> Student Achievement	0.016	0.402	0.688

The corresponding SEM model that identifies the key motivation and engagement latent factors that have a significant impact on student achievement is presented in Figure 5.

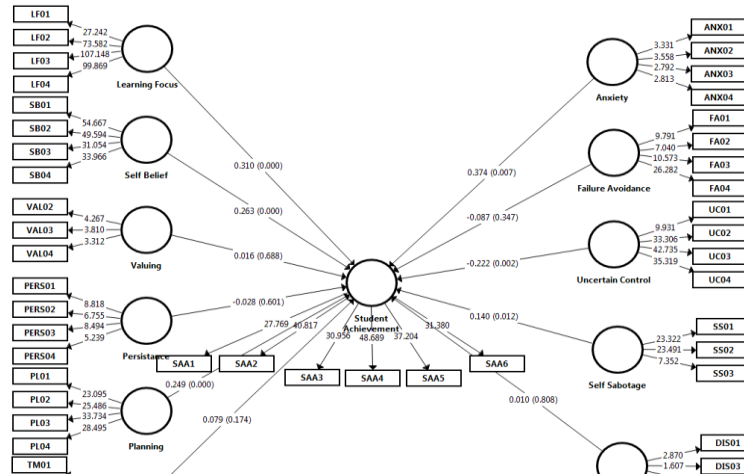


Figure 5 First-Order Measurement Model

Overall, while learning focus, self-belief, and planning significantly influenced student achievement in a positive way, anxiety, uncertain control, and self-sabotage had a negative effect on student achievement.

V. DISCUSSION

The results showed that the participants had a higher prevalence of positive motivation and engagement compared to their negative motivation and engagement. This study reported an average positive engagement level of 74.52%, which is in line with the average student engagement levels among university students in Greece (Dimitriadou et al., 2021), Germany (Körner et al., 2021), and China (Teuber et al., 2021).

This study identified four learner typologies based on their motivation and engagement patterns: highly engaged/motivated students, moderately disengaged/demotivated students, moderately engaged/motivated students, and highly disengaged/demotivated students. The majority of the demotivated and disengaged students were found in their third and fourth years of the program, while the majority of engaged and motivated students were in the first two years, and the relationship was statistically significant. Additionally, the majority of the demotivated and disengaged students had poor grades, while the majority of engaged and motivated students had higher grades. These findings support the premise of other empirical studies (e.g., Elphinstone & Tinker, 2017; Yin & Wang, 2016; Yu et al., 2019) that the MEW and its associated MES-UC are effective in identifying student typologies.

The primary factors that contributed to Cluster one's motivation and engagement were self-belief, valuing university, and persistence. These students can be considered "success-oriented students" (Martin, 2022, p. 19). Several studies have shown the positive impact of self-belief on academic success in EFL classes (e.g., Bassi et al., 2007; Kosimov, 2021; Tilfarlioğlu & Cinkara, 2009). According to the expectancy-value theory (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002), students with a strong belief in their ability to master their academic work typically have positive expectations for success. Additionally, valuing university study leads to higher levels of motivation and engagement (e.g., Fan & Feng, 2012; Varasteh et al., 2016). Martin (2022) also argues that "when students see the utility and importance of what they are taught, they tend to be more engaged and also achieve a higher level" (p. 21). Participants in Cluster one reflected these assumptions with their higher levels of motivation, engagement, valuing, and persistence despite academic and social challenges at university, which led them to excel in their studies. These results support the hypothesis that valuing can strengthen students' abilities and increase their willingness to continue their studies in the future.

The participants in the current study were highly motivated and engaged during the first two years of their program, but their passion for their studies decreased as they advanced to higher levels. This decline in motivation and engagement could be due to personal reasons or distractions in the sociocultural context, especially with modern technology, or the difficulty and complexity of specialized language and literary courses. Research supports this trend, as Martin (2020) and Busse and Walter (2013) found that year level has a significant impact on motivation and engagement, and Yin and Wang (2016) recorded lower levels of positive motivation and engagement among second-year students compared to first-year students. It is expected that the challenges of specialized courses at higher levels are difficult to handle when compared to first-year foundation courses. Such challenges may have made the participants lose control and become failure avoiders as indicated by the data.

The decline in student engagement and motivation levels as they progress through an academic program may indicate a failure by institutions and teachers to effectively connect with and engage students in their learning. The main concern is what has caused students in Clusters two and four, particularly in their third and fourth years at university, to lose motivation and engagement and receive lower cumulative grades of C, C+, D, and D+. Institutions can "help students develop a sense of belonging to provide them with important information on how to succeed at university" (Krause & Coats, 2008, p. 499). Early identification of students' typologies based on measurable factors such as engagement and motivation is likely to lead to more efficient results (Carter et al., 2012). The results of this study can inform the

creation of more effective interventions to improve student engagement in their studies and help them maintain it throughout their academic journey. With the findings indicating at which academic year levels students are more or less engaged, teachers can determine the appropriate timing and type of intervention. Maroco et al. (2016) argue that future research should concentrate on enhancing student engagement as a mediator to improve retention, learning outcomes, and achievement.

Another primary objective of this research was to investigate the impact of the four higher order factors and eleven first-order factors of the MEW on the academic performance of L2 learners. SEM was used to test the hypotheses. The results supported nine out of the fifteen hypotheses: H1, H2, H4, H5(a), H5(b), H6(b), H7(a), H7(c), and H8(a). Positive motivation (H2) was found to have the strongest effect on academic achievement. Positive engagement (H1) and negative motivation (H4) were also significant, while negative engagement (H3) was not. Positive engagement and motivation, along with low levels of negative motivation and disengagement, were found to be good indicators of academic achievement. Pomerantz et al. (2007) pointed out that positive engagement can contribute to academic achievement by providing access to motivation and cognitive skills. Among the 11 first-order factors, learning focus (H5(a)), self-belief (H5(b)), and planning (H6(b)) were significantly and positively associated with academic achievement, while anxiety (H7(a)), uncertain control (H7(c)), and self-sabotage (H8(a)) had a negative effect. Strategies to enhance students' self-belief, learning focus, planning, task management, and persistence can help promote a sense of control over their studies and academic outcomes (Martin, 2019). This sense of control can prevent learners from becoming anxious, avoiding failure, or engaging in self-sabotage and disengagement.

VI. CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This study was the first empirical study to utilize Martin's MEW model and its associated MES-UC in the Saudi university context to examine L2 learners' engagement and motivation. Four typologies of students were identified based on their engagement and motivation patterns. The study also investigated the latent factors of positive and negative motivation and engagement, which greatly impact L2 learner academic achievement. It also examined the relationship between L2 learner engagement and motivation, on one hand, and their academic year level and GPA, on the other. The results largely supported the hypothesized effects of positive engagement, positive motivation, negative motivation, and six of their latent factors on L2 learner academic achievement. The study showed that the participants' positive engagement and motivation levels decreased as they progressed in their academic years. This study indicates that the MES-UC is a suitable scale for measuring university learner engagement and motivation. It also provides useful implications for Saudi universities to widely employ the MES-UC to assess their students' engagement and motivation levels so they can identify disengaged and unmotivated students and design suitable intervention programs to enhance their engagement and motivation. In line with Coates' (2005) argument, Saudi higher education institutions are encouraged to consider information about student engagement and motivation when determining and improving the quality of their academic programs and outcomes.

This study has a few limitations. Firstly, convenient sampling was used to recruit participants, meaning that highly motivated or engaged L2 learners may have chosen to participate in the study, and thus the findings may not reflect the views of disengaged learners. Secondly, as the sample was collected from one English language program at a female campus in a Saudi university, the findings may not be generalizable to male students, other programs, and institutions. Since this is a cross-sectional study, future researchers are recommended to conduct longitudinal studies using different instruments (e.g., questionnaires, observations, interviews, diaries) to follow the same participants and evaluate their engagement and motivation at different points throughout their four years of study and examine the multiple factors that shape learner engagement and motivation typologies and levels.

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The Effect of Android Application on EFL Students' Mastery of Research Method for Applied Linguistics Course

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Abstract—Covid-19 pandemic has forced online classes to be conducted mostly without proper introduction and preparation. This shift also made teachers and students gradually accustomed to independent learning. Several mobile applications have been developed for foreign language learning. However, only few Android applications were developed for non-linguistic courses offered by foreign language departments at the university level. The effectiveness of such an application to improve students' learning in universities, therefore, has not been conducted. This article reports the finding of a quasi-experimental research on the effect of using an Android application tailored for Research Method for Applied Linguistics students at an English department on their mastery of the course. The research data were collected through tests and a documentary study and calculated using ANCOVA statistical calculation. With the course mastery as the dependent variable, the use of Android application as the independent variable, and reading skills as covariates, the research revealed that the use of Android Learning Application significantly improves the EFL students' mastery of Research Methods for Applied Linguistics course. Further researchers are suggested to study the effect of the use of Android learning application on EFL students' mastery of a non-language course with significantly different students' levels of reading skills.

Index Terms—mobile learning, autonomous learning, android learning application, learning mastery, EFL students

I. INTRODUCTION

Covid-19 pandemic has affected various aspects of education. Many countries, including Indonesia, have implemented lockdown policy in 2020-2021. Consequently, many classrooms were closed. According to UNESCO (2021), 1.6 billion students and youth were affected by the pandemic. University learning has also been impacted by the pandemic (Ghazal et al., 2022). This situation required a solution. As one of the solutions, universities have switched to online learning to avoid direct contact between students and teachers, thereby preventing the spread of COVID-19. Online learning is an umbrella term for several concepts, including the use of learning management system (LMS) which is useful to maintain students' involvement in education (Alturki & Aldraiweesh, 2021). LMS makes students more flexible during the pandemic and in the future (Raza et al., 2021). LMS requires teachers' and students' familiarity with the environment. Those who are not ready would also use virtual meeting applications, such as Zoom and Google Meet (Wiyono et al., 2021).

However, such a platform causes zoom fatigue or mental and physical exhaustion after virtual meetings (Fosslien & Duffy, 2020). Prolonged intense stare at the monitor caused this exhaustion (Bailenson, 2020) and the occasional inappropriate size of the shared materials (Morris, 2020). In addition, objects visible and improper words in the chat box may become a distraction (Fosslien & Duffy, 2020; Wiederhold, 2020). In such a situation, a supplemental application, which is more practical than LMS and virtual class meetings, needs to be developed, and its effectiveness assessed.

One more flexible supplemental application is the mobile phone application. Many studies have been conducted to study or develop a single medium for learning English using a mobile phone (e.g., Ally & Samaka, 2013; Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009; Rohani et al., 2019; Thornton & Houser, 2005). Research by Oz (2015) also proved English teachers' high interest in using cellphones or tablets for English learning. At the institutional level (Polinema), research by Rohani et al. (2019) resulted in an output of self-learning Android applications for Polinema students, which has also been proven effective. The effectiveness of mobile phones as a medium for learning English as a foreign language has

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been widely proven by Sandberg et al. (2011). Hamdani (2013) mentions the benefits of using mobile devices to improve higher-order thinking skills.

Android phones are among the most popular types of mobile phone. Profit companies have developed several learning applications for Android. Such applications include Duolingo, Busuu, Rosetta Store, and Memrise. They have been proven to be beneficial for English language learning during the pandemic. The applications are said to improve students' language skills, motivation, and confidence (Mubarok et al., 2021). Yudhiantara (2017) found that students had positive perceptions and attitudes toward using mobile phones to support classroom activities, including reading e-books, playing audio and video, and opening offline dictionaries. Although such an application is interesting, one drawback for the students is that it has been developed without considering their course contents.

The use of a mobile learning tool and online learning means partially or wholly activating independent learning. The use of technology for self-learning has been studied and proven effective. Benson (2007) and Smith (2009) have mentioned the effectiveness of independent or autonomous learning. Previous research in Indonesia by Kweldju (1998) also found the same result.

Some research has also revealed that online learning is useful for elementary school-to-university teaching programs. For example, Ghazal et al. (2022) found that university students prefer online learning, especially for remedial and free materials. Suparjan and Ismiyani (2002) revealed that Google Classroom improves elementary schoolteachers' motivation to teach.

The use of mobile phones for language learning has attracted the attention of many researchers. Thornton and Houser (2005) and Cavus and Ibrahim (2009) provide two examples of research in this field. Mobile phones with various features can be used to enhance learning. Automatic speech recognition (ASR) is beneficial for foreign language learners to improve their pronunciation and intonation, as studied by Bain et al. (2002), Chiu et al. (2007), Golonka et al. (2014), and Shadiev et al. (2016). The last is a study conducted by Rohani et al. (2018) in designing a mobile learning application for independent English learning using mobile phones and applying ASR.

None of the studies reviewed above examined the use of a mobile phone application to improve students' mastery of non-linguistic topics, such as research method topics, discussed in a foreign language program. This study aimed to find empirical proof of whether an Android application specifically designed as a tool to learn extra learning material can help university students majoring in English improve their mastery of Research Method for Applied Linguistics course content. As the review of the literature suggests that reading affects learning, this study also includes reading skill as a covariant. Thus, this research is to answer whether the use of an android application significantly improves students' mastery of Research Method for Applied Linguistics course.

The present study attempts to address a gap in research on the effect of Android applications on EFL students' mastery of non-English courses. In doing so, it contributes importantly. First, it extends the limited research on the understanding of the effect of Android applications containing texts and video files in English, on EFL Students' mastery of non-English courses. This study was among the first to examine the use of an Android application by English students to support non-English courses.

The rest of this article is organized as follows: the review of related literature is presented in Section 2, and the research method is outlined in Section 3. Section 4 describes the findings, including the ANCOVA statistical analysis of the effect of using the Android application on the Research Method for Applied Linguistics score improvement of the English Department students of the State Polytechnic of Malang, Indonesia. The next section discusses the findings. Finally, the conclusions are presented in Section 6.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Self-Learning (Autonomous Learning)*

Learning using a mobile Android application involves independent learning. Independent learning, also called self-learning and autonomous learning, was promoted first in 1975 by Disick (1975). Autonomous learning is a learning approach that offers students a free choice for four dimensions: goals, time, methods, and learning content (Disick, 1975). This level of learning independence varies and does not have to cover all dimensions; it can also be adjusted according to students' condition.

In line with Disick, Benson (2007) defines autonomy as the capacity to take charge of, take responsibility for, or control over, students' learning. Autonomy also includes the abilities and attitudes of the learners who adjust to the degree of autonomy. Likewise, Holec in Smith (2008) highlights learners' autonomy as their ability to control or organize their learning, including goals, materials, syllabi, methods or techniques, time and place, and evaluation procedures. This is directed more towards the learning circuit. This is known as the total application of self-learning. However, self-learning does not have to be total because it can be adjusted to the conditions and needs of learners.

Benson (2007) and Smith (2009) have mentioned the effectiveness of independent or autonomous learning. Previous research in Indonesia by Kweldju (1998) found the same. However, cultural constraints are obstacles to the implementation of autonomous learning in Indonesia (Dardjowidjojo, 2001). Thus, it is necessary to adjust the application of independent learning.

Some studies have shown that autonomous learning has a significant positive impact on learning. Hockings et al. (2018) demonstrated an increase in higher levels of extending and applying skills, where students' skills in using learned knowledge and exploration skills are increasing. Cukurova et al. (2017) also proved the effectiveness of independent learning in improving students' ability to understand and apply the learned knowledge in everyday life.

B. Mobile Learning

Learning using mobile application can be categorized into mobile learning. Mobile learning itself can be interpreted as learning using mobile media or learning done by mobile learners (Kukulka-Hulme, 2009). Qiu (2019) summarizes that mobile learning is an extension of digital learning where students independently get information and learning resources and learn anytime and anywhere using a miniature of mobile computer and mobile internet technology.

The development of learning media based on mobile learning is rapid and the use of mobile learning media should accommodate learners' interests. Mobile phones are the most practical and cost effective (Molnar, 2014). Mobile phones are widely used for many purposes, especially for independent and self-directed learning.

The widespread use of mobile devices in recent years has given rise to the acronym MALL (Mobile -assisted language learning). This term reminds ones of CALL (computer assisted language learning). MALL and CALL share common feature of using information technology tools. However, in MALL continuity or spontaneity of access is better accommodated students can use their mobile gadgets across various contexts of time and place and, therefore, enable new ways of learning (Kukulka-Hulme & Shields, 2008).

Learners' mobility impacts the ever-changing learning environment. However, mobile technology is only one of the learning technologies. Therefore, how to fit this technology into educational interaction is important (Kukulka-Hulme et al., 2009). Self-learning tailored to the needs of students must accommodate their needs, including the need to improve the four components of language: vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and cultural understanding. Thus, the developed mobile learning media can use updated features, such as automatic speech recognition (ASR) to display the pronunciation of one word or phrase, correct the intonation of one sentence, and assess learners' recorded voice results. The effectiveness of ASR has also been proven in numerous studies (e.g., Bain et al., 2002; Neri et al., 2003).

New learning methods have been made possible by mobile technologies. The efficiency of concept mapping combined with Short Message Service (SMS) for EFL learners' vocabulary learning was examined by the researcher. The test scores showed that the idea mapping group greatly outperformed the random group on the translation portion after receiving English vocabulary courses through SMS (Chen & Chung, 2008).

C. Android Learning Application

Publications on Android learning applications can be seen in journals starting at least in 2010-s. Around the time, it was still a new field (Li et al., 2014). The development of the use of learning media based on mobile learning is rapid, and the use of mobile learning media should accommodate the interests of learners, including visually impaired students (Azmi et al., 2017).

Hanafi and Samsudin (2012) found that mobile learning application was useful and inexpensive for undergraduate students and at the time Internet connection was still a problem in Malaysia. Mobile phone learning applications are the most practical, in addition to their cost-effective nature (Molnar, 2014). Therefore, many applications have been developed for various formal learning levels and fields.

Reports on Android application for university students of foreign language department have been published. Some applications are commercially built, while others are developed by individual universities or study programs for their students' needs. Currently, there are over fifty commercial mobile phone applications available on the market. Heil et al. (2016) reviewed 55 mobile applications for language learnings and found that they tended to teach isolated vocabulary units, with minimal adaptation to address students' individual skills, and they also did not provide corrective feedback.

Gangaiamaran and Pasupathi (2017) reviewed 28 mobile applications for second language learning developed for primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. They classified the mobile application into applications for primary school learners, secondary school learners and tertiary level learners. This classification should help students in choosing the appropriate applications.

To get a better suited mobile learning application, some developers or institutions have developed their own mobile applications. Android learning applications have been developed for the learning of English and other languages, for examples, for Japanese language (Kurniawan & Novita, 2019) for Germany (Friedl et al., 2020), and for Arabic (Suheri, 2021). However, no foreign language department has developed an Android Learning Application for non-language courses taught in the department. This research is to fill the blank.

D. Mobile Learning Application Effectiveness

Mobile android applications have been reported to help improve students' scores and skills. There has been some research on the effect of using android application to improve university students' scores. Ningsih and Adesti (2020) found that Android application can improve the students' scores of Learning Strategy course. A study by Ulfa et al. (2017) revealed that mobile based learning application use improves senior school students' creativity and cognitive achievement.

Mobile applications are also reported to have been able to improve students' language skills or mastery. Gangaiamaran and Pasupathi (2017) reported that integration of mobile learning application materials into the second language reading course affected positively the students' reading skills at low-level of the learning process. Further, they found that the applications improve listening skills better than other language skills. Al-Jarf (2022), for example, found that mobile application can help improve students' reading comprehension, literary appreciation, and text analysis skills.

Nalliveettil and Alenazi (2016) found that all English teachers and most of undergraduate students thought that mobile phones could improve students' ability to learn English language. In addition, students generally also have positive attitudes towards mobile English language learning applications (Cheng & Kim, 2019). However, it is necessary to realize that mobile applications are relatively new learning foreign language format, and it is good as an additional way of learning (Kruchinin & Bagrova, 2020). Arifin et al. (2020) also conducted the research, and the result showed that the use of Android-based application devices can improve students' ability to pronounce words using English in the category of Enough, Good, as for the factors that can increase students' abilities because Android-based applications can practice more often and can distinguish each word, Students can understand words and can find out errors in pronunciation. Abbas and Fathira (2021) also stated that android mobile application improves students' pronunciation. The students' difficulty pronouncing words with the -ed ending inspired the conduct of this study. The researchers attempted to integrate the application on learning media in the modern technological age to address the issue. The goal of the study is to identify the factors that contribute to improvement in students' pronunciation issues by using an Android application.

III. METHOD

A. Research Design

The design of this study was a control group pre-test post-test quasi-experimental research with samples comprising two intact classes taking the Research Method for Applied Linguistic course at the English Department of State Polytechnic of Malang in the second semester of 2021. The English Department comprises English for Business and Professional Communication Study Program and English for Tourism Industry Study Program which teach the same course content for Research Method for Applied Linguistics. The first class was from the first study program, assigned to the treatment as the experimental group. The other class, from the second study program, was the control group. Both groups joined online classes via Zoom cloud meeting platform. The experimental group was assigned to study the additional course material using the RM Android application. The control group was assigned to study the PDF materials provided.

A pre-test was administered before the treatment and a post-test, the same as the pre-test, was administered after the treatment. The score difference between the post-test and pre-test scores was the mastery improvement.

Before the experiment was conducted, the researchers obtained the subjects' reading skills scores from the available documents (records of students' scores of the previous semesters). Then, the means of the experimental and control groups' mastery improvement were compared by considering the scores in reading skills.

In this research, the use of an android application is not the only activity. The main activity is the regular teaching and learning program. The use of an application cannot substitute the ordinary learning (Kruchinin & Bagrova, 2021).

B. Research Variables

Following the description above, the research variables were identified as follows. The use of supplementary learning materials is the treatment or independent variable. The RM Android application was used for the experimental group and PDF learning materials were used for the control group. The data type was nominal or categorical. This was also known as a factor. The Research Method for Applied Linguistics mastery improvement was the dependent variable, of which the data type was quantitative (continuous). Students' reading skills were the control variable, quantitative or continuous in terms of data type. The inclusion of reading skills as a mediating variable was motivated by previous research findings, which revealed that reading skills may affect learning (Imran, 2016; Anggraini, 2017).

C. Research Subjects

The research subjects were two intact classes taking the Research Method for Applied Linguistic course at the English Department of State Polytechnic of Malang in the second semester of 2021. The first class was assigned to the treatment as the experimental group, and the other class was the control group.

D. Data Collection

A test was used as an instrument to collect the mastery improvement data. The test was a mastery test for the research method course content administered at the beginning of the research period (pre-test) and the end of the research period (post-test). This test was developed primarily based on the course content, considering content validity. The test comprised 24 items, of which 21 were multiple-choice items and three were short answer types. Considering the types, the test set was reliable as it was an objective test. For the reading skill scores, the researchers obtained the subjects' scores of the course from the previous semester.

Data collection and analysis were carried out as follows. First, a pre-test was administered. Then, the treatment was given to the subjects. The experimental group attended regular class meetings and was given a treatment, namely an assignment of learning independently using the android mobile learning application that has been designed. The control group also attended regular class sessions and was assigned to learning independently using conventional handouts, which were converted into PDF documents. The materials given to the control group were the same as the materials in the android application, but no video materials were given. After that, post-tests were administered to the two groups. The pre-test and post-test were the same tests.

The post-test result was taken as the students' mastery of the materials. And the mastery improvement was the difference between the post-test scores and the pre-test scores. In addition, another variable, namely reading skills, was controlled to ensure that the mastery improvement, if any, was the effect of the Android learning application.

The android application was developed in the previous semester. It could be accessed and downloaded from <https://bit.ly/aplikasiresearchmethodologyforappliedlinguistic>. When launched, it shows the topics of the course from which subjects can select to study. The learning material and exercise options are presented when students click each topic. Accessible materials in the application are also supplied as video clips, PDF documents, and Microsoft Office PowerPoint files.

In 'Learning Materials' section, the pdf files and links to YouTube are visible. In 'Practices' section, subjects can work on the exercises in multiple-choice, true-false, and matching exercises. After working on the activity, they can directly get information if their answers are right or wrong. It is important to note, however, that not all topics provide exercises because some topics only explain and give practical tips.

If the subjects reach the last question and have completed all the items, they should touch the 'FINISH' button. After that, an information box will pop up to confirm whether the students agree to submit all answers. After selecting the 'CONFIRM' button, the students will see their exercise scores. To exit the question practice session, students select the 'BACK TO HOME' button to return them to the Home Page.

The Android application 'Research Method for Applied Linguistic' could be managed by lecturers who teach courses or an administrator. The contents can be adjusted and changed. The settings can be accessed through <https://polinema-english-club.com/research-methodology>.

E. Data Analysis

From the description in 3.1, the variables and the data type were recognized. It can be summarized in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
RESEARCH VARIABLES AND DATA TYPES

Variables	Name	Data type
Y – dependent variable (response variable)	Research Method mastery improvement	Quantitative/continuous
X1 – independent variable (treatment/factor)	The use of the RM Android application	Categorical
X2– independent variable (covariate)	Reading skills	Quantitative/continuous

Based on the nature of the variables above and the purpose of the research, i.e. to see the difference in the group means, the statistical analysis suitable for the calculation was ANCOVA. It combines the mean difference test and regression. It is used to see whether a treatment to an independent variable affects the dependent variable by considering the covariate variable (or also known control variable). The data for the dependent and control variables are quantitative and the data for the independent are nominal qualitative ones.

Essentially, ANCOVA adjusts the mastery improvement for the initial difference in students' reading skills and compares the adjusted values for differences in reading skills. Thus, it is used to see whether the first independent variable (X1) affects the dependent variable when the covariate (X2) is constant. Concerning the present research where intact groups were used, analysis of covariance can still be used, but the result must be interpreted with caution (Gay, 1992). The data of this research were statistically analyzed using SPSS Ver 26.

IV. RESULTS

The following presents the finding of the study and discussion.

A. *Finding*

The descriptive statistic can be seen in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC

Descriptive Statistics			
Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Android	27.9642	15.10261	38
Control	18.9409	6.61901	33
Total	23.7703	12.69380	71

The table above shows that the mean of the mastery improvement achieved by the experimental group (Android group) is 27.96 with a standard variation of 15.10. The mean of the mastery improvement for the control group is 18.94, with the standard deviation being 6.62. The mastery improvement of the first group is more varied than the second group. In terms of the standard deviation, it seems the control group is better since the subjects' mastery is more evenly distributed. In terms of the means, the experimental group is higher than the control group. This calculation, however, is not adjusted with the reading skills. As mentioned above, some studies have proved that reading skills influence score improvement. It might be true, especially for this current experiment, as the treatment required students to read the material outside the class meeting. To see whether the means of the experimental group are significantly higher after their reading skills are considered, see Table 3 below.

TABLE 3
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: SCORE IMPROVEMENT

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1438.822 ^a	2	719.411	4.971	.010	.128
Intercept	938.048	1	938.048	6.482	.013	.087
Reading Skills	.785	1	.785	.005	.941	.000
Use of Android App	1210.472	1	1210.472	8.365	.005	.110
Error	9840.463	68	144.713			
Total	51396.152	71				
Corrected Total	11279.285	70				

a. R Squared = .128 (Adjusted R Squared = .102)

The above table shows that the reading score means of the two groups are not significantly different (with the significant level of 0.941 or higher than 0.05). It can be said that in this study the group has the same level of reading skills. Therefore, as they are the same, this variable can be seen as a control variable. It means that the subjects' reading skills do not affect their score improvement in this study.

Further, the mean of score improvement of the experimental group is significantly higher than that of the control group with a significance level of 0.005. Thus, it can be stated that the use of the RM Android application can improve the subjects' score improvement in Research Method for Applied Linguistic course. However, it only accounts for 11% of the variability of the score improvement. The rest was influenced by other factors that were not observed.

B. Discussion

From the finding presented above, it is known that the score improvement in the Research Method for Applied Linguistics course of the experimental group using the RM Android application is significantly high. This difference is not caused by reading skills but influenced by the android application use. However, this finding should be interpreted with caution regarding the influence of reading skills. Based on the literature reviewed, reading skills influence score improvement. It cannot be stated here that reading skills do not affect score improvement in Research Method for Applied Linguistics course because the reading skill scores of the samples do not vary. As intact classes, the two groups cannot be randomized. As they sit in the same semester, they have passed the Reading Skills course, which might cause them to have similar reading skill levels. Using subjects with more varied their reading skills would clarify whether reading skills variability influences the variability of the Research Method for Applied Linguistics score improvement.

The finding revealed that the use of Research Method Android application improves Research Method score, and this aligns with several claims and previous research. The first, it is in line with the claim by Dale (1969) stating that learning with more realistic media, like audio-visual and interesting images, will make learning materials easier to understand and the result stays longer.

The current research observes the impact of using a mobile application on the EFL students' mastery of non-English content. The finding, thus, also supports previous research findings, e.g., the one by Qiu (2019), stating that mobile application can improve students' mastery of learning materials of non-language contents. Finally, this study answers Rosidah et al. (2021) calling for research on the development of Android-based mobile learning media to improve students' scientific literacy. The finding proves that android-based mobile learning media can improve student's scientific literacy.

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

In concluding this research finding, it is necessary to take some caution as the subject groups are intact groups with no randomization. This may make the subjects' reading skills are not significantly different between the experimental group and control group.

The first research question can be answered that the use of an android application can improve students' score improvement in Research Method for Applied Linguistics course. This conclusion can be drawn confidently since the control variable, i.e., reading skills, are kept constant across the groups. The second question can be answered that students' reading skills do not affect score improvement significantly. However, this conclusion is valid only for this

research as the groups are not randomized. Randomization would give possibility for the groups to have varied reading skills.

Based on the above findings, one suggestion is offered to the next researchers with a similar topic. First, the researchers are suggested to have true experimental research to see whether reading skills significantly influence the score improvement of the students when they use Android application for their Research Method for Applied Linguistics course.

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A Review of Studies on the Selective Attention Strategy During Language Comprehension: The Present and the Future

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Abstract—Selective attention (SA) is an important strategy for language comprehension both in L1 and L2. Much of the existing research on L2 listening and reading has identified SA as a distinctive ability of effective and skilled L2 listeners and readers. However, extensive and intensive research on this specific strategy is relatively sparse. Therefore, this article provides an in-depth review of previous research involving the SA mechanism in both L1 and L2 language comprehension. As a result, this article identifies that there are two-levels of SA existing in previous academic research: the word level and sentence level SA. They may represent different cognitive processes as well as different SA strategies in real practice. However, this kind of classification on SA has not been fully recognized and specifically pinpointed by previous literature, since previous studies focused on only one type of SA while ignoring the other. Therefore, this article proposes to classify these two kinds of SA and then reviews previous literature according to this novel classification. In addition, this article summarizes the most frequently investigated modulators of SA as well as commonly used research methods for SA-related research. Some possible research gaps are pinpointed accordingly. Finally, this article illustrates several concepts and models that could explain the SA mechanism from psychological and linguistic perspectives, which could serve as a theoretical framework in future study. This article may offer some inspirations for future academic research in this field and listening or reading practices in the real world.

Index Terms—Selective attention strategy, language listening strategy, language reading strategy, language comprehension strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Selective attention (SA) for language comprehension is defined as the process by which the importance of language element is determined by its importance and additional attention is devoted to more important elements during the comprehension process (Anderson, 1982). SA has been regarded as an important strategy for listening and reading comprehension in both L1 and L2. Some studies involving L2 strategies have found SA to be a distinctive strategy that is exclusively employed by effective and skilled L2 listeners and readers. Moreover, in interpreting-related research (Gile, 2009), SA strategies (such as “focusing on the major information”) have been identified as one of the most important strategies that need to be acquired by interpreters. However, despite the importance of SA in real practice, research on SA has been relatively sparse. These studies offering complete and comprehensive reviews on this topic are even more limited.

In addition, in the real practice of listening or reading comprehension, the strategies of “focusing on key words, such as nouns” and “gasping the main idea and major information” are two equally important but different SA strategies. These two strategies involve different cognitive process, and they are applied in different situations during language comprehension. However, in terms of academic research, these different kinds of SA strategies have not been fully recognized up to now. Most of the previous research has been focused on one type of SA while ignoring the other types. Therefore, this article has recognized these different kinds of SA strategies and proposes two new terms for them: the word-level and the sentence level SA, which refer to the SA on a word level (such as key words) and SA above sentence level (or the text level, such as focusing on major information or overall meaning) respectively. This article will then review the previous research by first classifying them into these two categories.

This article attempts to provide a relatively comprehensive review on previous literature involving the SA mechanism for language comprehension. Specifically speaking, this article covers several SA-related aspects also reviewed by previous research: the definition of SA, the empirical research involving SA, and theoretical research that could explain the SA mechanism. Among these aspects, the aspect of the empirical research involving SA covers the dual-level classifications of SA, the major modulators (factors that cause the selective attention, such as the key words) of SA, and the research methods adopted in previous SA-related research.

This review could be significant from several aspects. Firstly, this article proposes an important and novel classification of the SA mechanism: the word-level and sentence-level SA. This classification has not yet been officially recognized by related academic research, but it could be very significant since these two strategies are applied differently in real practice. For example, the word-level SA could represent the strategy of “focusing on key words”, while the sentence-level SA could represent the strategy of “focusing on major information during listening or reading”. Secondly, this article summarizes and analyzes the most investigated modulators of SA, which could offer some insight into the most consistent or important modulators of SA. Identifying this modulator could help language users by allowing them to focus only on this modulator when they encounter stressful language comprehension situations (e.g., fast delivery or unfamiliar words). Thirdly, this article summarizes several commonly used research methods for SA-related research and analyzes the advantages and or disadvantages of these methods. This analysis could help to identify the most reliable research method for SA-related research in the future. Finally, this article discusses several psycholinguistic and linguistic concepts and models that could explain the reasons for the SA mechanism, and these models or concepts could serve as theoretical support for future research involving SA.

II. DEFINITION OF SELECTIVE ATTENTION

Systematic research on SA began in the 1980s when Anderson (1982) proposed a theory asserting that text elements are processed and graded for importance and that additional attention is devoted to more important elements during text comprehension. In other words, more important text elements receive more attention than less important elements. Since Anderson proposed this theory, dozens of studies started to focus on SA mechanism during language comprehension. Some of the studies have proposed different names for SA mechanisms, such as the SAS and depth of processing. These two concepts will be expounded below.

A. *Selective Attention Strategy*

Reynolds (1992) proposed the term “Selective Attention Strategy” (SAS), claiming that language learners will devote additional attention to text elements in proportion to their importance during the reading process and text element salience (importance) can be manipulated by different variables (e.g., text-related modulators, reader-related modulators, and task-related modulators). Reynolds’s research on SA is very influential, as it has provided a basis for SA-related research in L1 comprehension.

Subsequently, Hidi (1995) further expanded the concept of SAS by classifying SA into two phases: perceptual attention and conceptual attention. Perceptual attention processes orthographic characteristics of words, and it can be represented by the attention duration. While conceptual attention determines the semantic characteristics of words, and it can be represented by the attention intensity. Therefore, conceptual attention is different from perceptual attention. For example, a listener would pay more attention on unfamiliar words while listening, which represents increased perceptual attention but decreased conceptual attention since the listener may fail to understand the words’ meanings. According to the research of Hidi (1995), SA involves both types of attention but in different ratios. Hidi’s classification of SA is significant because it offers a more reliable approach for analyzing and measuring attention during language comprehension.

B. *Depth of Processing*

Another scholar who has conducted extensive research on the SA mechanism is Sanford. Sanford and Graesser (2006) proposed the term “depth of processing,” which indicates that “language input, both spoken and written, is not processed in a precise and complete manner; rather, some language input is processed more deeply than others because the information is incomplete or it is not worthy of too many processing efforts” (Sanford & Graesser, 2006, p. 100). This concept of “depth of processing” is like the concept of SAS although they are under different names.

Except for these two studies mentioned above, some other studies have focused on the empirical research of SA mechanism. The next section describes the empirical research on SA in both L1 and L2 comprehension.

III. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH INVOLVING SA MECHANISM IN FIRST LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

Since the 1980s, dozens of researchers have conducted empirical research on the SA mechanism in first language reading and listening comprehension processes. These studies have adopted various research methods to examine different kinds of SA. The next section provides a brief review of some relevant research from three perspectives: the different levels of SA (the word level and sentence level), the different modulators of SA, and the different research methods that have been used in SA related research.

A. *Selective Attention at the Word and Sentence Levels*

Previous research divides SA into two categories: word and sentence level. Word-level SA refers to the process in which language users pay more attention to certain types of words during language comprehension, such as content words, nouns, and accentuated words. In contrast, sentence-level SA refers to the process in which language users pay more attention to specific kinds of sentences or information during language comprehension, such as sentences concerning the main idea or gist of a text. However, it should be noted that the sentence level SA does not mean the

exact sentence as it appears in the original text or speech; rather, it could be the paraphrasing form of the original clause or sentence, since the meaning of clause or sentences may not exit the mind verbatim.

This classification of these two levels of SA is meaningful and significant in real-life reading and listening practices because different levels of SA can involve different kinds of reading or listening strategies. For example, word-level SA can involve strategies of “focusing on keywords”, while sentence-level SA could refer to strategies such as “grasping the gist or main idea of a text or speech”.

However, this kind of classification has been rarely discussed in previous research since most of previous researchers have focused solely on one level of SA. For example, Conrad (1989) and Brown’s (2008) research focused only on word-level SA, while Cirilo and Foss (1980) as well as Reynold (1992) focused exclusively on sentence-level SA.

Due to the differences in these two strategies, future research may be needed to further confirm the existence of two-levels of SA during language comprehension based on the empirical research. This article, hereby, would firstly classify SA into word and sentence level SA, and in the following sections it will review previous literature according to this classification.

B. Different Modulators of Selective Attention

The modulators of SA refer to the variables that cause the change of attention during language comprehension. For example, content words could be a modulator for SA because they could attract more attention during language comprehension. The concept of a modulator is significant because it can be used as an important strategy for L1 and L2 users. For example, if a specific modulator that requires more processing effort is identified, the language users can be trained to pay additional attention to that modulator during the stressful language comprehension period (such as unfamiliar words or rapid delivery of speech).

Sandford and Reynolds provided a comprehensive summary on all the possible modulators of SA. According to Reynolds (1992), the importance of text elements could be modulated by many factors (modulators), including text-related modulators (e.g., information density), reader-related modulators (e.g., the reader’s background), and task-related modulators (e.g., questions concerning a text). Sanford and Graesser (2006) also proposed a wide range of potential attention-capturing devices (attention-modulating devices or modulators of SA), including syntactic devices (e.g., cleft structure), semantic devices (e.g., metaphor), prosody, and text structure (e.g., focus).

Except for the studies mentioned above, other research has tended to focus on one modulator of SA in their studies, such as content words for word-level SA or text structure for sentence-level SA particularly. The next section reviews the most investigated modulators in previous research involving the SA in first language comprehension.

(a). Commonly Investigated Modulators of Word-Level SA

Based on the previous literature, the most investigated modulators for word-level SA include content words, nouns, focus, and prosody.

➤ Content words

Content words or, more specifically, nouns are the most frequently examined modulator for word-level SA. Dozens of studies have examined the relations of content words and the SA during reading or listening comprehension. For example, Mehler (1978) investigated the allocation of attention between different word classes and found that adjectives were selectively omitted from subjects’ recall, which could indicate that less attention was paid to adjectives during the reading process. Conrad (1989) showed that native listeners concentrate on key content words in the listening input. In addition, Brown (2008) suggested that nouns, particularly argument nouns, appear to be preferentially selected for attention when subjects were required to listen under stressful conditions.

➤ Focus

Another commonly examined modulator for SA in L1 listening is focus. Focus is a concept from the theory of information structure, which refers to the part of a sentence that contributes new and prominent information to a sentence (Rochemont & Culicover, 1990). Focus can be realized in various ways (Zimmermann & Onea, 2011). For example, in the cleft sentence “it is you who should take the blame”, “you” is the focus of the sentence. This focus is realized by syntactic manipulation. While, in the question-answer sentence “who took this? - I took it”, “I” is the focus. This focus is realized by contextual manipulation. Typically, one sentence will have only one focus, and a sentence will not have a focus at all if no information is specifically emphasized in that sentence. A couple of previous researchers have examined the effects of focus on the SA process during language comprehension. For example, Sanford and Graesser (2006) investigated the effects of focus on attention allocation during listening comprehension and found that focus-driven stress leads to an increased depth of processing. Moreover, Yang et al. (2019) obtained evidence that increased attention is allocated to the focus during reading comprehension.

➤ Accentuation and prosody

Another commonly investigated modulator of SA in listening is accentuation or prosody. Accentuation is one type of prosodic information that reflects the relative prominence of a particular syllable, word, or phrase in an utterance (Shattuck-Hufnagel & Turk, 1996). Li and Ren (2012) investigated how accentuation influences semantic processing during online spoken comprehension, which concluded that accentuation can rapidly modulate SA and influence the depth of semantic processing. Other researchers subsequently used ERP (event-related potential) technology to

investigate the relationship between accentuation and SA, and the similar results were obtained (Li et al., 2014; Li & Yang, 2013).

(b). Commonly Investigated Modulators of Sentence-Level SA

The most frequently investigated modulator of sentence-level SA is very consistent through the past research, and that is the text structure. The term “text structure” originates from Kintsch’s (1978) model of text comprehension. According to that model, meaning is typically represented in the form of propositions during comprehension of connected speech or text. These propositions are connected by the text structure, which includes the microstructure and macrostructure. The microstructure is the structure of the individual propositions and their relationships, which represents the details of the text and the relationships between them, while the macrostructure represents the global coherence of individual propositions and the gist of the text or speech.

A couple of previous researchers have investigated the SA mechanism (sentence level) modulated by text structure. Johnson (1970) found that sentences that were important in the structure of a text were recalled significantly better than those that were not during text reading, which indicated that text structure was an important modulator of SA. Other research has also examined text structure-modulated SA (sentence level). For example, Cirilo and Foss (1980) found that subjects took a longer time to read and had a better recall of a sentence when the sentence played a high-level role in a text than when it played a low-level role in the text.

Although text structure is the most frequently investigated modulator of sentence-level SA, other research has also focused on other modulators of sentence-level SA during reading comprehension, such as interestingness and cognitive load. For example, Goeze (1983) indicated that the interestingness affects the SA mechanism during language comprehension. Britton (1980) investigated the effects of cognitive load on SA, which revealed that cognitive load also modulated SA during reading.

The research mentioned above has investigated several commonly investigated modulators of word level SA and sentence level SA. The summary of these modulators is showed in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE DIFFERENT MODULATORS OF SA EXPLORED IN PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Levels of SA	Specific Modulators
Word-level Modulators	Content words or nouns
	Focus
	Accentuation or prosody
	Other modulators: interestingness or load
Sentence-level Modulators	Text structure
	Other modulators: interestingness or load

Previous research either focuses on one modulator of SA for investigation or summarizes all the possible modulators of SA. There are few studies that have attempted to identify the most significant and consistent modulator of SA during listening or reading comprehension. This research is very crucial, because it is highly likely that the language users can only focus on one or two modulators during language comprehension due to their limited cognitive resources. Therefore, determining the most consistent and significant modulator of SA could help language users focus on that specific language element (e.g., keyword or important information), thus helping language users better manage the stressful language comprehension situations. However, the previous literatures aiming to determine the most consistent and important modulator of SA are very sparse. Therefore, further research may be needed to identify the most significant and consistent modulator of SA during listening or reading comprehension, or, at least, a comparison between different modulators could be conducted in order to find the most important one.

C. Research Methods Involved in SA Related Research

Exploring the SA mechanism in L1 listening and reading is not easy, as it involves people’s cognitive processes. Nevertheless, previous research has examined the SA mechanism using various methods. Some of these methods have maintained the natural comprehension process without much interference, while others have interrupted the natural comprehension process for connected speech or text to some extent. In the next section we will discuss some commonly used research methods for SA-related research, which are also divided into the word and sentence-level research.

(a). Research Methods Employed in Research on Word-Level SA

Several research methods have been widely used in research concerning word-level SA previously, which includes the recall method, change-detection method, the secondary-task method, and some novel techniques such as ERP and eye-tracking. These research methods will now be discussed in detail.

➤ Recall method for word-level selective attention

The recall method has been widely used in word-level SA research. Most studies employing this method would first establish a stressful language comprehension situation, and then the participants would be required to listen to or read a text before recalling it. Such studies have used recall as a measurement for the depth of processing or attention during language comprehension. For example, Conrad (1989) constructed a stressful listening scenario in which the delivery rate of the speech used was accelerated by 40–90%, and the native listeners were required to have an aural recall on the

speech to expose the possible use of SA strategies. Brown (2008) created a stressful language comprehension condition in which listeners were provided with an excessive amount of information within a given time limit, and then the participants were required to recall as much information as possible to expose the possible use of SA strategy.

However, this research method has been challenged by other researchers, including Reynolds (1988). Reynolds (1988) claimed that using the recall method to measure the attention process (or depth of process) during language comprehension may not be reliable, as some other variables (such as memory) cannot be successfully controlled, and these variables will interfere with the results. In such contexts, better recall would be contributed to by greater memory capacity, rather than the depth of processing. Furthermore, most of the research mentioned above has manipulated the natural comprehension process by constructing a stressful language comprehension condition to some extent. Therefore, the research method of recall may not be reliable enough to investigate the SA mechanism during language comprehension, and other research methods should be considered.

➤ Change-detection method for word-level selective attention

In the change-detection method, subjects listen to or read similar language input twice and determine the possible changes between the language inputs. This research method was frequently employed by Sanford. Sanford (2005) used an auditory change-detection method to examine the effect of comprehension load on the depth of processing during listening comprehension. Sanford and Graesser (2006) also employed a change-detection method to investigate the effects of focus on attention allocation during listening comprehension. However, this research method may compromise the natural listening comprehension process since subjects must listen to the similar speech twice to determine the possible changes.

➤ Secondary-task method

For the secondary-task method, participants are required to listen or read a text or speech while simultaneously responding to a probe as quickly as possible. The probe response, as a secondary task, is used to measure the attention or processing depth during language comprehension. This research method assumes that the deeper the processing depth, the less attention is left for the secondary task (the probe response), which would cause more reaction time to the probe. Several studies have employed this research method. For example, Wearing (1971), Britton (1980), and Reynold (1988) used this method to study SA and obtained successful results.

The advantage of this method is that it can successfully measure both conceptual attention and perception attention. However, the secondary-task also interrupts the natural comprehension process since participants might pay more attention to the secondary-task than the primary task (reading or listening) during the language comprehension task.

➤ Event-related potential and eye-tracking for word-level selective attention

As technology develops, new technologies have been adopted in SA (word level) related research, such as eye-tracking and ERP technology. Rayner (1997) employed an eye-tracking system to examine the relationship between SA and focus, which obtained some successful results. However, this new technology has its limitations. For example, eye-tracking technology may measure more perceptual attention (reading time) but less conceptual attention (processing depth), which may compromise research results.

Another research technology is ERP. Yang et al. (2019) employed ERP in a reading experiment. They induced focus using question-answer sentence pairs and found that the focused word elicited a larger P200, showing that increased attention is allocated to the focused item during reading comprehension. Li and Ren (2012) investigated the influence of accentuation on semantic processing during listening comprehension using an ERP technique. Subsequent researchers also used ERP to investigate SA during speech comprehension and obtained successful results (Li et al., 2014; Li & Yang, 2013). However, the ERP technique still has limitations, as it requires subjects to listen to similar sentences (rather than connected speech) dozens of times to expose the target variables. Therefore, the ERP method may compromise the natural listening comprehension process for connected speech or text.

Except for the research methods mentioned above, other research methods have also been previously used. For example, Conrad (1985) employed a cloze test technique to investigate listeners' attention allocation during listening comprehension. In Conrad's research, the participants listened to a speech and then completed a cloze test. This test was then scored to determine whether some language elements were filled up more thoroughly. However, this research method was used by other researchers.

These studies mentioned above all investigated the SA mechanism at the word level. The next section discusses the research methods employed in research involving sentence level SA.

(b). *Research Methods Employed in Research on Sentence-Level SA*

Several studies have investigated SA at the sentence level. However, these studies mainly involved reading comprehension, and studies on listening comprehension have been sparse. As for reading comprehension, the most commonly used research method is the recall-rating method for sentence-level SA.

➤ Recall-rating method for sentence-level selective attention

In the recall-rating method, the importance of sentences in one text is categorized into different levels according to their role in text structure, and the classification is based on Kintsch's (1978) text model. Then, subjects are asked to recall the text after reading it. Then, the rating of the text and the recall of subjects are compared to investigate how many high-level and low-level sentences are recalled, thus revealing if the high-level sentences are easier to recall than low-level sentences. This research method has been widely used to investigate the SA modulated by text structure. For

example, Johnson (1970) and Goeze (1983) have used this method to examine the SA mechanism during reading comprehension.

This research method investigates SA at the sentence level and does not compromise the natural comprehension process, so it is widely used in previous research involving sentence level SA. However, the method has also been challenged by some researchers, such as Briton (1979) and Reynolds (1988). They argued that the recall process may be influenced by subjects' memory capacity. Thus, another research method based on this one emerged later, the sentence-repetition and recall method, which successfully avoided the interference of memory capacity.

➤ Sentence repetition and recall method for sentence-level selective attention

In the sentence-repetition and recall method, the same sentence repeatedly occurs in two different texts. In one text, the sentence is located in high-level structure. While, in another text, it is located in a low-level structure. Then, the subjects are required to read and recall these two texts. The two recall protocols are then compared to determine whether the sentence in the high-level structure will be more successfully recalled than the same sentence in the low-level structure. Thus, the influence of text structure on attention allocation is exposed, and the variable of memory capacity is successfully controlled, since the subjects need to recall two texts under the same conditions. This research method has been successfully utilized in a few studies. For example, Cirilo and Foss (1980) employed a sentence-repetition method to examine the influence of text structure on attention allocation during reading, which obtained reliable results successfully. Besides, this technique does not interrupt the natural comprehension process for connected text, so it deserves credit in this regard.

This section illustrated some commonly used methods in SA-related research, and a summary on these research methods is listed in Table 2. Based on previous literature on the same topic, it could be noted that most of the research methods for word-level SA either interrupt the natural comprehension process for connected speech (or text) or fail to control the variable of memory capacity. So, more reliable research methods for word level SA should be constructed in the future. However, for sentence-level SA, the research method of sentence-repetition and recall does not interrupt the natural comprehension process and successfully controls the variable of memory. Therefore, this research method may be more reliable than others for SA related research (sentence-level SA).

TABLE 2
THE COMMONLY USED RESEARCH METHODS FOR SA-RELATED RESEARCH (FIRST LANGUAGE)

Research of different kinds	Research methods used	Features of the research method
Research involving word-level SA	Recall method	Failing to control the variable of memory capacity
	Change-detection method	Interrupting the natural comprehension process for connected speech (or text)
	Secondary-task method	Interrupting the natural comprehension process for connected speech (or text)
	Event-related potential and eye-tracking	Interrupting the natural comprehension process for connected speech (or text)
	Other methods: cloze test	Failing to control the variable of memory capacity
Research involving sentence-level SA	Recall-rating method for sentence-level selective attention	Failing to control the variable of memory capacity
	Sentence repetition and recall method	Might be reliable

D. Inconsistent Research Results

Despite the studies mentioned above, other research concerning SA has produced inconsistent results. For example, Briton (1979) used the rating-recall method to investigate the effects of text structure on the SA during reading comprehension, and the result showed that paragraphs high in the content structure did not require more attention. Hyona (2002) used eye-tracking technology and recall methods to investigate readers' sentence-level SA, which measured the frequency and duration of reader's forwarding fixation and reading back behavior. The results found that 80% of readers did not use an SA processing strategy. These findings did not support the existence of SA mechanism at the sentence level. In addition, Shirey and Reynold (1988) employed a secondary-task method to investigate the effects of interest on the allocation of attention during reading. The results showed that the participants devoted less attention to these interesting words, but they recalled them better. Thus, the findings of this research do not support the existence of SA at the word level either. Therefore, the existence of SA during language comprehension is still unclear, and more research may be needed to confirm the existence of SA at both levels in the future.

IV. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH INVOLVING SA MECHANISM IN SECOND LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

Compared with SA in first language comprehension, the number of research involving SA in second language comprehension is relatively expansive. In second language comprehension, the term "selective attention" is defined as "the commitment of limited capacity to one stream of information or one set of linguistic features, such as paying attention to keywords or grasping the main idea during comprehension" (Rost, 2011).

Numerous studies on L2 comprehension strategies (Vandergrift, 2006; Graham & Vanderplank, 2008; Goh, 2002; Hasan, 2010; Chen, 2013; Nix, 2016; Wallace, 2020) have employed the interview or the self-report method to tap into

the strategies employed by L2 listeners and readers. These studies found that effective L2 listeners and readers typically do not listen or read word by word. Rather, they tend to grasp main ideas or keywords during language comprehension. Some researchers also concluded that SA is one of the most distinctive strategies for effective (skilled) language users, and the SA strategy discriminates the effective and ineffective L2 listeners and readers (Vandergrift, 1998, 2003).

However, most of the research involving SA in second language comprehension focuses only on the strategy research by listing SA as one of the strategies in a general strategy framework, and an in-depth and intensive research on the SA mechanism from the cognitive perspective is lacking. Only a few studies have specifically focused on SA mechanism during second language comprehension. For example, Field (2008) employed a pause-transcription method to investigate L2 listeners' SA on content words. Field's findings demonstrated that content words afford more processing efforts during the listening process. Graham and Santos (2013) employed a recall-interview method to examine selective listening in L2. The results showed that effective listeners would selectively listen to words and sentences, and they tend to focus more on nouns than verbs.

The SA mechanism in second language comprehension is very important, and it could be one of the most crucial strategies for L2 language users. Because the SA strategy could help L2 users to address some listening difficulties that is most seen during second language listening or reading comprehension, such as the unfamiliar words or fast delivery of the listening input. Therefore, more research in the future may be needed to conduct an in-depth investigation on the SA mechanism of L2 comprehension, which would not only expand the academic research but also help L2 users in their daily practice.

V. THEORIES SUPPORTING THE SA MECHANISM IN LANGUAGE COMPREHENSION

The previous section describes empirical research on the SA mechanism in both L1 and L2 comprehension. With a review on previous literature, it is noted that most of the extensive research conducted only empirical research on SA and lacked theoretical explanation in their studies on why and how SA mechanism works during language comprehension. Therefore, the next section would discuss several relevant models and concepts that may theoretically explain the SA mechanism from the cognitive perspective. Six models and concepts will be illustrated which could serve as the theoretical framework for future research in this field.

A. *Kintsch's Model*

One of the most important models in SA-related research is Kintsch's (1978) text model of comprehension, which applies to both reading and listening comprehension. According to this model, meaning of text or speech is represented in the form of propositions during text comprehension (or speech listening), and these propositions are connected based on coherence. There are two kinds of coherence: local and global. The local and global coherence are related to the concepts of the microstructure and macrostructure of a text respectively. The microstructure is the structure of individual propositions and their relationships; while the macrostructure refers to the text as a whole and represents the gist of the text. According to Kintsch's model, the propositions at the top level of the text structure are preferentially selected for comprehension compared to the less important propositions. Kintsch's text comprehension model has provided robust explanation for the SA mechanism (sentence level SA) in both reading and listening processes. However, this model has been rarely used to theoretically explain the SA mechanism in previous research.

B. *Good-Enough Model*

Another important model that could explain the SA mechanism is Ferreira's (2003) "good-enough" (GE) model. In contrast to the traditional model of language comprehension, Ferreira and colleagues argued that language comprehension is not always detailed, complete, and accurate but is sometimes merely good enough depending on the task that a language user needs to perform. The GE model argues that language comprehension is quick and frugal, so the listeners only make GE efforts to understand language items if they can complete communication tasks. An empirical study by Goodman (1967) confirmed that effective readers attended to syntactic cues only as much as necessary and relied more on semantic information during comprehension. Therefore, the GE model may explain why listeners and readers engage in SA during language comprehension to some extent, which may be because the language user only needs to pick up some relevant information for comprehension as long as they can finish the comprehension task during listening or reading.

C. *IP Model*

Another model that attempts to explain the SA mechanism is the IP (information processing) model proposed by VanPatten (2014). According to the IP model, learners are driven to obtain meaning while comprehending, and they may follow some IP principles during comprehension. One of the principles is "the primacy of content words", which means learners process content words before anything else. This phenomenon may occur because "if the learner processes non-content words first, it is likely that the processors responsible for data storage may not be able to make good use of them and will dump them, preventing further processing" (VanPatten, 2014, p. 115). This model could explain the SA mechanism at the word level, particularly the SA modulated by content words, since the listeners or readers may primarily process the content words in order to grasp the meaning of a text as effectively as possible.

D. *Top-Down and Bottom-Up*

It is widely recognized that language comprehension includes both bottom-up and top-down processes. In top-down processes (TDP), language users use information from contextual sources, such as world knowledge and the global meaning, to understand meaning of the speech or text. In a bottom-up (BUP) process, however, “the listener focuses on individual words and phrases to achieve understanding by connecting the language elements together to build up a whole” (Harmer, 2001, p. 201). Some studies have found that skilled listeners will adopt a TDP approach for comprehension by focusing more on global meaning rather than word recognition. In contrast, less skilled listeners adopt a BUP approach during language comprehension by which they devote more attention to words and local details (Hildyar & Olson, 1982).

The concepts of TDP and BUP may explain why the first language user will engage in SA strategy during comprehension, and that may be because first language users would process words that weigh more for top-down comprehension with greater efforts.

E. *Competition Model*

Another model that is relevant to this study is the competition model proposed by Kos (2010). According to Kos, sentence processing involves a two-stream process: the syntax stream and the semantic stream. These streams interact and compete during sentence comprehension, with the more powerful stream dominating the weak one and guiding the comprehension. Besides, which cues are stronger depends on the availability of these cues. If semantic cues are more easily processed, then the language user will follow the semantic cues to form the meaning. If, however, the semantic cues are difficult to understand, then the language user will instead follow the syntax cues for comprehension. For first language users, the availability of semantic cues could be much greater than the availability of syntax cues. Therefore, L1 users tend to form meaning primarily by focusing on semantic cues. Thus, semantic cues “win” over the syntax cues, leading to SA during L1 comprehension. This model not only explains why L1 listeners or readers engage in SA mechanisms during the comprehension process but also provides some insight into what linguistic items would require more attention. Besides, it also explains why some ineffective L2 do not engage in SA during language comprehension.

F. *Language Redundancy*

The abovementioned models explain the SA mechanism from a psychological perspective, while the concept of language redundancy would explain SA from a linguistic perspective. Descriptive linguistics has fully acknowledged that natural languages are highly redundant, and redundancy is also necessary in natural language, as it serves the purposes of enhancing comprehensibility, resolving ambiguity, emphasizing, and intensifying. Wit and Gillette (1999) proposed two types of redundancy in natural language: grammatical and contextual. Grammatical redundancy refers to the internal systematicity of language. It is generated from grammatical rules and is independent of situational, contextual, and nonlinguistic considerations. Contextual redundancy, in contrast, refers to the repetition of information that consists of the reproduction of identical elements of language. This concept may explain why listeners and readers engage in the SA mechanism, and it may be because that language is redundant, and the language users can form the meaning of speech or text without the need to individually process every single linguistic element.

These models discussed above explain why and how the SA mechanism functions from both the linguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives. However, these concepts and theories have been rarely used as theoretical supports in SA-related previous research. Most of the previous studies only concern the empirical research of SA and lack the theoretical or cognitive explanation for the SA mechanism. Therefore, these concepts and models illustrated in this article would serve their purpose in future studies.

VI. CONCLUSION

This article reviews previous research involving SA mechanism for language comprehension, and several research gaps are identified in this regard.

First, this article identifies two kinds of SA that are commonly investigated by previous research: word and sentence-level SA. Then this article reviews the previous research according to this classification. This classification could be very crucial and hold significance, as these two categories of SA represent different SA strategies in real practice. Nevertheless, this classification has not yet been fully recognized by previous research, and this article could be the first one to propose the existence of two-level of SA. However, these two levels of SA should be further tested and examined empirically in future academic research in order to bridge the gap.

Secondly, this article also reviews the major modulators examined in previous literature, such as content words, focus, text structure and so on. After review, this article points out the need to investigate the most significant and consistent modulator of SA since the language users, especially L2 users, can only focus on one or two modulators during stressful language comprehension situation. Therefore, identifying the most significant modulator will help language users focus on that language element, thus helping them address comprehension difficulties or improving the comprehension result. Based on the review, the possible candidates for the most significant modulator of SA could be content words (specifically nouns) for word-level SA and the text structure for sentence-level SA. However, further research may be needed to confirm this result.

Thirdly, this article illustrates several commonly used research methods for SA related research and analyzes the advantages and disadvantages of each of these methods. This analysis reveals that previous research methods involving words level SA may not be reliable enough and more reliable research methods may be needed in the future. While, as for the research methods for sentence level SA, the research method of sentence repetition-recall method is more reliable than others.

Finally, this article illustrates several concepts and models that could explain the SA mechanism from both the psychological and linguistic perspectives. Most of these models and concepts have been rarely used as theoretical framework in previous studies. Therefore, these concepts and models mentioned in present article could serve as theoretical foundations for future research involving SA.

In summary, this article has offered a general review of previous research involving the SA mechanism and pinpointed certain research gaps in this regard. This article may offer some inspirations for SA related academic research as well as the language comprehension practice in the future.

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Saudi EFL University Instructors' Perceptions of Online Education During the COVID-19 Pandemic

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the EFL university instructors' perceptions of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic. The participants were 32; 87.5% of them were females while 12.5% were males. They belonged to many higher educational institutions in Saudi Arabia. Data were collected using an online questionnaire. This questionnaire included four parts which were (1) the participants' demographic information, (2) the advantages of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic, (3) the disadvantages of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic, and finally (4) the effectiveness of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results revealed that most of the participants had a more dominant positive attitude regarding online learning activities although some of them claimed that there were some negative aspects that should be taken into consideration. Online education is fundamentally characterized by its flexibility, being chargeless, and enabling EFL instructors to think creatively and improve their performance. However, the lack of regulating sinful activities such as cheating, lack of face-to-face social interaction, and poor accessibility to the internet connection were essentially the three significant disadvantages of online education that most of the participants agreed on. Based on the findings obtained, this study provided some recommendations as well as suggestions for further research.

Index Terms—online education, COVID-19, pandemic, EFL, perceptions

I. INTRODUCTION

The spread of the COVID-19 pandemic across the world has changed almost all life aspects, especially education. Schools and universities were required to teach online. Before this pandemic, online education was used to support the processes of teaching and learning, but the current situation has turned the educational process to be presented online at all educational levels (Nursalina & Fitrawati, 2021). Online learning is a learning activity that can be performed anywhere if there is an internet connection (Hughes et al., 2002). It is any learning experience that depends on the availability of the internet as the main delivery mode of communication and presentation (Appana, 2008). However, the internet is a perfect learning tool that provides educational environments which are flexible, useful, and suitable for innovating in teaching (Moos & Azevedo, 2009).

In Saudi Arabia, however, all schools and universities have adopted online education to teach all fields using several online platforms such as Blackboard, Zoom, and Microsoft Teams. The current researcher observed some EFL instructors in several universities. They demonstrated that teaching the English language online has a positive and negative impact. They emphasized its effectiveness and flexibility in time and place. On the other hand, they claimed that they had some technological difficulties during the pandemic like having less interaction with their students and a lack of internet connection. For some of those EFL instructors, it was a new experience and they had to work on themselves and train to deal with technology properly. Therefore, this study investigated the perceptions of EFL university instructors of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic in Saudi Arabia to get a deeper insight into the advantages, disadvantages, and challenges that happened when conducting online classes during that critical period in the context of Saudi universities.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. COVID-19

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) has started in China and gained huge attention in the world due to serious respiratory illness. The first case was discovered on January 30, 2020, so the World Health Organization (WHO) has officially announced the outbreak of COVID-19 as a critically universal health emergency (Habib, 2020). In March 2020, WHO declared that there were 509,167 cases with 23,335 deaths in the world confirming 1012 cases with 3 deaths in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, many countries, including the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, decided to close all educational institutions (i.e., universities, schools, ...etc.) and shifted to online education using several online educational platforms.

B. Online Education

Online education is simply defined as access to learning experiences via several technological tools (Carliner, 2004). According to Anderson (2008), it is a kind of distance education that always provides access to any educational experience which is flexible in time and place more than campus-based education. Online education during the pandemic is defined as teachers and students do not go to schools or any educational institution, but rather they stay home to teach and study using technology such as smartphones, iPads, tablets, and laptops as well as using different platforms such as Blackboard, Zoom, Google Classroom, ... etc. (Nursalina & Fitrawati, 2021). Online learning refers to internet-based courses that might be presented synchronously and asynchronously. Synchronous online learning means any type of learning where direct interaction occurs between students and their teachers as what is happening in conferences and online chats. On the other hand, asynchronous online learning is a kind of learning that occurs indirectly (i.e., not at the same time) using independent learning approaches such as blogs, online discussions, Moodle, and other platforms (Susan & Rossen, 2017).

However, online education has been characterized by several benefits such as flexibility in time and place, providing opportunities to establish social relationships among individuals, helping in eliminating barriers that may potentially hinder students' participation like being afraid of talking to others, motivating learners to communicate with others, or allowing each one to study at his/her own pace either slowly or quickly (Sanderson, 2002). Moreover, Dhull and Arora (2017) list additional advantages of online education which are accessibility to learning from anywhere in the world, individuals' ability to plan and monitor their learning, developing teachers' cognitive abilities, cost-effectiveness, learners' capability to publish their works when producing a high-quality something, gaining and improving technical skills when using Information Communication Technology (ICT), providing equal learning chances to all people, and narrowing geographical barriers in the way of education. Regarding the types of online education, Anderson (2008) states some advantages for learners and instructors. He clarifies that asynchronous online learning provides access to online materials anytime while synchronous online learning facilitates real-time communication between students and teachers. Moreover, online education enables individuals to access up-to-date and relevant learning materials and to interact with experts in the field of their study. In terms of teachers, they can tutor anytime and anywhere. They can update their materials whenever they want as well.

On the other hand, according to Dhull and Arora (2017), online education has been criticized for many reasons. It does not allow people to have face-to-face interactions so they cannot build social relationships. In addition, it contributes to decreasing students' motivation and distracting them, especially those who have problems with time management. Moreover, having poor communication with others makes learners feel isolated; this is considered a crucial drawback of online education as Roberts and McInerney (2007) confirm. Furthermore, online education may have a negative psychological influence such as frustration. Frustration is the most permanent feeling associated with online learning in which sometimes individuals cannot log in or links they receive do not work. Besides, computer anxiety is considered a definite problem when students become afraid of interacting with computers and cannot manage them properly (Dhull & Arora, 2017). Almosa (2002) criticizes online education for various reasons such as remoteness and lack of face-to-face interaction. Additionally, he suggests that it is difficult to control some sinful activities such as plagiarism and cheating in exams. He also mentions that not all fields can be taught or studied online such as scientific fields that need practical teaching.

C. EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Online Education During COVID-19 Pandemic

Kusuma et al. (2021) conducted a descriptive case study to investigate the EFL teachers' perceptions of synchronous teacher-student, student-teacher, and student-student interaction via Google Meet during the COVID-19 epidemic. The findings demonstrated that EFL teachers tried to create an attractive educational environment even though they encountered different challenges in online classroom interactions. Chi and Yen (2022) explored the perceptions of EFL high school teachers of online English language education under the impact of COVID-19 by interviewing six EFL high school instructors in the Mekong Delta. The results revealed that the participants, although they faced some obstacles when conducting online classes, had positive attitudes due to the usefulness and simplicity of online education. In addition, Astiandani and Anam (2021) investigated six Indonesian secondary EFL teachers' perceptions towards how they implemented the online formative assessment, the affordances and challenges they faced, and how they dealt with these challenges amidst the Covid-19 pandemic. The findings confirmed that all the participants perceived using the online formative assessment positively because they could provide their students with immediate feedback, improve their students' performance, have flexibility in time and place to submit their assignments, and avoid having a boring time. On the other hand, the participants expressed that the most important obstacles they had were having a slow internet connection, lacking some facilities, and wanting more time to create online tests. Furthermore, Nursalina and Fitrawati (2021) conducted a descriptive quantitative study to investigate 42 EFL teachers' perceptions of online learning activities during the pandemic at high schools in Padang. The findings showed that those participants had quite positive attitudes towards online learning in the pandemic era. Additionally, as a part of their research, Fitri and Putro (2021) analyzed the perceptions of 126 primary and secondary EFL teachers regarding the effectiveness of integrating ICT in their teaching during the epidemic period. The results showed that most of the participants had positive attitudes toward online teaching because it is effective. However, they explained that they faced some problems because of a lack

of internet access, little technical support from schools, and limited knowledge and training in ICT. Aksyah et al. (2021) examined the teachers' perceptions and obstacles they had when they taught English online during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results confirmed that 55.45% of the participants were against online education due to some technical and situational problems while 44.54% of them preferred this method.

D. Online Education During COVID-19 Pandemic in Saudi Arabia

In their study, Khalil and Alharbi (2022) examined 101 EFL teachers' perceptions of the performance of three e-learning platforms which were Blackboard, Google Classroom, and Zoom during the pandemic era of COVID-19. They asserted, according to the participants' opinions, that the most beneficial platform was Google Classroom followed by Blackboard and Zoom. Moreover, their study revealed that all the participants agreed that online education is healthy, interactive, and helpful with students' depression and mental stress during the COVID-19 lockdowns. In their qualitative study, Saleh and Meccawy (2022) examined 25 EFL teachers' perceptions from the Preparatory Year Program at King Abdulaziz University of online teaching during the pandemic era. The findings clarified four key challenges that EFL teachers encountered. These challenges were basically related to the learners which were lack of physical interaction, lack of participation and attendance, lack of motivation, willingness to cheat in online exams, and not being responsible for their learning process. Moreover, the researchers identified the significant problems related to teachers themselves which were feeling of isolation and lack of online classes control and management. Regarding the system challenges, they mentioned that internet issues and technical difficulties were the most important systemic obstacles. For institutions, time management and having overloading content to be taught in a short amount of time were the basic problems EFL teachers faced. Algethami (2022) explored 161 English language teachers' perceptions from several Saudi universities of their experience with teaching English online during the COVID-19 epidemic era. The findings asserted that Saudi universities were technically ready to immediately shift to the process of online teaching. However, the participants' perceptions were mixed regarding teaching English online because of their personal preferences and different teaching contexts. Moreover, the same result was discovered regarding their attitudes toward the effectiveness of online teaching and assessment. Moreover, Alghamdi (2022) investigated the perceptions of 205 EFL teachers in elementary schools regarding the implementation of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in Saudi Arabia during the critical period of COVID-19. The findings showed that the participants' perceptions were positive and considered MALL a beneficial tool although they encountered some challenges which were students' non-use of mobile phones for academic purposes, lack of internet connection and speed, small screen size, and lack of MALL activities and software.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

To achieve the objective of this study which was about investigating EFL university instructors' perceptions of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic, a quantitative approach was used for collecting data, analyzing data, and discussing the results.

A. Participants

The population of this research consisted of EFL university instructors from several Saudi universities. The sample was chosen randomly. It contained 32 participants; 87.5% of them were females while 12.5% were males. They belonged to many higher educational institutions which were Majmaah University, King Saud University, Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University, Bisha University, King Abdulaziz University, Sattam bin Abdulaziz University, Um Alqura University, King Khalid University, and Technical and Vocational Training Corporation. 40.6% of them had 6 to 10 years of teaching experience, followed by the participants with 16 years and more of teaching experience representing 25%, 18.8% of the participants had 11 to 15 years of teaching experience, and 15.6% of them had 0 to 5 teaching experience years. 62.5% of the participants had not had the experience to teach online before the COVID-19 pandemic while 37.5% had. Moreover, 53.1% of them agreed that they had been trained to teach online during the epidemic era, 34.4% of them agreed that they had the chance to be trained before the pandemic, and 12.5% of them claimed that they had not been trained ever. Regarding the platforms they used during this critical period, the majority of the participants (75%) confirmed that they used Blackboard, 9.4% of them used Zoom, 9.4% used Google Meet, and 6.3% used Microsoft Teams. Furthermore, 56.2% of the participants reported that they have been currently teaching online courses while 43.8% of them have not.

B. Instruments

This study used a five-point Likert questionnaire developed by the researcher containing five options, which were strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. It included four parts. The first part was about collecting the participants' demographic information. The second part focused on the advantages of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic including 10 items. The third part was related to the disadvantages of online education during that era consisting of 10 items. The last part entailed the effectiveness of online education during the epidemic period involving 11 items. Moreover, to ensure that the questionnaire is valid, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was calculated as shown in Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3.

TABLE 1
THE VALIDITY OF THE PART “ADVANTAGES OF ONLINE EDUCATION DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC”

Items	Person correlation	Items	Person correlation
1	.627**	6	.458**
2	.710**	7	.561**
3	.518**	8	.606**
4	.525**	9	.594**
5	.571**	10	.526**

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

TABLE 2
THE VALIDITY OF THE PART “DISADVANTAGES OF ONLINE EDUCATION DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC”

Items	Person correlation	Items	Person correlation
1	.496**	6	.565**
2	.581**	7	.593**
3	.571**	8	.757**
4	.515**	9	.620**
5	.606**	10	.684**

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

TABLE 3
THE VALIDITY OF THE PART “EFFECTIVENESS OF ONLINE EDUCATION DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC”

Items	Person correlation	Items	Person correlation
1	.777**	9	-0.065
2	.493**	10	.500**
3	.620**	11	0.048
4	.615**	12	-0.003
5	-0.017	13	.581**
6	.465**	14	.767**
7	.471**	15	.747**
8	.497**	-	-

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

Tables 1, 2, and 3 show that all the items of the three parts were valid except items 5, 9, 11, and 12 which belonged to the third part “Effectiveness of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic”. Therefore, these items were excluded. Moreover, to check the reliability of the questionnaire, Alpha Cronbach’s Stability Coefficient was calculated (Table 4).

TABLE 4
THE RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

Dimensions	Reliability coefficient
Advantages of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic	.0.741
disadvantages of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic	.0.785
Effectiveness of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic	.0.775
Overall Reliability	0.814

If the total is 80% or above, then the instrument becomes reliable (Artstein & Poesio, 2008). Since the result of Cronbach’s Alpha was 0.814, the instrument was reliable.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

A Google Form was used to prepare the questionnaire to be sent to EFL university instructors via various modes of social media. Descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, and ranking) were calculated using SPSS (version 25.0) as shown in Tables 5, 6, and 7 to investigate the EFL university instructors’ perceptions towards online education during the pandemic of COVID-19.

IV. RESULTS

A. Advantages of Online Education During the COVID-19 Pandemic

To determine the EFL university instructors’ perceptions of the advantages of online education during the epidemic era in Saudi universities, frequencies, percentages, mean, standard deviation, and ranking were computed (Table 5).

TABLE 5
QUANTITATIVE DATA OF THE PART “ADVANTAGES OF ONLINE EDUCATION DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC”

N	Items	Approval degree										Mean	SD	Ranking
		Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
1	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic was helpful for EFL teachers and students.	10	31.3	11	34.4	4	12.5	6	18.8	1	3.1	3.72	1.02	7
2	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic contributed to developing my performance as an EFL teacher.	6	18.8	17	53.1	7	21.9	2	6.3	0	0.0	3.84	0.81	6
3	Online education environment during the COVID-19 pandemic was more flexible.	11	34.4	18	56.3	1	3.1	2	6.3	0	0.0	4.19	0.78	3
4	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic helped me as an EFL teacher to be creative.	5	15.6	17	53.1	5	15.6	5	15.6	0	0.0	3.69	0.93	8
5	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic was free of charge.	14	43.8	8	25.0	5	15.6	2	6.3	3	9.4	3.88	1.01	5
6	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic contributed to developing EFL students’ technological skills.	7	21.9	24	75.0	1	3.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	4.19	0.47	4
7	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic contributed to improving EFL teachers’ technological skills.	17	53.1	14	43.8	0	0.0	1	3.1	0	0.0	4.47	0.67	1
8	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic was helpful in improving EFL students’ cognitive skills.	2	6.3	10	31.3	12	37.5	6	18.8	2	6.3	3.13	1.01	10
9	Online education platforms have several tools that facilitate teaching online classes.	7	21.9	25	78.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4.22	0.42	2
10	During the COVID-19 pandemic, it was easy to motivate EFL students to do their assignments and provide them with feedback.	5	15.6	13	40.6	7	21.9	7	21.9	0	0.0	3.50	1.02	9
Overall mean											3.88	0.50	-	

The table above reveals that the perceptions of the participants of the advantages of online learning during the epidemic era were high with a mean score of (3.88 ± 0.50). Item 7 was the most frequent item selected by the participants and was ranked first with a mean score of (4.47 ± 0.67), followed by item 9. This item was ranked second in terms of frequency among other items with a mean score of (4.22 ± 0.42). Item 3 was the third most frequent element with a mean score of (4.19 ± 0.78) and was slightly different from the sixth item that came fourth with a mean score of (4.19 ± 0.47). In the fifth place, item 5 appeared with a mean score of (3.88 ± 1.01) followed by item 2 that was ranked sixth among the other items achieving a mean score of (3.84 ± 0.81). Item 1 came in the seventh place with a mean score of (3.72 ± 1.02). Item 4 had a mean score of (3.96 ± 0.93) achieving the eighth rank. Item 10 was the ninth one in terms of frequency with a mean score of (3.50 ± 1.02). The least frequent item was item 8 occurring with a mean score of (3.13 ± 1.01).

B. Disadvantages of Online Education During the COVID-19 Pandemic

To indicate the EFL university instructors’ perceptions of the disadvantages of online learning during the epidemic era in Saudi Arabia, frequencies, percentages, mean, ad standard deviation, and ranking were computed (Table 6).

TABLE 6
QUANTITATIVE DATA OF THE PART “DISADVANTAGES OF ONLINE EDUCATION DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC”

N	Items	Approval degree										Mean	SD	Ranking
		Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
1	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic demotivated EFL students to learn.	1	3.1	9	28.1	13	40.6	8	25.0	1	3.1	3.03	0.90	6
2	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic prevented EFL students to learn because it costs very much.	0	0.0	2	6.3	8	25.0	17	53.1	5	15.6	2.22	0.79	10
3	During the COVID-19 pandemic, it was difficult to interact online between EFL students and their teachers.	3	9.4	5	15.6	3	9.4	19	59.4	2	6.3	2.63	1.03	8
4	During the COVID-19 pandemic, online education made EFL students feel alone due to the lack of social interaction.	5	15.6	12	37.5	9	28.1	6	18.8	0	0.0	3.50	0.98	2
5	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic put the learning process at stake due to poor accessibility to the internet connection.	3	9.4	15	46.9	8	25.0	6	18.8	0	0.0	3.47	0.92	3
6	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic made it difficult for EFL teachers to teach EFL students in virtual classes.	0	0.0	4	12.5	3	9.4	24	75.0	1	3.1	2.31	0.74	9
7	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic made it difficult for EFL teachers to control sinful activities such as cheating.	12	37.5	11	34.4	4	12.5	5	15.6	0	0.0	3.94	1.08	1
8	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic made it difficult for EFL teachers to know the individual differences of their students.	8	25.0	9	28.1	3	9.4	11	34.4	1	3.1	3.38	1.29	5
9	Online education during the COVID-19 pandemic made it difficult for EFL teachers to ask questions or receive quick feedback from their students.	4	12.5	16	50.0	1	3.1	11	34.4	0	0.0	3.41	1.10	4
10	Teaching EFL online classes during the COVID-19 pandemic needed more time than teaching traditional classes.	4	12.5	8	25.0	6	18.8	13	40.6	1	3.1	3.03	1.05	7
Overall mean											3.09	0.60	-	

This table shows that the perceptions of the participants towards the disadvantages of online learning during this critical era were high with a mean score of (3.09 ± 0.60). Item 7 in this part was the most frequent item selected by the participants and was ranked first with a mean score of (3.94 ± 1.08), followed by item 4 that was ranked second in terms of frequency among other items with a mean score of (3.50 ± 0.98) that was slightly different from item 5 that came third with a mean score of (3.47 ± 0.92). Item 9 was the fourth most frequent element with a mean score of (3.41 ± 1.10). In the fifth place, item 8 appeared with a mean score of (3.38 ± 1.29) followed by item 1 that was ranked sixth among the other items achieving a mean score of (3.03 ± 0.90) that was very close to item 10 which came in the seventh place with a mean score (3.03 ± 1.05). Item 3 had a mean score of (2.63 ± 1.03) achieving the eighth rank. Item 6 was the ninth one in terms of frequency with a mean score of (2.31 ± 0.74). The least frequent item was item 2 occurring with a mean score of (2.22 ± 0.79).

C. Effectiveness of Online Learning During the COVID-19 Pandemic

To determine the EFL university instructors’ perceptions of the effectiveness of online learning during the epidemic era, frequencies, percentages, mean, standard deviation, and ranking were computed (Table 7).

TABLE 7
QUANTITATIVE DATA OF THE PART “EFFECTIVENESS OF ONLINE EDUCATION DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC”

N	Items	Approval degree										Mean	SD	Ranking
		Strongly Agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree				
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
1	I believe that the online education environment is more fun.	2	6.3	8	25.0	6	18.8	14	43.8	2	6.3	2.81	1.09	9
2	I believe that teaching the English language online would be difficult.	0	0.0	11	34.4	8	25.0	13	40.6	0	0.0	2.94	0.88	8
3	I believe that online education makes the learning process effective.	0	0.0	13	40.6	7	21.9	12	37.5	0	0.0	3.03	0.90	7
4	I believe that online education can substitute for face-to-face education.	1	3.1	6	18.8	2	6.3	17	53.1	6	18.8	2.34	1.10	11
5	I believe that online education makes it easy for me to assess my students' performance.	1	3.1	7	21.9	3	9.4	19	59.4	2	6.3	2.56	1.01	10
6	I believe that online education helps me to achieve the objectives of the courses.	1	3.1	12	37.5	8	25.0	11	34.4	0	0.0	3.09	0.93	6
7	I believe that the home environment is more suitable for online education.	6	18.8	8	25.0	8	25.0	9	28.1	1	3.1	3.28	1.07	4
8	I prefer to have training sessions to teach online classes.	6	18.8	14	43.8	8	25.0	4	12.5	0	0.0	3.69	0.93	1
9	I will keep teaching online classes even after the COVID-19 pandemic.	4	12.5	10	31.3	10	31.3	8	25.0	0	0.0	3.31	1.00	3
10	I prefer online education because it makes me more comfortable.	6	18.8	7	21.9	9	28.1	10	31.3	0	0.0	3.28	1.01	5
11	I believe that online education is important, and I recommend it.	10	31.3	6	18.8	9	28.1	7	21.9	0	0.0	3.59	1.06	2
Overall mean												3.09	0.57	-

Table 7 demonstrates that the perceptions of the participants towards the effectiveness of online education during the pandemic era were high with a mean score of (3.09 ± 0.57). Item 8 in this part was the most frequent item selected by the participants and was ranked first with a mean score of (3.69 ± 0.93). Item 11 was ranked second in terms of frequency among other items with a mean score of (3.59 ± 1.06). Item 9 came third with a mean score of (3.31 ± 1.00). Item 7 appeared in the fourth place with a mean score of (3.28 ± 1.07) that was slightly different from item 10 which came fifth with a mean score of (3.28 ± 1.01). Item 6 was the sixth most frequent element with a mean score of (3.09 ± 0.93). In the seventh place, item 3 appeared with a mean score of (3.03 ± 0.90) followed by item 2 that was ranked eighth among the other items achieving a mean score of (2.94 ± 0.88). Next, item 1 came in the ninth place with a mean score of (2.81 ± 1.09). Item 5 had a mean score of (2.56 ± 1.01) achieving the tenth rank. The least frequent one among the others was item 4 occurring with a mean score of (2.34 ± 1.10).

V. DISCUSSION

This study investigated the EFL university instructors' perceptions of online education during the pandemic of COVID-19 in Saudi universities. The findings revealed that the participants had an overall positive attitude towards using online platforms when learning or teaching the English language claiming that this process was helpful and effective. They agreed that learning/teaching the English language online has several advantages that make it highly recommended to be utilized. They indicated that it could improve the technological skills of EFL teachers and students, facilitate teaching online classes, develop the EFL teachers' performance, help EFL teachers to think creatively, enhance EFL students' cognitive skills, motivate EFL students to do their assignments and provide them with appropriate feedback, achieve the objectives of the courses, and make them comfortable. Moreover, the participants strongly agreed that online education is free of charge and very flexible and asserted that online education platforms have several tools that facilitate presenting online classes. Furthermore, they added that it was not difficult to teach or interact with their students at that time. These results are in line with the results of the studies conducted by various researchers such as Chi and Yen (2022), Astiandani and Anam (2021), Nursalina and Fitrawati (2021), Fitri and Putro (2021), and Dhull and Arora (2017).

On the other hand, the participants reported some of the disadvantages of teaching or learning the English language online. One of the most important challenges that EFL instructors encountered during the epidemic period was the difficulty of regulating sinful activities such as cheating; this result supported what Almosa (2002) confirmed. In addition, the participants claimed that the lack of social interaction and the poor accessibility to the internet connection negatively affected the learning process during the COVID-19 pandemic; this is consistent with what was mentioned by Dhull and Arora (2017) and Almosa (2002). Moreover, some of them suggested that it might be a little bit difficult for them to ask for or receive quick feedback at the same time from their students even though some of them illustrated that online education helped them to provide their students with feedback at any time. Others indicated that sometimes they felt it was easy for them to know their students' individual differences, so it was not difficult to motivate them; this asserted what Saleh and Meccawy (2022) concluded. Additionally, some of them disagreed that, when teaching EFL

online classes during the pandemic, they needed more time than teaching traditional classes or found it difficult to teach virtual classes.

Furthermore, the participants indicated that they would keep teaching online classes even after the epidemic has been over even though they proposed that online education cannot substitute face-to-face education to avoid being isolated. This result is the same as Dhull and Arora (2017) and Almosa (2002) asserted. However, most of them expressed that they preferred to have some training sessions to teach online classes to master technology, as supported by Fitri and Putro (2021) because little knowledge of technology or technological illiteracy is one of the most key problems that can prevent online education. Also, some of them disagreed that the home environment is more suitable for online education due to several reasons such as distractions including family, television, and social media, internet connection issues, and lack of interaction. Accordingly, they suggested that teaching the English language online would be difficult. Also, most of them did not agree that online education offered a funny educational environment during that serious era.

VI. CONCLUSION

In March 2020, WHO announced that COVID-19 is a global pandemic. All aspects of life were affected negatively, particularly education. This virus was the main reason for closing schools and universities. This closure considerably forced educational institutions to unprecedentedly shift from traditional learning to online learning either synchronously or asynchronously (Almahasees et al., 2021). Online learning is having the experience of learning using technology (Carliner, 2004). However, this study aimed to investigate the EFL university instructors' perceptions of online education during the COVID-19 pandemic. Based on the results obtained, it can be concluded that most EFL teachers had a more dominant positive attitude regarding online learning activities although some of them demonstrated that there were some negative aspects that should be taken into consideration.

Online education is believed that it has some pros that encourage EFL instructors to use it when teaching. By using online education, EFL teachers' and students' technological skills are developed, and several tools are provided to help in facilitating English language learning. Moreover, it is characterized by its flexibility, being chargeless, and enabling EFL teachers to think creatively and improve their performance. Furthermore, it motivates EFL students to do their assignments and provides EFL teachers with opportunities to give feedback. However, there are some cons that may negatively affect online education and make it more difficult for EFL teachers to activate this type of learning. Lack of controlling sinful activities such as cheating, lack of face-to-face social interaction, and poor accessibility to the internet connection are the fundamental three disadvantages of online education that most EFL university instructors agree on. In addition, EFL teachers prefer to be trained before being engaged in this technological experience because this can help them to get more benefits and encourage them to develop their students' performance as well.

After going through the advantages and disadvantages of online education, it can be concluded, in general, that most EFL university instructors, who participated in this study, had quite positive perceptions of online learning activities and believed that it is important and effective. To sum up, it can be said that online education is a significantly excellent choice to use if there are some issues that hinder traditional education such as being unable to study due to long distances or having a job. Moreover, the flexibility of asynchronous online education makes it a preferred option for those people who can join classes at a specific time. Yet, there are some aspects that should be considered to ensure that online education would be activated successfully. Accordingly, the Saudi education ministry should significantly take some considerable and corrective steps to overcome the challenges that EFL teachers and students may face when teaching or learning online. To generalize the results, other aspects related to this topic, however, might be investigated by further researchers. A study can be conducted on a sample containing an equal number of females and males to examine whether gender can affect EFL teachers' attitudes toward online learning. In addition, another study can be implemented to investigate the effect of online learning on EFL students' self-efficiency in a particular language skill (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, or listening). Moreover, an additional study can be conducted to compare EFL university instructors' attitudes to EFL school teachers' attitudes toward the effectiveness of online education.

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The Effects of the Communicative Approach and the Use of Information Technology on Students' Motivation and Achievement in Indonesian Language Learning

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Abstract—This study aimed to explain the structural influence of the implementation of the communicative approach and the use of information technology in Indonesian language learning on students' motivation and learning achievement. This research was conducted in Blitar, Indonesia, and 186 students were chosen as the samples. An explanatory research design was used in this research. The data collection techniques used questionnaires and documentation, while data analysis techniques used descriptive statistics and structural equation modeling. The results of the analysis showed that there was a direct effect of the communication approach and the use of information technology on students' learning motivation. There was a significant direct effect of students' learning motivation on students' achievement in the Indonesian language class. The communicative approach had an indirect effect on students' achievement and showed a stronger coefficient of the effect on learning motivation compared to the use of information technology. These findings were discussed in depth based on the theory and results of previous studies.

Index Terms—communicative approach, information technology, learning motivation, learning achievement, Indonesian Language

I. INTRODUCTION

Education is essential to the intellectual life of a nation. With the rapid development of science and technology, the function of education in the life of the nation has increased. Education is not just a goal. Education is the main capital for the success of national development. Therefore, to fulfill its function, the quality of education needs to be improved continuously. Improving the quality of education is a top priority in national development in the field of education. The purpose of improving the quality of education is to improve students' achievement. In this case, the main goal of education is to produce good-quality student learning outcomes (Wiyono, 2017). The student learning outcomes are reflected in the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students acquire while participating in the learning process. Students' achievement is influenced by many factors, both internal and external (Tella, 2007). One factor that is influential on students' achievement is the quality of learning delivered by teachers. In this case, a good learning process will increase a good learning climate. A good learning climate itself has an impact on students' achievement. Improving the quality of education is intended to improve students' achievement. In addition, the main objective of improving the quality of education is to increase the quality of student learning outcomes. They are reflected in the knowledge, skills, and attitudes obtained by the students while participating in the learning process. In these circumstances, learning outcomes are indicated by the achievements that are accomplished by all students related to the tasks given by their teachers. Students' achievement is influenced by many factors, both internal and external. One of the most influential factors in students' achievement is the quality of the learning process. The teaching quality of good teachers will bring improvement in a good teaching and learning climate. As a result, a good learning climate will boost

good learning achievement. Education is expected to be continued in any condition and any situation. Therefore, whatever happens in education, the learning process must not stop, so the Indonesian government should make a policy of changing the learning process from schools to homes, namely, through a distance learning system by utilizing digital or online communication information technology at all levels from elementary schools to junior high schools.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Indonesian language learning process in schools aims to make students competent to (1) appreciate and be proud of Indonesian as the language of unity and the national language; (2) understand the Indonesian language in terms of form, meaning, and function and use it properly and creatively for various purposes and in various circumstances; (3) use the Indonesian language to improve their intellectual abilities and gain emotional and social maturity, and (4) communicate effectively and efficiently both orally and in writing. Besides, language learning is one of the most important subjects in schools. It has special characteristics and requires a special approach in its implementation. To realize a good level of achievement among students, language learning should be carried out with the right approach, that is, the techniques, methods, or strategies used to achieve the learning objectives.

The language learning process includes three components, namely, linguistic components, comprehension, and production. The linguistic components include pronunciation, spelling, punctuation, structure, vocabulary, paragraphs, and discourse markers. Pronunciation refers to accuracy, clear pronunciation, and reasonable intonation according to the context. Spelling and punctuation are taught to familiarize students with reading and writing with a high level of accuracy. Meanwhile, vocabulary, structure, paragraphs, and discourse markers are emphasized in comprehension related to the context and directed at developing ideas.

The component of comprehension and the use of language refer to the implementation of language learning. Some aspects of comprehension include listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This learning process includes activities to develop the ability to absorb ideas, give opinions, share experiences, deliver messages, and show feelings in both spoken and written communication. The use of language refers to a learning process that aims to make students practice their communication skills, both written and oral. This learning objective can be achieved through writing and speaking activities, which include developing the ability to express ideas and opinions and convey experiences, messages, and feelings.

Furthermore, language learning techniques emphasize the function of language as a communication tool. Teaching methods can be chosen according to the objectives and students' circumstances. To avoid boredom, various methods can be implemented. Then, the learning process can be carried out inside or outside the classroom using various tasks for individuals, pairs, or groups or involving the whole class (Atia & Salem, 2015). The language learning evaluation system emphasizes the evaluation of the learning process and outcomes. The targets of evaluation include knowledge, skills, and language attitudes. The evaluation is carried out through an assessment of activities and learning progress, giving suggestions, and additions, during and after the learning process.

Language learning needs to be conducted with a good approach. One of the applied approaches is the communicative approach. A communicative approach is an approach that emphasizes the use of language as a communication tool. In this approach, language is seen as something related to what is done or what meaning can be expressed through the language itself (Agbatogun, 2014).

In general, during its implementation, four competencies are contained in the use of a communicative approach, namely, grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Abate (2014) mentioned the terms associated with communicative competence, which are grammatical competence, discourse competence, pragmatic competence, and strategic competence (Bekele, 2014). Grammatical competence is linguistic competence which includes mastery of language signs, and the ability to recognize and use vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonological features to form words and sentences. Sociolinguistic competence is an interdisciplinary competence. People can use language properly, naturally, and in the social context of the language used. Discourse competence is related to the interpretation of discourse or language structures that are larger than sentences, whether in the form of topics, paragraphs, chapters, books, or critiques of literary works. Strategic competence is the ability to use language using several strategies to avoid insufficient linguistic knowledge of one's language.

The communicative approach emphasizes the communication process in the learning journey, not the mastery of language forms. The teacher's role is to facilitate the communication process among the students. Students do a large number of communicative activities rather than use language structures, therefore, accuracy and fluency are used simultaneously. They develop their communication skills while practicing their language competency. This learning process using a communicative approach emphasizes the effort to develop students' communication skills, which includes the ability to interpret language forms, which are explicitly or implicitly stated. The ultimate goal is to improve students' achievement in the Indonesian language field.

The research on the effect of an information-technology-based method on the communicative approach to students' motivation and achievement in learning Indonesian cannot be separated from the pandemic of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) experienced in all levels of education including elementary and junior high schools. The learning process, which is usually carried out face-to-face between teachers and students, was then replaced by online classes using the internet (Pohan, 2020). This process was carried out by utilizing online platforms to apply information technology for

learning purposes. In this case, the Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia issued Letter Number 4 of 2020 about the Implementation of Government Policies in the Emergency Period of the Spread of Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19), especially in the second point, namely, learning from home with some prearrangement.

First, online learning from home is carried out to provide a meaningful learning experience for students without burdening them with the demands of completing all curriculum aspects for moving up to a higher grade and graduating. Second, learning from home focuses on life skills related to the COVID-19 pandemic. Third, learning activities and tasks may vary between students according to their interests, motivations, and conditions considering the gap in access/facilities at home. Fourth, the evidence or end products of distance learning activities provide qualitative and useful feedback for teachers without being required to provide quantitative marks or scores. Thus, distance learning or online technology-based learning is indispensable. Moreover, online learning during such a pandemic takes advantage of advances in science and technology. As a result, the development of technology affects the learning system greatly.

Generally, the application of learning using a communicative approach can be seen from five elements—objectives, materials, methods, media, and evaluation. The purpose of language teaching using a communicative approach is based on students' language needs, namely, the fulfillment of the urge to express ideas, thoughts, feelings, and information conveyed by others both in writing and speaking. The goal of language teaching is not to emphasize the knowledge of grammar but it should emphasize the development and improvement of language skills. The communicative syllabus is the appropriate material to support the implementation of teaching in which all syllabuses aim to create a learning situation that is based on the real environment of the language used. Media or learning resources can provide direct experience for students to learn receptive and productive skills, especially in writing and speaking, to develop their four language skills, namely, grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. The teaching method emphasizes strengthening functional communication and social interaction. The evaluation of language teaching includes the assessment of the programs, processes, and outcomes of learning progress. How the communicative approach is implemented in Indonesian language learning has not been widely studied so far. Also, the extent of the influence of the communicative approach and the use of information technology on learning motivation and learning achievement has still not been discussed. Therefore, it needs to be studied in depth. Several previous studies have shown different results, so no strong conclusion can be drawn. Abate's (2014) research result showed that language teaching approaches and methods had consistently oscillated from one end to the other following successive changes in linguistic ideology and learning theory. However, methods used, such as grammatical translation, direct method, audio-lingual, suggestopedia, and the Silent Way cannot accommodate the diversity of learners' communication skills, learning needs, and interests. The results of Jin's (2008) study showed that the conventional learning process focused on conveying knowledge of the language. Language learning in the classroom aims at fostering communicative competence and making the class a place to practice communicative skills. Furthermore, the results of research by Wiyono et al. (2017) showed that the application of a communicative approach in language teaching had no significant effects on student learning outcomes related to the national examination.

The results of Agbatogun's (2014) research showed that the application of a communicative approach in language learning had no significant effects on student learning outcomes related to the national examination. The results of further studies showed that there was a significant difference between the communicative competence of students' pre-test and post-test scores in each group. Furthermore, there was a significant difference in the post-test scores of students' communicative competence based on teaching strategies in all groups. The results of multiple regression analysis revealed that 84.9% of students' communicative competence variance was calculated by a combination of predictor variables. The result of the study by Zhang and Cheng (2022) showed that there was a significant relationship between abstract conceptualization, active participation, reflective observation, and students' performance. This indicates that the extent of the implementation of language learning has not been clear, especially in Indonesian language teaching with a communicative approach. The results of the study by Nurchasanah (1995) showed that learning Indonesian was still grammatical. Many teachers claim to teach with a communicative approach, but actually, the materials and techniques used have not shown this method.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the development of information and communication technology has been enhanced rapidly. Part of the learning process was carried out online (Fauziyah, 2019). For this reason, communicative approach research is needed in line with the development of information and communication technology (Wang, 2015). The use of information technology in the learning process using a communicative approach has never been studied in depth. On the one hand, the results of the research by Wiyono et al. (2019, 2020, 2021) showed that the use of information and communication technology in the learning process did not have a significant effect on students' learning process and outcomes. On the other hand, the results of the research by Ghanizadeh and Razavi (2015) showed a positive influence of the use of multimedia on students' learning outcomes. Learning features that apply to students are needed (Hollister et al., 2022). Students' attitudes and behavior toward social media affected their academic performance (Alismaiel et al., 2022). Social media is a powerful tool for learning if teachers know how to explore it (Ramazanova et al., 2022). There was also a difference in the evaluation side; students with face-to-face learning methods preferred practical exams, while students with online learning chose written exams (Elalouf et al., 2022). From these results, it can be underlined that previous studies have shown different results. Teachers' habits in applying information technology in learning also

affected the intensity of using information and communication technology during the learning process (Meletiou-Mavrotheris et al., 2021). These conditions will certainly affect the results. Communication is a major problem faced by teachers and students (Kasımoğlu et al., 2022), therefore, it needs to be investigated more deeply.

As seen from other sides, many factors influence student learning outcomes. One of the internal factors that are suspected to have a significant effect on student learning outcomes is learning motivation. Some research results show that learning motivation has a significant effect on learning outcomes. Whether the communicative approach and use of information technology affect students' learning motivation remains a question. Several research results showed that online learning affected students' motivation and learning achievement (Yahiaoui et al., 2022). However, other studies have shown different results (Wiyono, 2019). The structural influence of the communicative approach and the use of information and communication technology on learning motivation and student learning outcomes needs to be investigated. Based on this background, this research was carried out.

The purpose of this study was to examine the structural model of the influence of communicative approach variables and the use of information technology on learning motivation and students' achievement directly or indirectly. The hypothesis of this research was formulated that the communicative approach and the use of information technology have a positive effect on learning motivation and students' achievement directly or indirectly. Students' motivation to learn has a positive effect on their achievement.

III. METHODS

This study used an explanatory design (Johnson & Christensen, 2005). This explanatory research aimed to find a model and determine the coefficient of the effect of exogenous variables on endogenous variables, as well as to explain each coefficient obtained in depth. In general, this study aimed to find a model of the structural influence of the communicative approach and the use of information technology on students' motivation and achievement in learning Indonesian.

This research was conducted in Blitar, East Java Indonesia. By using random sampling, the number of research samples was 186 students. Questionnaires and documentation were used to collect data. The instruments used in this research were (1) an instrument for implementing Indonesian language learning with a communicative approach, (2) an instrument for measuring the use of technology in learning, (3) an instrument for measuring students' motivation, and (4) an instrument for measuring students' achievement.

The instrument for implementing Indonesian language learning based on a communicative approach for students was used to obtain data about the implementation of learning materials for the subject of the Indonesian language. This instrument consisted of 30 items with five dimensions, namely, the objectives, materials, methods, media, and learning evaluation. The instrument for measuring the use of information technology consisted of 12 instruments which were divided into two dimensions—variations in online communication techniques and variations in the use of online communication techniques in the learning process. The research instrument for students' learning motivation consisted of 20 instruments which were divided into three dimensions—motivation to participate in the learning process, motivation to do assignments, and motivation to develop themselves outside the classroom. The instrument for measuring learning achievement consisted of two items—the average of Indonesian language scores and the average of total scores.

The questionnaire used for the communicative approach and the use of information technology in learning Indonesian used a behavior observation scale, while the instrument to measure students' learning motivation used a summated rating or Likert scale. The four alternative answers provided for the behavior observation scale were assessed with scores of 4, 3, 2, and 1, while for the Likert scale, they ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree with the scores of 4, 3, 2, and 1 for the favorable statements and the reverse for unfavorable statements.

To obtain a valid instrument, the development of the instrument referred to the variable construct that was measured and validated by experts in terms of content and language. To get empirical validity, a tryout was carried out before it was applied to a sample of 100 students. The instrument validity test used an item validity test by correlating item scores and total scores. The result was that all items showed a coefficient of >0.3. Thus, it can be concluded that the instrument has good item validity. The Cronbach's Alpha formula was used to estimate the reliability. The results are presented broadly in Table 1.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

No	Instrument	Reliability Coefficient	Conclusion
1	Communicative approach	<i>r_{ii}</i> = 0.924	Reliable
2	The use of information technology	<i>r_{ii}</i> = 0.889	Reliable
3	Students' learning motivation	<i>r_{ii}</i> = 0.918	Reliable

Based on Table 1, it can be underlined that the reliability coefficients of Cronbach's Alpha are all above 0.7. Thus, it can be concluded that all the instruments have good reliability.

Structural equation modeling analysis and descriptive statistics techniques were used in this study to analyze the data. Therefore, a two-stage analysis was carried out, namely, testing the measurement model using Confirmatory Factor

Analysis, and testing the structural model by testing the effect of exogenous variables on endogenous and endogenous variables on endogenous variables directly or indirectly. The construct validity test was conducted by looking at the value of the loading factor and the p-value for each indicator. The structural model analysis was applied to determine the magnitude of the influence among variables. Then, the calculations were carried out using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences and Lisrel (Linear Structural Relations).

IV. RESULTS

A. *The Use of a Communicative Approach in Indonesian Language Learning*

Based on the results of the descriptive analysis, it can be seen that the average use of the communicative approach with students learning Indonesian is 3.31. The highest score being 4, this score is considered very good. All the components are presented broadly in Figure 1.

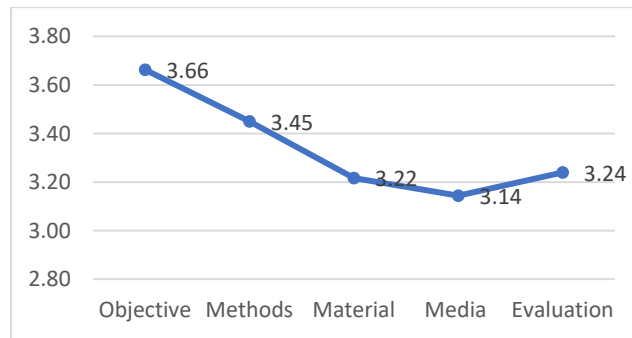
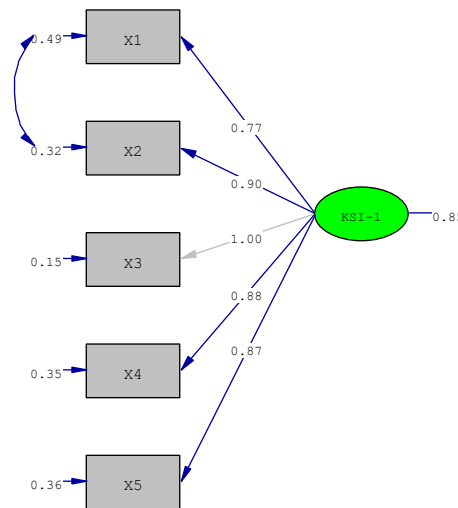


Figure 1. Score Components of the Communicative Approach in Learning

Figure 1 underlines that the highest characteristic of the communicative approach is the formulation of learning objectives, followed by the organization of the materials, the application of learning evaluation, the application of learning methods, and finally the use of media.

The measurement model for the construction of the communicative approach in this process is presented in Figure 2.



Chi-Square=4.35, df=4, P-value=0.36083, RMSEA=0.022

Figure 2. Communicative Approach Variable Measurement Model in Indonesian Language Learning

- KSI-1 = Communicative Approach in Instruction
- X1 = Objective
- X2 = Materials
- X3 = Methods
- X4 = Media
- X5 = Evaluation

Figure 2 shows that the model fits in the empirical data, which is indicated by the p-value of >0.05 , and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value is below 0.08. The loading factor value is also high, reaching >0.70 . These results are supported by the goodness of fit index value of 0.990, and the normed fit index value of 0.993. All coefficients are above 0.9. Thus, it can be concluded that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. The conceptual model or hypothetical fits in the empirical model, i.e., the characteristics of the five dimensions of the objectives, materials, methods, media, and learning evaluations mentioned are the main components of the communicative approach variables in Indonesian language learning.

B. Use of Information Technology in Indonesian Language Learning

Based on the results of the descriptive analysis, it can be seen that the average value of the use of information technology in learning Indonesian is 3.38. This shows that teachers use information-technology-based communication techniques to teach Indonesian with an average value of three types of communication techniques. Some of the communication techniques used in learning Indonesian are presented in Figure 3.

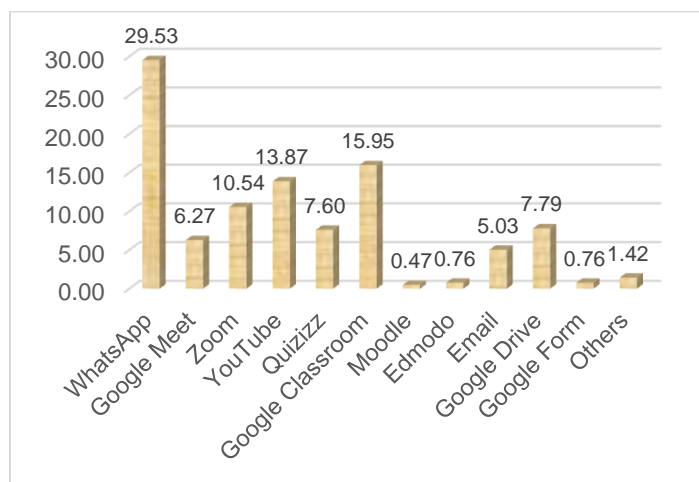


Figure 3. Use of Information-Technology-Based Communication Techniques in Indonesian Language Learning

Figure 3 shows that the applications used by students as communication techniques in learning Indonesian are WhatsApp, followed by Google Classroom, YouTube, Zoom, Google Drive, Quizizz, Google Meet, Email, Edmodo, Google Forms, and Moodle. Meanwhile, about 1.42% use other communication techniques. Based on the results of further analysis, they are used for preparing learning implementation plans, delivery of materials, exercises, task execution, questions and answers, and evaluation of learning.

C. Students' Learning Motivation

Based on the chart below, the result of the analysis of the average student's learning motivation is 3.3. With a maximum score of 4, this value is considered high. The dimensions are presented broadly in Figure 4.

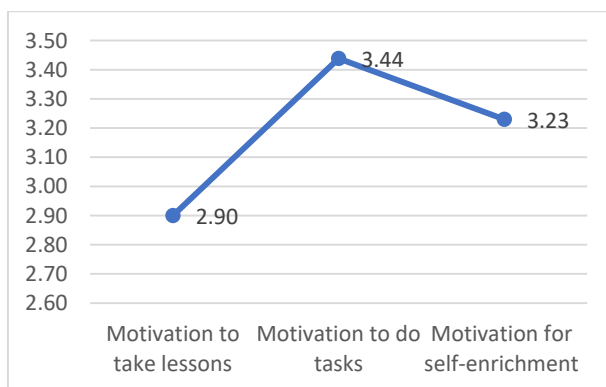
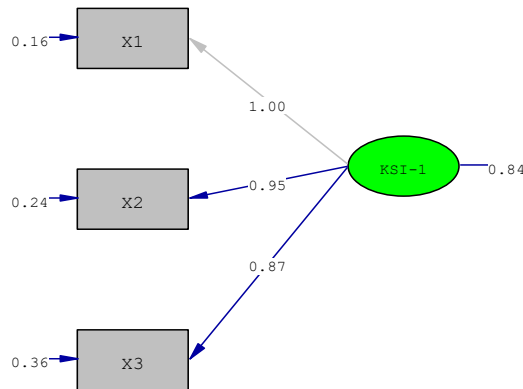


Figure 4. Dimensions of Students' Learning Motivation

In Figure 4, it can be seen that the highest score on the dimensions of students' learning motivation is motivation to do assignments, followed by motivation for self-enrichment and motivation to participate in the learning process. The results of the measurement model analysis are presented in Figure 5.



Chi-Square=0.00, df=0, P-value=1.00000, RMSEA=0.000

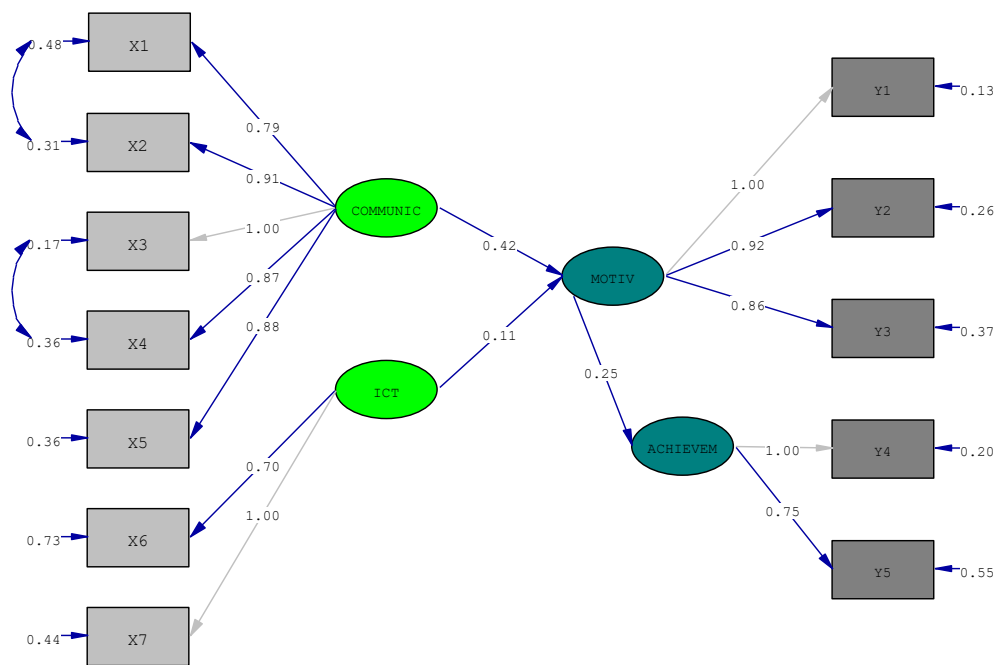
Figure 5. Students' Learning Motivation Measurement Model

- KSI-1 = Learning Motivation
- X1 = Motivation to take lessons
- X2 = Motivation to do tasks
- X3 = Motivation for self-enrichment

Based on Figure 5, it can be stated that the theoretical model of students' learning motivation fits the empirical model. It is indicated by the value of Chi-Square obtained at $p > 0.05$, and $RMSEA < 0.08$. The loading factor value is also high, reaching > 0.80 . As a result, the model is declared to be perfect. Thus, the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This means that motivation to participate in learning, motivation to do assignments, and motivation to develop oneself are the main dimensions of students' motivation.

D. The Structural Model of the Influence of the Communicative Approach and the Use of Information Technology on Students' Motivation and Learning Achievement

According to the research objectives, the main aim of this research is to examine the structural model of the influence of the communicative approach and the use of information technology on students' motivation and learning achievement. The results of the linear structural analysis are presented broadly in Figure 6.



Chi-Square=75.30, df=48, P-value=0.00715, RMSEA=0.055

Figure 6. Structural Model of the Influence of the Communicative Approach and the Use of Information Technology on Students' Motivation and Learning Achievement

Communicative = Communicative Approach in Giving Instructions

X1 = Objective

X2 = Materials

X3 = Methods

X4 = Media

X5 = Evaluation

ICT = Use of information and communication technology

X6 = Variation in online communication techniques

X7 = Use of online communication techniques in learning

Motivation = Learning motivation

Y1 = Motivation to take lessons

Y2 = Motivation to do tasks

Y3 = Motivation for self-enrichment

Achievement = Students' achievement

Y4 = Average of Indonesian language value

Y5 = Average of total subjects' value

From Figure 6, we can conclude that the theoretical model of the influence of the communicative approach and the use of information technology on students' motivation and learning achievement fits the empirical model. This is indicated by the goodness of fit index with a value of 0.936 and the normed fit index with a value of 0.938. The value is above 0.9 and the RMSEA value is 0.055 below 0.08. The loading factor value was also high, reaching >0.70. Thus, the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This means that the hypothetical model fits in the empirical model, and there is an influence of the communicative approach and the use of information technology in learning Indonesian on students' motivation and learning achievement. The value of the effect of each variable, either the gamma value (the influence of exogenous to endogenous variables) or the beta value (the influence of endogenous to exogenous variables) is presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
THE COEFFICIENT OF THE INFLUENCE OF COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH VARIABLES, THE USE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY, MOTIVATION, AND ACHIEVEMENT

Exogenous Variables	Endogenous Variables	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects
Communicative approach	Motivation	0.423*	
	Achievement	-	0.107*
Use of technology and Information	Motivation	0.110*	
	Achievement	-	0.028
Endogenous Variables	Endogenous Variables		
Motivation	Achievement	0.252*	

From Table 2, it can be seen that the coefficient of the direct influence of the communicative approach on students' learning motivation in learning Indonesian is 0.423, and the direct effect of using online communication techniques on learning motivation is 0.110. There is an indirect effect of the communicative approach on students' achievement of 0.107, and there is a direct influence of learning motivation on student achievement of 0.252. Thus, it can be concluded that first, there is a significant direct effect of the communicative approach on students' learning motivation, and second, there is a direct influence of the use of information technology on students' learning motivation. There is an indirect effect of the communicative approach on students' achievement, and there is a significant direct effect of learning motivation on students' achievement.

Based on the measurement model for the communicative approach variable, the lambda (λ) value of the objective dimension is 0.722, the materials are 0.833, the method is 0.913, the media is 0.797, and the learning evaluation is 0.802. Using the information technology, the value of lambda (λ) is obtained with the dimension of variations in online communication techniques is 0.523, and the use of online communication techniques in learning is obtained at 0.748. The value of lambda (λ) obtained in motivation to learn for the dimension of motivation to follow learning is 0.930, motivation to do assignments is 0.859, and motivation for individual development outside the classroom is 0.796. As for students' achievement, the dimension of the lambda (λ) of the Indonesian language mean value is 0.893, and the total mean value is 0.672. All lambda values are included in the high category, so it can be concluded that these components are the main dimensions of the measured variable construct.

V. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to describe and examine the structural model of the influence of the communicative approach and the use of information technology in Indonesian language learning on students' motivation and learning achievement. The results of the analysis showed that teachers applied a communicative approach in the Indonesian language learning process very well. When it was seen from the components, the aspects classified as very good are the objectives and methods, while the aspects of materials, media, and learning evaluation are categorized as quite good. The findings of this study are in line with the results of research by Wiyono et al. (2017) which showed that the implementation of a communicative approach in learning Indonesian is in the "good" category.

The results of the second study indicate that there is a significant effect of using a communicative approach on students' motivation to learn. Based on its components, the highest learning motivation is motivation to do assignments, followed by motivation to develop themselves outside the classroom, followed by motivation to follow the learning process. The findings of this study are in line with the results of Sharma's (2018) research. She mentioned that teachers' communicative style, teaching strategies supporting motivation, curriculum, course materials, and class activities affected students' learning motivation.

The results of the third study indicate that the use of information technology affects students' learning motivation. The findings of this study are in line with the results of research by Idaryani (2021) which showed that by using information and communication technology in the learning process, learning became more interactive and collaborative and increased students' learning motivation. The findings of this study are also in line with the results of research by Wang et al. (2022) which showed that teachers' engagement affected students' English achievement through the chain mediation of autonomous motivation and positive academic emotions. The findings of this study are also consistent with the results of research by Hwang et al. (2014) which showed that peer-assessment-based game development was an effective learning strategy that helped them improve their deep learning, including "in-depth thinking, creativity, and motivation".

From the viewpoint of the communication techniques used by teachers in the learning process, some communication techniques are mostly used by teachers, namely, WhatsApp, Google Meet, Zoom, YouTube, Quizizz, Google Classroom, Email, and Google Drive. WhatsApp is the most widely used online learning. It is used for working on assignments, delivering materials, asking questions, practicing, and assessing (Nabilla & Kartika, 2020). Google Meet is used in online learning for delivering materials, asking questions, and doing assignments, exercises, practice, and assessments (Fatkhurrozi et al., 2021). Zoom is used for materials delivery, questions and answers, task execution, assessment, and practice (Bekele, 2014). YouTube is used by teachers to deliver materials and work on assignments and exercises (Thelwall, 2018). Quizizz is used for practice, assessment, task execution, and questions and answers (Arnesti & Hamid, 2015). Edmodo is used for delivering materials, and working on assignments, assessments, exercises, and

questions and answers. Google Classroom is used for delivering materials, doing assignments, exercises, questions and answers, and practicing. Email is used for delivering materials, submitting assignments, assessments, questions and answers, exercises, and preparing lesson plans. Moodle is used for delivering materials, exercises, task execution, assessments, and questions and answers. Last but not least, Google Drive is used for delivering materials. The results of this study indicate that the use of information and communication technology applications varies according to the needs of the online learning process in each school. The research findings are also in line with the results of Wiyono's (2020, 2021) research which showed that WhatsApp, Google Search, Email, Zoom, Google Meet, and Google Classroom were widely used by teachers during the online learning process.

The results of the fifth study indicate that learning motivation affects students' achievement. The findings of this study are related to several previous research results that students' motivation to learn has a significant effect on their achievement (Guliker, 2004; Steinmayr et al., 2019). The motivation to learn is a dominant variable that affects student achievement. The higher the students' learning motivation is, the higher their achievement. High learning achievements can also increase students' learning motivation (Vu et al., 2022). Thus, there is a reciprocal relationship between learning motivation and learning achievement.

The results of the sixth study indicate that the communication approach has an indirect effect on students' achievement through learning motivation. This shows that a communicative approach accompanied by the use of information technology has a positive influence on students' motivation and achievement in learning Indonesian (Andriani & Rasto, 2019). Learning the Indonesian language with a communicative approach has a significant effect on students' achievement (Wang, 2015).

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the study, it is known that the communicative approach affects students' learning motivation. From the level of implementation, the use of a communicative approach falls into the good category. Therefore, it shows a significant effect on students' motivation to learn. Of the five dimensions of the application of the communicative approach, the average result is in a good category. The existence of learning objectives and materials that emphasize the use of language in daily life interactions is proven to increase students' motivation to learn. The increase in students' motivation to learn will have an impact on increasing students' achievement. This finding is supported by the results of model analysis, that there is an indirect effect of using a communicative approach on students' achievement. Therefore, this finding is still related to the results of several previous studies.

The use of information technology in learning, especially the use of online communication techniques, also affects students' motivation to learn some of the communication techniques that are mostly used are WhatsApp, followed by Google Classroom, YouTube, Zoom, Google Drive, Quizizz, Google Meet, Email, Edmodo, and Google Forms. The use of information technology had no significant effect on students' achievement. This finding is in line with some previous research results, but it is still a question. The higher the use of information and communication technology, the higher the learning outcomes that should be achieved by students. However, the facts do not support this. This could happen because the materials provided in online learning are not appropriate for the characteristics and students' needs. The ability of teachers to use information technology is also not optimal. The use of information technology in learning needs to be adapted to learning strategies, materials, methods, and even resources and media. Therefore, this research needs to be followed up to investigate the matter further.

Based on the findings of this study, several suggestions can be made. For school principals, teachers, and other education policymakers, this research can be used as a reference related to Indonesian language teaching by applying an information-technology-based communicative approach that can provide motivation and support students' achievement. In addition, the results of this study can be used for stakeholders to take the necessary policies and steps to improve the quality of Indonesian language learning in schools that are applied by teachers in the era of information technology development.

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Developing Multimodal Literacy in the Business English Reading Class: A Case Study of Students' Presentation PowerPoint Slides

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Abstract—This study aims to investigate the students' multimodal literacies by analyzing their presentation PPT slides in Business English reading class in two dimensions of discourse genre and multimodality. It discovers certain preferences and patterns in their multimodal semiotic practice as well as some drawbacks in the meaning-making process. Students tend to adopt visualizing genre over other genres to demonstrate factual events in their PPT presentations. They are inclined to use language and image more frequently than other semiotic modes in their PPT meaning making. Besides, their technology and media literacy needs to be strengthened in searching, criticizing, analyzing online information resources. Eventually it provides teachers with pedagogical scaffolds to teach the viewing and representing of multimodal texts effectively.

Index Terms—multimodal literacy, business English, presentation, genre, modality

I. INTRODUCTION

Fast-growing technologies and increasingly global society require a rethinking of the definition of being literate in the 21st century. Luke (2003) argues that literacy in this new era shifts from cognitive processing of paper-printed texts to parallel processing of multimodal text-image information. Literacy in this age means the ability to communicate effectively and multimodally, to be specific, to read and write multimodal and digital texts on the Internet and other forms of media. Jewitt (2009) labeled the “multimodal turn” as being a recognition that verbal signs coexist with other semiotic resources in conveying meanings. Language is regarded as a part of a complex and interconnecting unit of multimodal modes. Meanwhile, other forms of representation, such as visual, auditory, gestural and special modes, take up an emerging role in constructing meanings in particular contexts.

As such, students nowadays need to develop proficiencies not only in traditional ways, such as language literacy and cultural literacy, but also to improve their proficiency in media literacy, critical literacy, and information literacy (Lim & O'Halloran, 2012). In this regard, multiple literacies are becoming an urgent requirement in the educational curriculum. Naturally, multiliteracies teaching should also evolve from reading and writing in print to learning both in print and screen critically and creatively.

Multimodal literacy (van Leeuwen, 2017) concerns about students' ability to understand multimodal texts in a critical way and to communicate and interact effectively and efficiently via the use of multimodal representations. It highlights the distinct function of each meaning-making resource. For instance, the written text represents sequential events in a better way, and visual images represent the relations of elements in space. Multimodal literacy talks about the comprehension of semiotic potentials and the limitations of various multimodal resources. It also includes the ways in which the modes function together in order to construct a coherent and cohesive multimodal text.

To view multimodal text critically, students should come to an understanding of how meanings are constructed via semiotic resources. The students must be able to support their interpretation and expression of the multimodal texts with solid citation and evidence. In multimodal communication, it is necessary for the students to be aware of the affordances and functions of multiple semiotic resources in the process of meaning-making. The significance of enhancing students' multimodal literacy has been increasingly acknowledged and emphasized by curriculum planners and educational policy makers nationally and internationally. China, as an example, has introduced the concept and theory of multimodal literacy to all levels of schools, colleges, and universities, as well as informal educational institutes. The country aims to build competencies for teachers and students to teach and learn multimodal literacy. Expanding the theoretical perspectives of multiliteracies, teachers are able to bring to the exploration of students' cognition and learning process. It will help teachers to support students' literate development in the context of contemporary society. It inspires teachers to consider new opportunities for applying literacy pedagogy to the classroom so as to better prepare students for their future work and life in digitalized and multicultural societies.

This article investigates the students' multimodal literacies by analyzing their presentation PPT slides in Business English reading class in two dimensions: discourse genre and multimodality. It discovers particular preferences and patterns in their multimodal semiotic practice and some drawbacks in the meaning-making process. Eventually, it provides teachers with pedagogical scaffolds to teach the viewing and representing of multimodal texts effectively.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Traditionally, the term “literacy” refers to a set of cognitive skills that people acquire to function in society. It covers primarily the ability to read and write to a specified degree of proficiency (Serafini, 2014). It stresses the ability and willingness to construct meaning through reading and writing from the printed text in a particular social context. It also suggests that there are different types of literacy associated with specific settings. Till 1994, the New London Group gathered together to discuss the state and future of literacy pedagogy and outline an agenda for a Pedagogy of Multiliteracies. It proposed that meaning-making is a form of design or operational dynamic transformation of the social world (New London Group, 1996). It addressed the growingly multimodal nature of textual forms, and the ways the complex texts integrate into mass media and sociocultural practices.

The concept “multimodal literacy” refers to the reconceptualization of literacy. It is a multi-dimensional series of competencies and social practices in response to the ever-increasing complexity and multimodal nature of texts in the modern era. The traditional norm of print-based texts is transforming into multimodal texts in digital environments. Correspondingly, the term “reading and writing literacy” is expanded to contain other elements, such as visual literacy, media literacy, critical literacy, computer literacy, and other different types of literacies. These literacies require people to navigate, interpret, design, and analyze texts in complexity. In summary, the term literacy has evolved from a cognitive perspective to a sociocultural-oriented one. Nowadays, being multiliterate requires one to make sense of the world and convey meanings via various modes of representation in certain social contexts for particular social purposes.

The New London Group (1996) posited five categories of design elements for developing a metalanguage for a multimodal text. Kress (2010) further asserted that multimodal design differs from independent modes since it links other modes in dynamic relationships. Williamson (2005) specified multiliteracy as the ability to acquire information from multiple media and modes. Gentle et al. (2006) classified it into five categories: linguistic, visual, audio, gestural, and spatial modes. Hu (2007) expanded it to nine levels from a social semiotic perspective. Multiliteracies have become a mainstream research area that has led to a growing body of research to address the dynamic potentials of multiple modes and intermodality in meaning-making. The multimodal literacy practices and the implications for education enable teachers to embrace its potentials for empowering student agency in reshaping semiotic resources aligned with the interests and needs of the sign producers (Kress, 2010).

Multiliteracies are embedded in various aspects of learning and teaching in the English language classroom. In multimodal writing practice, students’ multimodal compositions are evaluated by accuracy, fluency, and purpose (Unsworth, 2014). In multimodal reading practice, distinctive ways in text structure are analyzed, such as the reading of animated images (Chan & Unsworth, 2011), multimodal typography and the language-image interaction (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2020), and the bodily engagement in multimodal reading in digital contexts (Mills, 2016). A series of classroom studies on multiliteracies have explored the utilization of multimodal literacy in schools and universities, including the investigation of multimodality in students’ film making, indigenous multimodal pedagogy, and ESL classrooms (Jewitt, 2014).

While multimodal literacy research has covered a wide range of aspects of learning and teaching, there is particular discourse, such as presentation PPT discourse, that has received less attention. Furthermore, most studies focus on visual and linguistic modes of representation in PPT discourse. Few have touched upon other modes, such as auditory, gestural, and spatial modes. This may be partly explained by the fact that verbal and visual modes dominate other forms of communication and representation in presentation discourse. However, there is potential for a new paradigm of multimodal literacy with more comprehensive coverage in literacy learning. Therefore, this study finds it highly necessary and significant to fill in the gap by exploring the discourse genre and multimodality embedded in the use of multimodal semiotic resources in PPT slides designed by Business-English-major students. This study aims to answer the following two research questions:

- (1) What is the status quo of students’ multimodal literacy?
- (2) How is their multimodal literacy reflected via the utilization of multimodal resources?

By analyzing the PowerPoint slides designed by sophomore business English majors, it investigates the students’ multimodal literacies in two dimensions of discourse genre and multimodality. It aims to answer the above two questions by summarizing the preferences and patterns in students’ multimodal semiotic practice and some drawbacks in the meaning-making process.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

This study conducts a qualitative analysis of the PPT slides designed by business English students in the reading class presentations. It collects and investigates a total of 200 slides on the theme of environmental issues and ecological protection in business practices, including such topics as “green traveling, ecological marketing, corporate social responsibility, and paperless office”. Students are divided into 11 groups and are required to deliver presentations on a set of ecological themes, such as soil erosion, a decrease in biodiversity, electronic waste, white pollution, ocean pollution, acid rain, deforestation, desertification, and so on. Each theme should be elaborated in four sections. The first

section demonstrates the environmental issues. The second section lists possible causes of environmental problems. The following section provides ecological strategies to solve the regarding problems. And the final section requires the students to design an ecological poster to advocate their ecological values. Explicit instructions and requirements are provided for each group in presenting their collaborative work. Students are encouraged to take up multiple resources in a dynamic and informative way. Each presentation should contain no more than 15 slides and last no more than 10 minutes.

B. Instrument

Derived from Zhang’s (2022) framework, the study adopted a simplified framework to analyze presentation slides from two dimensions, namely, genre and modality (Figure 1).

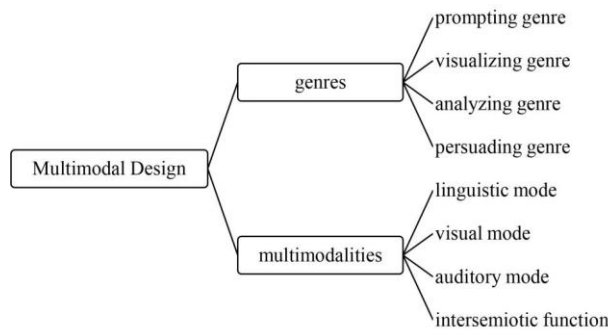


Figure 1. Analytical Framework

Firstly, Hu (2007) proposed that there are four basic types of genre in presentation PPT discourse, namely prompting genre, visualizing genre, analyzing genre, and persuading genre. The prompting genre mainly adopts the mode of bullet-point to organize ideas, so that the speech is organized and the content is logically explicit in the form of highlighting key points. The visualizing genre mainly utilizes visual images for vivid and concrete descriptions of abstract concepts. The analyzing genre refers to the analysis carried out in graphical mode. Lastly, the persuading genre achieves persuasive effects by interacting with the audience through color, sound, and animation modes. All the four genres could convey meanings on complementary or non-complementary terms in specific contexts.

Secondly, the New London Group (1996) divided the modes associated with developing multiliteracies into five categories: linguistic mode, visual mode, auditory mode, body posture mode, and spatial mode. Each mode is composed of different modal components. The linguistic mode includes vocabulary, metaphor, transitivity, information structure, italic, font, bold, and so on. The visual mode includes color, perspective, foreground, and background, to name a few. The auditory mode includes music, sound, and rhythm. Body posture includes behavior, gesture, head movement, expression, gaze, and body movement. The spatial mode includes classroom layout, geographical location, architecture, and so on (Kress, 2010). Since our research subjects are PPT slides for students’ class presentations, the body posture and spatial mode seem irrelevant.

Moreover, Zhang (2022) points out that when one mode is insufficient in expressing the meaning to be communicated or completing the communicative task well, other modes need to take effect in assisting the task. Therefore, it is worth mentioning that the interplay among various semiotic resources plays an essential role in the meaning-making process. Hence, the intersemiotic function should be integrated into the multimodal framework.

In complementary relationships, it is necessary to distinguish between strengthened and unstrengthened relationships. A strengthened relationship is one in which one mode is the main form of communication while other different forms reinforce or complement the dominant one. The non-complementary relation refers to the fact that other modes do not contribute significantly to the embodiment of the meaning as the first mode, but still exist as a mode. In other words, it is possible that modes can form mutually exclusive and mutually compelling relationships. In such a context, semiotic modes often counteract each other in an unintentional way (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006).

C. Procedure

This study conducts a detailed qualitative analysis of 200 selected PPT slides from a class presentations delivered by business-English-major students. The research aims to explore students’ multimodal literacy by investigating the presentation discourse from the perspectives of genres and multimodality.

First, it categorizes the data into four types of genre, that is, prompting genre, visualizing genre, analyzing genre, and persuading genre. The prompting genre is typical of having bullet points with either phases or short sentences. The visualizing genre contains images as its primary feature. It is the most direct and dynamic way of representation. The analyzing genre identifies itself with a chart or a graph. And the persuading genre achieves persuasive effects by the combination of multiple semiotic resources.

Secondly, it conducts a qualitative analysis by classifying the data into four types of modality, that is, linguistic mode, visual mode, auditory mode, and intersemiotic function. By comparing the frequency of individual attributes, it

reveals the multimodal patterns in students' PPT practice and discloses the status quo of their multimodal literacy in the specific context.

Lastly, it discusses patterns and characteristics of the nature of students' multimodal semiotic practices. It also summarizes the means by which students' multiliteracies are reflected through the presentation of multimodal semiotic resources. It concludes by providing pedagogical suggestions for teachers to help students develop their multimodal literacies in the foreign language learning context.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Genres Distribution

The requirement for the task is to carry out internet research and collection of environmental issues, causes of environmental problems, and ecological strategies, as well as to design an ecologically educating poster for each group. The type of genre corresponding to each sub-task is listed, and the number of slides across four genres is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
PROCESS AND PARTICIPANT TYPES ACROSS ECOSYSTEMS

literary tasks	genre	No. of slides
environmental issues	visualizing genre	116
causes of environmental problems	analyzing genre	3
ecological strategies	prompting genre	20
ecological poster	persuading genre	16

Visualizing genre is regarded as the most often utilized in students' presentation practice. In illustrating environmental issues, all of the students rely on images to put forth a specific aspect of environmental crises and to highlight the severity of the issue. In the process, images are identified to convey meanings in two ways: one is entirely visual (41 slides), and the other is through a combination of both visual and linguistic modes (75 slides). As in Figure 2, images of piled-up offices and paperless ones are provided in a contrastive way to reinforce the importance of plantations on our planet. As images convey more information than words, the visual genre is considered the most effective and informative thus is widely utilized in PPT discourse. Hence, a high percentage of slides belonging to the visualizing genre is identified across the data, most of which discuss about the environmental issues and crises.



Figure 2. Paperless Office

Analyzing genre is typically discovered in the form of charts, figures and tables. It serves to clarify a particular phenomenon or reach a conclusion in comparison in a critical and objective manner. In identifying the causes of environmental problems, human activities are often claimed to be the primary source of pollution, particularly modern transport. In Figure 3, five types of transportation (steamship, train, airplane, automobile, and high-speed train) are analyzed systemically in six dimensions (comfort, price, safety, speed, convenience, and environmental protection) in a table. It provides a straightforward conclusion that the airplane is taken as the most environmentally unfriendly way of transportation despite their convenience and low time cost. This form of genre helps students to develop critical analyzing literacy by means of viewing and presenting a coherent and cohesive text.

Comparison of vehicles

Vehicles	Comfort	Price	Safety	Speed	Convenience	Environmental protection
steamship	high	low	medium	slow	medium	environmentally friendly
train	low	low	high	slow	low	medium
airplane	medium	high	low	fastest	comfortable	least environmentally friendly
automobile	high	high	low	medium	comfortable	un-environmentally friendly
high-speed train	high	medium	high	fast	More comfortable	medium

Figure 3. Green Traveling

Prompting genre refers to the form of bullet points with keywords, phrases, or short sentences. It aims to establish a clear, logical, and organized structure. In Figure 4, as one of the ecological strategies, a paperless office is advocated in business practice so as to reduce the use of papers and increase the coverage of forests and plantations. The contents are discussed in four aspects listed as bullet points (definition of paperless office, benefits and disadvantages, and environmental friendliness). In this way, it presents a description in an organized and effective manner.

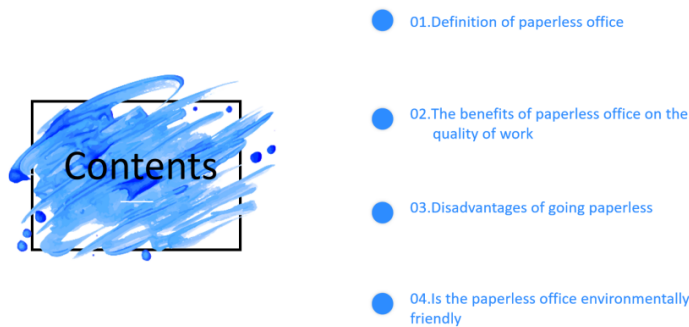


Figure 4. Eco-Marketing Image

The persuading genre reveals the clear intent of the designer through the combination of multimodal semiotic resources, such as color, animation, space, and so on. In Figure 5, the design of ecological posters aims to raise environmental awareness of the public to maintain business travel in a sustainable way. It could be noticed that a majority of students are inclined to adopt the persuading genre in their poster design for similar effects. In the theory of multimodal literacy, students are encouraged and guided to learn by design with multimodal semiotic resources so as to strengthen their overall multimodal literacy, including language literacy, digital literacy, art literacy, and cultural literacy.

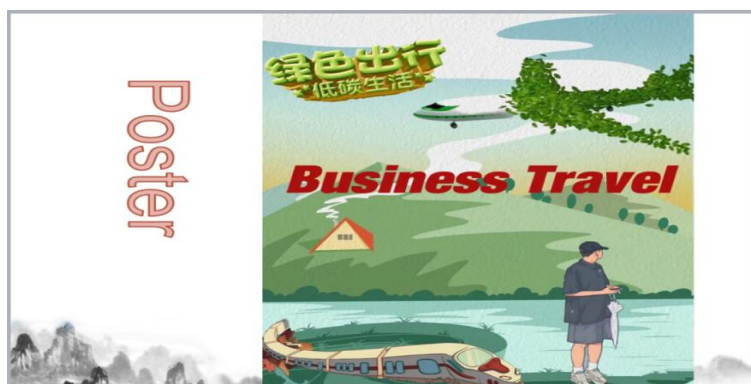


Figure 5. Ecological Poster

B. Modal Utilization

One of the extensive pedagogical practices is theme teaching in university English education. Teachers assign PPT

presentation tasks themed on ecological education. In explicit instruction, students come to the understanding that all signs, including linguistic, visual, and auditory symbols, are semiotic resources that make meanings. And in the process of meaning-making, it is possible that an individual mode may rely on other semiotic modes to convey information effectively. In the specific context, three main semiotic modes (linguistic, visual and auditory modes) take effect in a mutually-influencing relationship in the PPT discourse. It is illustrated in the following aspects.

Firstly, the linguistic text is the primary mode in the process of meaning-making. In the presentations, students tend to use long sentences to explain the causes of the environmental problems. They usually utilize short sentences or bullet points to put forth ecological strategies for the establishment of a harmonious human-nature relationship. In this way, it provides students with an opportunity to improve their linguistic literacy in an authentic context.

Secondly, visual images are the most prominent feature of PPT discourse, including static images and moving images. In particular, videos and animations deliver informative and impressive messages. For instance, environmental issues are demonstrated in the presentation with pictures or videos of pollution in various forms so as to attract the attention of the audience and arouse their ecological awareness in the regarding aspect. What's more, when visual mode dominates the visualizing genre of PPT discourse, other modes, such as linguistic mode, forms a complementary relationship in highlighting the embedded meaning.

Thirdly, the auditory mode realizes conceptual and interpersonal metafunctions in multimodal design (Kress, 2012). In specific, an audio recording of whales calling for help was played at the beginning of the students' group presentation before they explained that it was the whales' "cry for help" from human beings to protect marine life and maintain ocean ecological balance. The consecutive sounds facilitate the fulfillment of conceptual metafunction by emotionally connecting the audience with the endangered oceanic lives. Together with other modes, the auditory mode complements to the coherence of the theme.

Lastly, as the communicative meaning is not just a product of the individual modes that contribute to it but of the interplay between them (Hart & Queralto, 2021), therefore, the interplay of various semiotic modes in PPT discourse is regarded as a necessary part in the learning process of multimodal design. It is worth pointing out that different modes in a context could reinforce each other in the meaning-making process. Whereas, they could also be irrelevant or even contradictory to one another in revealing the message.

C. Findings and Discussion

Based on the analysis of the distribution of genres and modalities across the PPT discourse, it is found that specific patterns in students' presentation practice could be identified. They could be concluded in the following two aspects:

Firstly, visualizing genre and linguistic and visual modes are utilized extensively, while analyzing genre and prompting genre are used significantly less. Among the 200 PPT slides, 186 slides contain visual images (the number of pictures ranging from one to five). And 25 images are selected randomly for the purpose of "being fun or cool" in spite of their irrelevance to the presentation themes. Moreover, 84 slides are discovered verbally burdened with original online texts about a specific topic. Few corrections or adjustments in multimodal design are noticed, such as the font, size, color, and typography of linguistic texts. They were mixed up in the PPT design and failed to demonstrate the meaning potential and construct discursive meanings. In this way, it causes confusion and misconception about environmental issues. Furthermore, in some cases, linguistic texts may not demonstrate semiotic convergence with visual images. As for the auditory mode, only one group of students adopted it in their presentation. Preferences in modes of representation vary based on culture and context. They also have specific cognitive, social and relational effects. Therefore, it is safe to say that students lack experience in constructing and conveying meanings concisely and briefly via the use of multimodal semiotic resources. Hence, it discloses a certain degree of deficiency in students' mastery of multimodal literacy.

Secondly, limited sources of information narrowed students' selection of online resources. In the case of white pollution, groups of the same thematic topic provided quite a number of identical or similar contents, including descriptive verbal texts on white pollution and visual images of plastic wastes dumped in rivers, mountains, and even oceans. Multiliteracies include information literacy and technical literacy in the era of the internet and technology. Faced with a large number of online information resources, students need to learn how to analyze, summarize, integrate, summarize and evaluate them. Consequently, there occurred overlaps in the ways students design and deliver their presentations. Therefore, it is evident that they still need professional guidance from the teachers in utilizing the internet and online channels to scaffold their multimodal learning. It requires students to strengthen the training of critical literacy of information analysis and learn to use multimodal semiotic resources effectively to construct the overall meaning.

The reasons for the above-mentioned characteristics of students' PPT discourse should be traced from two aspects. On the one hand, there is still room for students to strengthen their familiarity with PPT software in the practice of presentation design. It should be understood that each mode accounts for a semiotic resource and is helpful in constructing meanings. Similarly, students should be guided and encouraged to express meanings through a combination of diverse semiotic resources. In short, their technology-enhanced multimodal literacy should be highlighted. On the other hand, information channels should be expanded for students to promote learner agency in learning knowledge and solving problems. Extensive sources of information would enhance students' multiliteracy

awareness.

V. CONCLUSION

Taking 200 business-English-major students' PPT presentation slides as language data, this study analyzes current college students' ability of multimodal literacy from the perspectives of discourse genre and modalities. It finds that students show certain tendencies and preferences in their presentation practice. They are inclined to adopt visualizing genre over other genres in describing factual events, and are less willing to use analyzing genre in listing the causes of environmental problems. It is noticed that the visual mode of representation is much richer and more evocative than the linguistic mode alone. Most students fail to pay attention to the role of audio, video, font, color, layout, and other modes in meaning construction. Besides, the use of the persuading genre is prominent in the design of ecological posters. In terms of the use of semiotic modes, it indicates that students prefer to use language and image frequently. In contrast, other modes, such as auditory mode, are less regularly utilized in their PPT meaning-making process. The interplay between multiple modes in a specific context is often neglected. Therefore, there occurs overlapping, confusing, and even contradictory expressions of meanings. This study also finds out that students need to develop their technology and information literacy in searching, collecting, criticizing, and analyzing online resources of information.

Correspondingly, it takes two sides of efforts to increase students' multiliteracies. To begin with, teachers should reflect on the ways of integrating multiliteracies into the teaching practice. Their pedagogical PPT discourse should demonstrate as a model for students to learn from. Therefore, it requires teachers to improve their multiliteracies in producing meanings through multimodal semiotic modes, including linguistic mode, visual mode, auditory mode, and so on. Furthermore, it is also necessary for students to understand, comprehend and learn to identify the means of modes inter-playing with each other in the process of meaning construction. They must also equip themselves with information literacy in acquiring valid information from massive online resources to facilitate their language learning and professional skill improvement.

However, there still exist a few limitations to this study. First, the sample size is narrowed down to 200 slides designed by Business English majors. The coverage of the samples is not comprehensive enough to explain the multiliteracies of the whole batch of the current business English major students. A more extensive data would provide a more objective conclusion and produce a substantial understanding of the constituents of students' multiliteracies. Secondly, the article primarily discusses students' multiliteracies from the aspects of discourse genres, multimodal application, and the relationship between the modes students use. Yet, it does not dig into other aspects of multiliteracies which could be the area for further research. To be specific, it explores linguistic, visual, and auditory modes in the PPT discourse, while leaving out other modes, such as gestural mode, spatial mode, and so on. Naturally, future studies could continue the investigation for multi-dimensional analysis. It is suggested that future study could conduct quantitative research to provide relatively objective results and findings. Researchers could also expand the sample size and strengthen the credibility of research results. Finally, this study sheds light on interdisciplinary research, combining multiliteracies with other discourses, such as discourses of tourism, communication, public relations, and so on.

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Approaches to Bangla-Arabic Translation: Subtleties and Solutions

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Abstract—This study addresses some significant issues related to Bangla-Arabic translation and their possible solutions. It describes the types of translation and the role played by the translator in the overall process. As translation is a complex and a subtle area of language studies, translators must be conscious of all the probable professional intricacies. They primarily deal with the meanings; however, they also manipulate the transfer of all the corresponding characteristic elements of the source language into the target one. Translation from Bangla to Arabic is more complicated since it manages two languages with entirely different origins. The bulk of the complications in translation arises because of the fundamental differences between the two languages' grammar, lexicon, usage, stylistics and phonology. This research tries to equip the Bangla-Arabic translators with the necessary knowledge about the related problems and the skills that may help them find smart solutions. Finally, some practical recommendations are given to the experts as well as student translators and feasible suggestions are also extended to the future researchers.

Index Terms—Bangla-Arabic translation, text, context, transfer of meaning, source language, target language

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation, one of the essential means of human communication and interaction, has a significant effect on the daily life of the individuals, specially working in a local or an international organization. It basically sets up an association between the written texts of two or more languages and their contemporary cultures. In the present era of globalization, where immigration is the order of the day, and trade, commerce, science, culture and technology are crossing the national borders, the need for translation is continually rising. In this regard, Bassnett (1980, p. 21) states, "Translation involves the transfer of 'meaning' contained in one set of language signs into another set of language signs through competent use of the dictionary and grammar; the process involves a whole set of extra-linguistic criteria also". Dubois et al. (1973; as cited in Bell & Candlin, 1991, p. 22), define translation as "the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences". So, translation from Bangla into Arabic, which is the focus of the current study, needs the command of the techniques used to transfer the 'meaning' of the source language (SL), i.e. Bangla, into Arabic—the target language (TL). These techniques may include, in addition to many others, the use of newly coined Arabic equivalent words of Bangla, the use of Bangla words formally borrowed by Arabic as foreignism and the use of Bangla foreign words which only follow the rules of Arabic pronunciation.

II. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Bangla and Arabic are among the languages that a substantial portion of the world population speaks. Bangla belongs to the Eastern branch of the Indo-European language family. It is spoken in Bangladesh and some parts of India, including West Bengal, Assam and Tripura. The history of the Bangla language goes back to the eighth century AD; however, it has never enjoyed a high prestige until the advent of the Muslim rule in the Indian subcontinent in the early thirteenth century. The Muslim era in the region started with the Turk conquest and, after passing through the brief period of Afghan rule, reached its logical end with the fall of the Mughal dynasty. This period of the Muslim rule in Bengal roughly coincides with the Middle Bengali period, extending from 1204 AD to the inception of the British rule in 1764 AD. Throughout the Muslim rule in Bengal, Persian had been the language of administration, whereas Arabic had been the language of religion not only of the rulers but also of the ever-growing Muslim population of Bengal. However, in this region, Bangla unanimously remained the language of communication for the typical person of all religious communities: the Muslims, the Hindus, and others (Dil, 2012). On the other hand, Arabic is the most predominantly used language of the Afro-Asiatic family. After the Islamic conquests in the 7th century, Arabic spread far and wide across the Middle East, North Africa, Central Asia, Western Asia and parts of China. It enjoys enormous significances among the global

community for two main reasons: the Arab world is a naturally affluent area where Arabic is the *lingua franca*, and it is the language of the Holy Quran—the Muslim scripture which holds equal respect among the Arab and the non-Arab believers.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Translation, appearing immediately after the establishment of the writing system, has been used by humans for centuries. For the first time, Cicero and Horace, the early western translators of the first century BC, differentiated between word-for-word translation and sense-for-sense translation (Cicero, 46 BC; cited in Frederiksen, 1966). Later on, St. Jerome (fourth century CE), renowned for his translation of the Greek King James Bible into Latin, made a distinction between the translation of religious and non-religious texts (St. Jerome's letter to Pammachius, section V, line 85; cited in Al-Ali & Majid, 2015). He considered the correct translation as the outcome of the translator's command of understanding the original text and his power of expression in the target language. The earlier translations were focused mainly on the religious texts, but he opened the door for translation in other domains of study, and soon there appeared translations in the fields of politics, war and literature. The invention of the printing system in the fifteenth century paved the way for improving both the quality and quantity of translation. Moreover, renowned theorists like Cowley (1721), Dolet et al. (1972), Ovid and Dryden (1712) made significant contributions to the field of translation.

In the twentieth century, as a result of valuable support from many prominent scholars like Vinay and Darbelnet (1958, 1995), Catford (1965), Nida and Taber (1982) and Newmark (1981), this previously unexplored discipline acquired the status of a full-fledged science called 'translation studies'. The domain of translation studies is fundamentally bilingual. As it compares the language systems and the cultures of two languages, it could be approached from the view of contrastive linguistics (Hatim, 1997).

Until the last few centuries, different manual and traditional techniques have been used for transferring the 'meaning' of the source language into the target one. In the present era of science and technology, more sophisticated tools and technologies are used to simplify the work of translation. However, contemporary translators still face several problems, which are mainly caused by syntax (grammar), lexis/vocabulary (word), stylistics (style), phonology (sound) and usage of both the source and target languages. The current study focuses on all these issues individually; however, in order to understand these complicated issues, it is helpful to understand some basics of the field: the main types of translation and the role played by the translator in the entire process.

A. Main Types of Translation

Although translation may be classified into various subcategories based on the different specialized basis of classification, it may broadly be grouped into two main types (Larson, 1998; Newmark, 1981) as explained below:

(a). Literal Translation

Literal translation involves conveying the denotative meaning of words, phrases and sentences in a text from one language to another. In this method, the fluency of the target readers is considered more important than fidelity. Therefore, literal translation works where there is a correspondence between the two languages in terms of semantics and structure. However, in the languages where the grammatical structures of their sentences are different, the literal translation creates complicated problems. It can be illustrated with the help of the following example:

Bangla: নাজিন আবহা থেকে ফিরলেন।। nadʒin abha t̪heke p̪hirlen।।

Arabic: عاد من ابها نجين।। nadʒin abha min ʒada।।

As Arabic is written from right to left, the Arabic version of this sentence starting from the right will be like:

Arabic: عاد نجين ابها من عاد।। nadʒin abha min ʒada।।

Here, the word order in the above Arabic translation is inconsistent with Arabic structures, which should, in reality, be:

Arabic: عاد نجين من ابها।। ʒada nadʒin min abha।।

English Meaning: Najin returned from Abha.

In particular, literal translation often falters, specially in the case of multi-word units like collocations and idioms, as can be illustrated (the proper Arabic expressions are parenthesized) below:

Bangla: 'সাক্ষাৎ করা' /ʃakk̪h̪at̪ kora/

Arabic: 'يُذِيعُ زيارَةَ' /jadf̪ʒ ziarah/ ('يقوم بزيارة') /jaqumu biziarah/

English Meaning: 'to visit'

Bangla: 'কড়া চা' /koʒa t̪ʃa/

Arabic: 'شاي قوي' /ʃai qawi/ ('شاي مضبوط') /ʃai mad̪but/

English Meaning: 'strong tea'

However, in some circumstances, the literal translation may work flawlessly, even in the case of multi-word units. For example,

Bangla: 'কুম্ভীরারশ' /kumb̪h̪irasru/

Arabic: 'دموع التماسيح' /damuw̪ʒ attamasih/

English Meaning: 'crocodile tears'

Bangla: 'স্নায়ুদ্ধ' /ʃnaudʒuddʰo/

Arabic: 'الحرب الباردة' /alharbu albarida/

English Meaning: 'the Cold War'

Furthermore, the ancient Greeks who translated texts into Latin used the literal method, which could be applied in three different ways: word-for-word translation, one-to-one literal translation and literal translation of meaning. The same classification may be applied to the case of Bangla-Arabic translation. For example,

1. Word-for-Word Translation

The word-for-word translation transfers the meaning of each source language word into the target language with its equivalent word(s). It, being an immature translation practice, is a bit risky since it may distort the original meaning of the given text. E.g.

Bangla: নাজিন হন মেধাবী । || nadʒin fiɔn meðʰabi ||

Arabic: ذكي يكون نجين . || nadʒin jakun ðaki ||

Since Arabic is written and read from right to left, the word-for-word translation of the above sentence will appear as:

Arabic: نجين يكون ذكي . || nadʒin jakun ðaki ||

English Meaning: Najin is intelligent.

Here, it may be noted that the Arabic verb 'يكون' /jakun/ which is equivalent to the Bangla linking verb 'হয়' /fiɔ/, or 'হন' /fiɔn/ (i.e. 'is') is unnecessary or informal as the Arabic nominal sentence (i.e. 'جملة اسمية' /dʒumlatun ismia/) does not need any verbs in simple present tenses (the other type being the verbal sentence i.e. 'جملة فعلية' /dʒumlatun fʿlia/). So, the correct sentence should, instead, be written and/or read as:

Arabic: نجين ذكي . || nadʒin ðaki ||

But, the past forms of 'يكون' /jakun/, such as 'كنت' /kuntu/, 'كنا' /kunna/, 'كنت' /kunta/, 'كنت' /kunti/, 'كنتما' /kuntuma:/, 'كنتم' /kuntum/, 'كنتن' /kuntunna/, 'كان' /ka:na/, 'كانت' /ka:nat/, 'كانا' /ka:na:/, 'كانتا' /ka:nata:/, 'كانوا' /ka:nu:/, 'كنتن' /kuntunna/ etc cannot be omitted or absent in the past tense.

2. One-to-One Literal Translation

It is a form of the literal translation that is broader than the previous one. In this method, we consider the collocation meanings and translate each SL word or phrase into an identical word or phrase in the TL (i.e. a noun to a noun, an adjective to an adjective, an idiom to an idiom, and a metaphor to a metaphor etc) with the same number, grammatical class and type of language. E.g.

Bangla: তারা আমাকে খুব ভালোবাসে । || tara amake kʰub bʰalobaʃe ||

Arabic: (انهم) يحبونني كثيرا . || (innahum) jahibbunani kaθiɾo:n ||

English Meaning: They love me very much.

Usually, Arabic sentences embed or disguise personal pronouns by attaching them in the form of affixation to the verbs.

3. Literal Translation of Meaning

This method translates the meaning closely and accurately into the target language. That is why sometimes it is called 'close' or 'direct' translation. It considers the TL grammar, word order, metaphorical and unique language uses. This method conveys the real meanings in different texts with different word order combinations according to the contexts. E.g.

Bangla: ছেলেরা আপেলটা খেলো । || ʃʰeleɾa (S) apelʈa (C) kʰelo (V) ||

Arabic: الولد أكل التفاحة . || alwaladu (S) akala (V) attuffa:ħah (C) ||

English Meaning: The boy ate the apple.

In practice, the above Arabic sentence is correct but less formal. The formal pattern in Arabic is: Verb + Subject + Object. So, it could be re-written as:

Arabic: أكل الولد التفاحة . || akala (V) alwaladu (S) attuffa:ħah (C) ||

(b). Free Translation

Free translation is an act of rendering the SL into TL as closely as possible at all the levels of the lexis, structure, and grammar. Here, fluency is not as essential as fidelity. This type of translation is often made for students and scholars who possess the knowledge of the language they are reading. This method is considered to be better than the literal translation. The free method means to translate without any constraints. A free translation is a translation that reproduces the general meaning of the original text. It may or may not strictly follow the original text's form and organization. It is associated with translating the spirit of the message, not the letter or the form of the text. It does not translate every single word in a text. The translator can translate the way s/he understands the text (Akan et al., 2019). This method safeguards the convenience of both the translators and the readers. As it reproduces the matter without the manner or the content without the form, it, in fact, is a kind of paraphrase that is, at times, longer than the original and often wordy and pretentious. E.g.

Bangla: ফুটবল অন্যতম জনপ্রিয় খেলা । || puʈbɔl onnoɾmo dʒonoprio kʰela ||

Arabic: كرة القدم إحدى الألعاب الشعبية . || kuratul qadami ihda alalabi aʃʃɕbiaħ ||

English Meaning: Football is one of the popular games.

Bangla: এক ঢিলে দুই পাখি। || æk dʰile dui pakʰi ||

Arabic: ضربت عصافيرين بحجر واحد. || dʰuribatʊ ʧsfuriana bihadʒarin waħid ||

English Meaning: Killing two birds with one stone.

However, in reality, most Arabic translations from Bangla are shorter. For example,

Bangla: আবহা একটি সুন্দর শহর। || abħa ækʈa ʃundʊr ʃɔħor ||

Arabic: ابها مدينة جميلة. || abħa madinatun dʒamilah ||

English Meaning: Abħa is a beautiful city.

Bangla: সবুরে মেওয়া ফলে। || sobure meoħa pʰole ||

Arabic: اصبر تنل. || isʰbur tanal ||

English Meaning: Patience is bitter, but its fruit is sweet.

The methods mentioned above are commonly employed in translation; however, other methods, like adaptive, semantic, idiomatic, communicative, pragmatic, faithful and creative translation modes, are also used according to the need for more specialized texts and contexts.

B. Roles of the Translator

Translators play a significant role in the entire process of translating texts from one language into the other. Pointing to their role and responsibilities in this connection, Thrasher (1998, p. 13) says:

“The translator should strive for the nearest approximation in words, concepts, and cadence. He should scrupulously avoid adding words or ideas not demanded by the text. His job is not to expand or to explain but to translate and preserve the spirit and force of the original.... Not just ideas, but words are important; so also is the emphasis indicated by word order in the sentence”.

He is further supported by Nida and Waard (1986, p. 14), who state that “the translator must be a person who can draw aside the curtains of linguistic and cultural differences so that people may see clearly the relevance of the original message”. Nida (2001, p. 1) considers that “the translator’s lack of awareness of the cultures of the Source Language and the Target Language breaks three key principles of translation”. These principles are faithfulness (i.e. faithful equivalence in meaning), expressiveness (i.e. expressive clarity of form) and elegance (i.e. attractive elegance that makes a text a pleasure to read). While keeping in view this position of responsibility, the translator needs to be well experienced in the customs, traditions and behaviours of the two cultures, particularly their modern, social and political history (Akan et al., 2020). He should recognize the cultural aspects of the SL text and translate it into the TL with the same attitude nominated by the original author, but at the same time, not turn the translated text into a cultural treatise. However, it never means that the entire translation process should be converted into an act of blind mimicry. The translator must apply his creative energy and thought to his work, but not to that extent where the original text’s style, message or unique flavour is marred. He should honestly translate idiomatic expressions, which lend colour and flavour to the translated text.

The translator should also strike a delicate balance between familiarity and the essential ‘foreignness’ of the text and think carefully about substitutions or changes. It is also necessary to keep the structure and the sequence of time and events in line with the SL text. Careful consideration should also be taken in the case of translating humour, puns, jokes and literary allusions, names of places and characters, as well as the cultural references and the ideology into TL.

C. Problems in Translation and Possible Solutions

The problems in translation refer to those difficulties the translators encounter during the translation process, particularly those which necessitate checking, rechecking, reconsidering or rewriting the translated text, either by using a dictionary or a reference of some other kind. These problems may be related to one of the following categories: grammar, lexis, style, usage and phonology—all of which are briefly discussed along with some possible solutions. Moreover, it must be noted that certain problems have more than one solution, or one can be applied to solve more than a particular problem.

(a). Grammatical Problems

As the two languages, Bangla and Arabic, belong to two distantly-related language families, the most significant number of problems encountered during the process of translation are related to their structures, which include:

1. Linking Verb

Bangla and Arabic have no auxiliary verbs, but they have some verbs which could be treated as linking verbs; such as:

Bangla: ‘হই’ /ħoi/, ‘হও’ /ħoo/, ‘হয়’ /ħe/, ‘হন’ /ħon/ etc — Present

Arabic: ‘أكون’ /akun/, ‘نكون’ /nakun/, ‘تكون’ /takun/, ‘تكونين’ /takuni:n/, ‘تكونان’ /takuna:n/ (i.e. male/female), ‘تكونون’ /takunu:n/ (i.e. male/female), ‘يكون’ /jakun/, ‘تكون’ /takun/, ‘يكونان’ /jakuna:n/, ‘تكونان’ /takuna:n/, ‘يكونون’ /jakunu:n/, ‘تكونون’ /takunu:n/ — Present

English Meaning: Verb ‘to be’ (i.e. am, is, are — Present)

Bangla: ‘ছিলাম’ /ħilam/, ‘ছিলো’ /ħile/, ‘ছিলো’ /ħilo/, ‘ছিলেন’ /ħilen/ etc — Past

Arabic: ‘كنت’ /kuntu/, ‘كنا’ /kunna/, ‘كنت’ /kunta/, ‘كنت’ /kunti/, ‘كنتما’ /kuntuma/ (i.e. male/female), ‘كنتن’ /kuntunna/, ‘كان’ /ka:na/, ‘كانت’ /ka:nat/, ‘كانا’ /ka:na:/, ‘كانتا’ /ka:nata:/, ‘كانوا’ /ka:nu:/, ‘كانتن’ /kuntunna/ — Past

English Meaning: Verb ‘to be’ (i.e. was, were — Past)

However, the Arabic linking verb ‘يكون’ /jakun/ is more formal to omit, specially in the sentence of present simple

tenses or the passive voice of the present. In Bangla, the linking verb is sometimes implied in the present simple tense, for instance: 'নাজিন (?) সৎ' || *nadžin jonô* || i.e. 'Najin is honest'. Here, the implied Bangla linking verb is 'হন' /*hon*/ (to show respect to the subject 'Najin'), or 'হয়' /*he*/ (without showing respect) which is equivalent to the English verb 'is'. However, the linking verb in both the Bangla and Arabic languages cannot be omitted or implied in the past tense.

2. Verb 'Have'

As the Bangla and Arabic languages have no use of 'have' as an auxiliary verb, the translator should avoid the direct translation. They could be represented as follows:

Bangla: 'আছে' /*aʃhe*/ — Present

Arabic: 'لدي' /*ladaia*/, 'لدينا' /*ladaina*/, 'لديك' /*ladaika*/, 'لديكي' /*ladaiki*/, 'لديكما' /*ladaikuma*/ (i.e. male/female), 'لديكم' /*ladaikum*/, 'لديكن' /*ladaikunna*/, 'لديه' /*ladaihi*/, 'لديها' /*ladaiha*/, 'لديهما' /*ladaihuma*/ (i.e. male/female), 'لديهم' /*ladaihum*/, 'لديهن' /*ladaihunna*/ — Present

English Meaning: Verb 'to have' (i.e. have, has — Present)

Bangla: 'ছিলো' /*ʃhilo*/ — Past

Arabic: All present forms of the verb 'Have' in Arabic + 'كان' /*ka:na*/ — Past

English Meaning: Verb 'to have' (i.e. had — Past)

3. Operator 'Do'

Although there is no use of Bangla verbs as an operator (i.e. Do, Does or Did), the Arabic verb 'هل' /*hal*/ is equivalent to the operator. So, the translator should avoid the direct translation as it may cause problems in the translation of questions.

4. Negation

In Bangla, we usually add some negative words like 'না' /*na*/, 'নে' /*ne*/, 'নাই' /*nai*/, 'নি' /*ni*/ etc just after the verb (linking and other verbs) to form negative expressions. However, Arabic has operators and the negative words are placed preceding the verb (i.e. in the beginning of a sentence). Thus, we have 'ما' /*ma*/, 'لا' /*la*/ (Present), 'لم' /*lam*/ (Past), 'لن' /*lan*/ (Future) etc negative Arabic equivalents for Bangla. For instance,

Bangla: আমি যাই না || *ami zai na* || (Present)

Arabic: لا اذهب || *la aḏhab* || (Present)

English Meaning: I do not go.

Bangla: আমি যাইনি || *ami zaini* || (Past)

Arabic: لم اذهب || *lam aḏhab* || (Past)

English Meaning: I did not go.

Bangla: আমি যাবো না || *ami zabo na* || (Future)

Arabic: لن اذهب || *lan aḏhab* || (Future)

English Meaning: I will not go.

5. Question

As Bangla has no verbs to be used as operators, the Yes/No-questions are formed by means of the Wh-word such as 'কি' /*ki*/ for any tenses with all persons and numbers. However, the Arabic verb 'هل' /*hal*/ is used as the operator 'Do' (both in function and meaning) for the present and past tenses with all persons and numbers. For Wh-questions, as there is a one-to-one equivalent for each Bangla question word in the Arabic language, there is no complication involved in the translation. Here, the Arabic counterparts of Bangla question words are shown in the brackets with the English meanings: 'কী' /*ki*/ (ما /*ma*/ — What), 'কোনটা' /*konṭa*/ (أي /*aiw*/ — Which), 'কে' /*ke*/ (من /*man*/ — Who), 'কাকে' /*kake*/ (من /*man*/ — Whom), 'কার' /*kar*/ (لمن /*liman*/ — Whose), 'কেন' /*kæno*/ (لماذا /*lima:ða*/ — Why), 'কীভাবে' /*kibʰabe*/ (كيف /*kaif*/ — How), 'কোথায়' /*koṭʰae*/ (أين /*aina*/ — Where), 'কখন' /*kokʰon*/ (متى /*mata*/ — When) etc in addition to others. For example,

Bangla: এটা কি একটা বই? || *eṭa ki ækṭa boi* || ('কি' /*ki*/ for Yes/No-question)

Arabic: هل هذا كتاب؟ || *hal haḏa kita:b* || ('هل' /*hal*/ for Yes/No-question)

English Meaning: Is this a book?

Bangla: এটা কী? || *eṭa ki* || ('কী' /*ki*/ for Wh-question)

Arabic: ما هذا؟ || *ma: haḏa* || ('ما' /*ma*/ for Wh-question)

English Meaning: What is this?

6. Sentence Pattern

The Bangla and Arabic languages have different word orders. For Bangla, it is: 'Subject + Verb + Complement', but in Arabic, we have the following two structures:

Nominal: Subject + Complement

Verbal: Verb + Subject + Complement

However, Bangla sometimes has a few sentences with implied linking and main verbs (not semantically) and in Arabic, the linking verb is formal to omit in the present simple tense. So, it is one of the translator's fundamental responsibilities to consider this critical difference in the basic sentence structure while translating a given text from Bangla into Arabic.

7. Personal Pronoun

Personal pronouns have male/female distinction in Arabic, but not in Bangla. However, they can be omitted in verbal Arabic sentences if no emphasis is needed. Here, the Arabic subject pronoun is masculine and embedded with the verb. E.g.

Bangla: সে খেলো।। /se kʰelo/

Arabic: أكل | akala |

English Meaning: He ate.

8. Article, Gender and Number

In general, there are no articles both in Bangla and Arabic; instead, they have determiners. However, Bangla has some use of definite and indefinite determiners and in Arabic, there exists only definite determiners equivalent to the definite article in English (i.e. 'ال' /al/– 'the'). E.g. 'الشمس' /aʃʃams/ (i.e. the sun)

In the case of gender, both Bangla and Arabic possess grammatical genders. E.g. 'معلم' /muçllim/ ('শিক্ষক' /ʃikkʰok/ i.e. a male teacher) vs. 'معلمة' /muçllimah/ ('শিক্ষিকা' /ʃikkʰika/ i.e. a female teacher)

As long as the case of number is concerned, Bangla has two categories of numbers. E.g. singular ('শিক্ষক' /ʃikkʰok/ i.e. a teacher) and plural ('শিক্ষকগণ' /ʃikkʰokgɔn/ i.e. teachers); however, Arabic has three kinds of numbers. E.g. singular: 'معلم' /muçllim/ ('একজন শিক্ষক' /ækdʒɔn ʃikkʰok/ i.e. a teacher), dual: 'معلمان' /muçlliman/ ('দু'জন শিক্ষক' /duʒɔn ʃikkʰok/ i.e. two teachers), and plural: 'معلمون' /muçllimun/ ('শিক্ষকগণ' /ʃikkʰokgɔn/ i.e. more than two teachers)

9. Adjective

Bangla attributive adjectives usually come before nouns, but in Arabic, it is the opposite. E.g. 'লাল গাড়ি' /lal gaʒi/ vs. 'سيارة حمراء' /saijarɔtun ʃamraʔ/ (i.e. a red car (female)). So, one of the basic responsibilities of the Bangla-Arabic translator is to keep a close eye on this important aspect of comparative grammar.

10. Adverb

Adverbs are words that can perform a comprehensive range of functions in language. It modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or answers the questions like *how, when, where, why, how long, how often* etc. Adverbs are, in general, formed by adding some suffixes (for both Bangla and Arabic) and prefixes (for only Arabic) to an adjective. As its use is multidimensional, the translator should pay some extra attention while translating from one language to the other. E.g.

Bangla: আলি সৎভাবে কাজ করে।। ali jɔʃʰabe kadʒ kɔre |

Arabic: علي يعمل بآمان. | ʕli jçmal biamana |

Meaning in English: Ali works honestly.

11. Tense

Bangla and Arabic tenses are significantly different. Bangla has three major categories of tenses, such as present, past and future, while Arabic has only two i.e. present and past. In Arabic, the futurity is expressed, in some ways, by using 'س' /s/, 'سوف' /saufa/ and 'ب' /ba/ (informal) with the Arabic verb in the simple present tense. Bangla has also four subcategories of tenses, such as simple, perfect, progressive and perfect progressive. However, Arabic has no perfective and progressive forms of tenses. In Arabic, the present and past perfect tenses are considered as the past simple. The present progressive is treated as present simple in Arabic translation, but to indicate the fact that it is happening 'now', the word 'الآن' /alan/ is used instead. Similarly, past progressive is used as the past simple. Subsequently, the present and past perfect progressive tenses do not exist in Arabic. Therefore, it is the translation-major student's responsibility to initiate a good deal of enquiry into the study of tenses in both the Bangla and Arabic languages before launching their career in the field of translation.

12. Conditional Sentence

Various types of conditional sentences exist both in the Bangla and Arabic languages. However, it is the translators' responsibility to be cautious about their usage, as the translation of the future in one language into the past tense of the other creates the main problem for them.

It is, therefore, part of the translator's role to consider all these underlying differences in the structure of both languages.

(b). Lexical Problems

As words—the basic units of a structure—play a very vital role in translation, they may cause serious problems for the translator, mainly if their meanings are either not understood clearly, or are not found in the standard dictionaries. For the meanings of Bangla words into Arabic, there are the following four possibilities:

- i. Words/phrases/terms already having a direct equivalent in Arabic:
'বাড়ি' /baʒi/– 'منزل' /manzil/ or 'بيت' /bait/ (i.e. a house)
- ii. New words/phrases/terms having no ready-made equivalent in Arabic:
'ঢাকা' /dʰaka/– 'دكا' /dakka/ (i.e. the capital city of Bangladesh)
- iii. Foreign words/phrases/terms transliterated into Arabic but with native-like pronunciation:
'রেডিও' /reɟio/– 'راديو' /radio/ (i.e. the radio)

iv. Foreign words/phrases/terms made to fit Arabic pronunciation, spelling and grammar:

‘গ্যারেজ’ /gæredʒ/– ‘كراج’ /karadʒ/ (i.e. a garage)

The other major lexical problems encountered by translators and students are as follows:

1. Synonymy

Synonyms are often found to pose problems regarding the difference between the levels of closeness or absolute identification of the meanings of synonymous words compared with one another, whether in the same language or between the SL and the TL. It is the translator’s responsibility to choose the appropriate word based on its impact on the meaning in the context.

2. Polysemy

This problem of translation occurs when a polysemous word is used mistakenly for a monosemous one, with one meaning assigned wrongly in all texts and contexts. E.g.

‘উঁচু’ /ūʃu/– ‘طويل’ /tʿawil/ (i.e. tall)

‘লম্বা’ /lamba/– ‘طويل’ /tʿawil/ (i.e. long)

Such problems may be avoided if the translator has a deep knowledge of both SL and TL vocabulary. However, monosemous words and terms cause no serious problems in translation.

3. Parallelism

It refers to two identical structures such as two words, phrases or clauses within a sentence and complicates the role of the translator. E.g.

Bangla: ‘সড়ক, নৌ অথবা আকাশ পথে’ /ʃɔʔok, nou ɔʔh̄oba akaf pɔʔh̄e/

Arabic: ‘براً، بحراً أو جوا’ /barran, baħaran aw dʒawan/

English Meaning: ‘by road, by sea or by air’

4. Idiom

A phrase which has fixed forms and special meanings that cannot be known from the direct meaning of their words is called an idiom. They demand technical handling skills on the part of the translator because their meaning may change for a little carelessness. E.g.

Bangla: ‘বক ধার্মিক’ /bɔk d̄h̄armik/

Arabic: ‘صاحب وجهين’ /sʿa:ħibu wadʒhain/

English Meaning: ‘a hypocrite’

In fact, the Arabic language does not have regular idioms like Bangla or English.

5. Proverb

Proverbs are popular fixed sayings. As they are part of the culture, they often carry their own set of problems, complicating the task of translation for everybody, specially students of translation. E.g.

Bangla: ‘যেমন বাবা তেমন ছেলে’ || dʒæmon baba t̄æmon ʃh̄ele ||

Arabic: ‘من شابه أباه ما ظلم’ || man ʃabaha abahu ma ɔʿalam ||

English Meaning: Like father, like son.

6. Metaphor

Metaphors are used to say one thing but mean another. They are usually quite problematic and challenging for translators. Metaphorical translations involve the translation of SL metaphors into TL metaphors. In creative metaphors, the vehicle (i.e. the form) and the tenor (i.e. the content) become intertwined and subsequently inseparable, as they are by way of illustration. E.g.

Bangla: ‘আলি একটা সিংহ’ || ali ækʔa ʃiŋɦio ||

Arabic: ‘علي أسد’ || ʕliun asad ||

English Meaning: Ali is a lion.

However, as metaphors are not always creative, the author of the SL may have used them merely for decorative purposes and may better be converted into simple languages.

7. Morphology

Morphology refers to a branch of linguistics which is known in Bangla as ‘রূপতত্ত্ব’ /ruptɔʔtʔto/ and in Arabic as ‘علم الصرف’ /ʕlm asʕsʕrf/. It deals with the formation of words. E.g.

‘ذهب’ /ðahab/ (i.e. the root word for ‘go’)

‘يذهب’ /jðhab/ (i.e. go/goes)

‘ذاهب’ /ða:hib/ (i.e. can go)

‘ذهب’ /ðahaba/ (i.e. went)

‘سنذهب’ /sanaðhab/ (i.e. (We) shall/will go)

In the case of Bangla-Arabic translation, the problem stems from the Arabic morphological system being comparatively

more flexible than Bangla, with a few exceptions. Thus, it is the responsibility of the translator to exhibit flexibility to a certain extent while dealing with the morphological structure, for instance, deriving an adjective form from its root words. For example,

Bangla: 'বৃহৎ' /brifot/, 'বৃহত্তর' /brifottoro/, 'বৃহত্তম' /brifottomo/
Arabic: 'كبير' /kibir/, 'أكبر' /akbar/, 'الأكبر' /alakbar/
English Meaning: big, bigger, the biggest

8. Collocation

The term collocation means 'to go with'. Some words have a natural tendency to be used together in any languages. So, two or more words usually occur together consistently in different texts and contexts and are considered an essential factor in translation, of which the translator should be aware. For example,

Bangla: 'ঠাণ্ডা আবহাওয়া' /tʰanda abfiawa/
Arabic: 'طقس بارد' /tʰaqsun ba:rid/
English Meaning: 'a cold weather'

The Bangla-Arabic translation-major student should, therefore, have a flair for learning the collocations of the target language and use in his translation of the Bangla language, the Arabic collocations which are contemporarily in vogue.

9. Connotation

Connotation stands for the concept that a word can suggest in addition to its denotative meaning. For instance,

Bangla: 'সিংহ' /ʃinɦo/
Arabic: 'أسد' /asad/
English Meaning: 'a lion'

In Arabic, in addition to the dictionary meaning given above, it also possesses the meaning of 'brave'. Words acquire their connotation from the culture to which they belong, as in every culture, people associate particular signification with particular words, which ultimately become the shades of those word meanings.

10. Paraphrase

The term paraphrase is a brief explanation used when there is no way to make an unclear term or idea understandable in the TL. A paraphrase is usually longer than the original. Therefore, the Bangla-Arabic translator should paraphrase the vague terms from Bangla to Arabic with a short but straightforward explanation.

11. Naturalization

Naturalization is a translation strategy whereby specific linguistic usage of SL is converted into normal TL usage. This naturalization process occurs at lexical, collocation, and structural levels. By way of illustration,

Bangla: 'মনোযোগ আকর্ষণ' /monozog akorʃon/
Arabic: 'يُعيد الانتباه' /jaʃirul intibah/
English Meaning: 'to draw attention'

The naturalization of usage is inevitable in translation, as a literal translation would produce unnatural expressions in the TL in cases where naturalization is essential.

12. Localization

Localization is a new domain for language experts to use digital media for launching local innovations. Localization has become known as a profession directly linked to translation where the local products can only be made relevant if they are presented in the global perspective or vice versa.

13. Arabicization

Arabicization is a kind of naturalization that occurs either at the sound level, where an SL spelling and pronunciation are converted into Arabic or at the concept level, where an SL concept is loan-translated into Arabic. Here, the translator's role is to use the borrowed words, which are foreign words loaned out into Arabic and the subsequent Arabicization in terms of spelling and pronunciation. E.g. the word 'كراج' /karadz/ is Arabicized after borrowing from English 'garage'.

14. Equivalence

Equivalence is a crucial concept in translation, where the notion of equivalence relates to the ordinary sense of the text being translated. This is why it is often asked to translate subjective feelings into words. In general, there are three types of equivalence: formal, functional and ideational.

Firstly, the formal equivalence seeks to capture the form of the SL expression. Form here relates to the image employed in the SL expression, as can be illustrated by the underlined Bangla idiomatic expression and its underlined formal Arabic (i.e. TL) equivalent below:

Bangla: নাজিনের দেশ ছেড়ে বিদেশে যাওয়ার সিদ্ধান্ত ছিল অপরিণামদর্শী – উত্তম কড়াই থেকে আগুনে ঝাপ।
 | nadziner deʃ ʃʰere bidese dʒaʒar ʃiddʰantʰo ʃʰilo ɔporinamdorʃi – utʰtʰo kʰarai tʰeke agune dʒʰap |
Arabic: لم يكن قرار نجين بمغادرة البلد حكيمًا – (كالكافز) من المقلاة إلى النار.

। lam jakun qarrar nadžin bimuyadaroti albaladi ĥakiman– (kalqafaz) minal maiqlati ila nar ।

English Meaning: Najin’s decision to leave the country for abroad was unwise– (jumping) out of the frying pan into the fire.

Secondly, we have functional equivalence, which seeks to capture the function of the SL expression independently of the image utilized by translating it into a TL expression that performs the same function as it. E.g.

Bangla: নাজিনের দেশ ছেড়ে বিদেশে যাওয়ার সিদ্ধান্ত ছিল অপরিণামদর্শী– অঙ্গার থেকে অগ্নিতে ঝাপ ।

। nadžiner deš ʃ^heṛe biḍeʃe dʒaʕar ʃidd^hanṭo ʃ^hilo ʔporinamdorʃi– ʔngar t^heke ognite dʒ^hap ।

Arabic: لم يكن قرار نجين بمغادرة البلد حكيمًا – (كالقافز) كالمستجير من الرمضاء بالنار.

। lam jakun qarrar nadžin bimuyadaroti albaladi ĥakiman– (kalqafaz) kalmustadžiri minal ramadçzi binnar ।

English Meaning: Najin’s decision to leave the country for abroad was unwise– (jumping) from hot to hotter.

Sometimes, functional and formal equivalence may coincide with furnishing what can be called optimal translatability. The following Bangla proverb and its Arabic translation illustrate this:

Bangla: চোখের আড়াল, মনের আড়াল । । ʃok^her aṛal moner aṛal ।

Arabic: بعيد عن العين بعيد عن القلب । bçidun çnil çin bçidun çnil qalb ।

English Meaning: Out of sight, out of mind.

Finally, there is ideational equivalence which aims at conveying the communicative sense of the SL expression independently of function and form. The Arabic translation below of the Bangla example reflects this type of equivalence such as:

Bangla: নাজিনের দেশ ছেড়ে বিদেশে যাওয়ার সিদ্ধান্ত ছিল অপরিণামদর্শী– কেঁচো খুঁড়তে সাপ ।

। nadžiner deš ʃ^heṛe biḍeʃe dʒaʕar ʃidd^hanṭo ʃ^hilo ʔporinamdorʃi– keçho khurte sap ।

Arabic: لم يكن قرار نجين بمغادرة البلاد حكيمًا – فقد سارت الأمور من سيء إلى أسوأ.

। lam jakun qarrar nadžin bimuyadaroti albaladi ĥakiman– faqad saratil umouru min saiçn ila aswa ।

English Meaning: Najin’s decision to leave the country for abroad was unwise– things went from bad to worse.

It is, therefore, the translator’s responsibility to consider all these three forms of equivalence while translating a text from Bangla into Arabic and choose the one which may maintain the precise sense of the text being translated.

(c). Usage Problems

Usage is the tradition or convention of language that considers various issues and aspects, such as culture, society, religion, geographical location and politics, all of which affect the entire process of translation directly or indirectly. E.g.

1. Culture

Anthropologists uphold the idea that language is culture-bound. So, a culture-specific expression in SL is only translated into a cultural substitute in the TL. For example,

Bangla: ‘শুভ সকাল’ /ʃub^ho ʃokal/

Arabic: ‘صباح الخير’ /s^ʕabaħul xoir/

English Meaning: ‘good morning’

However, ‘صباح جيد’ /s^ʕabaħ dʒaid/ is not accepted culturally or socially in Arabic though it may have the same meaning. Therefore, a culture-specific expression in Bangla should only be translated into a cultural substitute in Arabic.

2. Religion

The Bangla lexical item ‘স্রোতা’ /sroʃta/ could be translated in Arabic as ‘الله’ /alla:h/ with little change in meaning because the word ‘الله’ (i.e. Allah– the Almighty) has no male/female and singular/plural distinction, specially in Arabic. So, the translator should have adequate knowledge about religion because the speakers of the two languages are very sensitive about their religions.

3. Politics

The term ‘শহীদ’ /ʃohid/ (i.e. a martyr) is used politically in the Bangla-speaking society for a person who died for the state. However, it is translated into Arabic as ‘شهيد’ /ʃahi:d/ which means a person passed away either for the state or for religion.

4. Possibility

The possibility, or impossibility of saying something in the TL is also an essential factor in translation. For example,

Bangla: ‘মোটা বেতন’ /moṭa beṭon/

Arabic: ‘راتب ضخمة’ /rotibun d^ʕaxim/

English Meaning: ‘a fat salary’

However, the translation of some expressions cannot be considered linguistically ‘accepted’ terms and may be translated into other alternate terms.

5. Logical Acceptability

The logical acceptability of an expression may be a significant factor in translation. For example, the translator should translate the Bangla expression ‘নিজের ভুল স্বীকার করা’ /nidçer b^hul ʃikar kora/ in Arabic as ‘يسحب كلامه’ /jashabu

kalamah/, or /jçtaðir/ (i.e. to eat one's words, or apologies) and avoid using the Arabic term 'ياكل كلماته' /jakul kalimatuh/, as 'eating words' is not a logically correct argument.

6. Frequency

The frequency or non-frequency of an expression or a grammatical structure matters greatly in translation. For example, an expert translator may translate 'আপ্রাণ' /apran/ (i.e. heart and soul) as 'قلبا وقلبا' /qalban wa qaliban/ in Arabic.

7. Familiarity

The degree of familiarity, the strangeness of expression, or a grammatical structure can confuse translation. For example, the familiar translation of 'ভাল কারণ' /b'alo karon/ (i.e. a good reason) is translated into Arabic as 'اسباب وجيهة' /asbabun waðjihah/. Therefore, the Bangla-Arabic translator should evaluate the source text for the level of familiarity and choose the structure in the target language familiar to the target readership.

(d). Stylistic Problems

The writing style is considered an essential part of the meaning, which may cause problems in translation. It explains how a text means rather than just what it means from the context. The translators, therefore, need to be aware of the following points to avoid any misconceptions:

1. Formality

The language of the SL text can be formal, informal or both in the domains of grammar and lexis. These differences pose problems for the translation-major students because of their limited knowledge in this discipline and demand a good deal of practice in both the source and target languages.

2. Fronting

A word, phrase, or clause can be put at the beginning of a sentence in a usual way. For example,

Bangla: সে একটা গাড়ি কিনলো।। | se ækʈa gaʈi kinlo | vs. কিনলো সে একটা গাড়ি।। | kinlo se ækʈa gaʈi |

Arabic: سيارة اشترى | saijarotan iʃtaroit | vs. اشترى سيارة | iʃtaroitu saija:roh |

English Meaning: A car he bought. vs. He bought a car.

Such fronting is done to achieve a stylistic function of some kind: emphasizing the fronted word or drawing attention to its particular importance. The translators must be familiar with this stylistic matter; otherwise, they may ignore the fronting style and possibly diverge the focus of attention.

3. Parallelism

Two clauses or sentences may have the same structure and are parallel. Such a style of parallelism is not always easy to translate from SL into TL. Consequently, the translator should consider the structure of parallelism and avoid disturbing the argument's logical pattern while translating such a text from Bangla into Arabic.

4. Level of Complexity of Style

Translation problems may occur, primarily, with the SL text written with a complicated style and demands expert-level excellency from the translator both in comprehension of the source language and writing command of the target language.

5. Length of Sentence

Combining short sentences into one sentence or dividing long sentences into short ones may also confuse the readers of the Arabic translation. Therefore, the translator should take extreme caution in this regard by maintaining the one-to-one ratio between the sentences of Bangla and Arabic versions.

6. Repetition and Variation

The issues related to repetitions and variations in translation should be considered with extreme care. For instance, the Bangla word 'অশ্রুজল' /osrudʒol/ (i.e. tear) is often used in Bangla literature where the word 'জল' /dʒol/ (i.e. water) is repeated.

7. Redundancy

Employing extra and unnecessary expressive words might have some positive (or negative) purpose in translation and should, therefore, be handled carefully.

8. Irony

It is a figure of speech that mainly involves a complicated style in both source and target languages where the intended meaning is just opposite the stated word(s) and demands the translator to be very careful while dealing with them.

9. Punctuation

Punctuation plays an essential role in conveying the message in clear terms. As both the Bangla and Arabic languages have peculiar systems of punctuation, the translation should have a deep understanding of this aspect of writing skill. It should translate the SL text into TL text, considering the demands of punctuation in both languages.

10. Cliché

There are some expressions in both the languages that have a kind of comparison. This may at times be a difficult task for the translator. E.g.

Bangla: ‘মৌমাছির ন্যায় ব্যস্ত’ /moumatʃir næɛ bæstɔ/

Arabic: ‘مشغول مثل النحل’ /maʃyulun miθla annaħal/

English Meaning: ‘(as) busy as a bee’

11. Active vs. Passive Style

There are some differences between the passive voice in the Bangla and Arabic languages, which have severe implications for translation. The Arabic passive is predominantly emotive although it can be used for other purposes such as thematization for emphasis. E.g.

Bangla: আলি জাবির দ্বারা নিহত হয়েছিল। | ali dʒabir ɖara niħotɔ hoetʃɦilo |

Arabic: قتل علي بواسطة جابر. | qutila ɕli biwasitɕotɪ dʒabir |

English Meaning: Ali was killed by Jabir.

The misleading error in this translation is that while the source text explicitly says that ‘Jabir’ is the real perpetrator, the target text implicitly portrays ‘Jabir’ as a sheer accomplice. The TL suggests that ‘Jabir’ did not kill ‘Ali’ by himself but made somebody else kill him i.e. ‘Ali’. The translation of ‘by’ as ‘بواسطة’ /biwasitɕot/ can be avoided by rendering it as ‘على يد’ /ɕla jadi/, which confirms the actual perpetrator of the action by the doer i.e. ‘Jabir’ (Akan et al., 2019). For example,

Arabic: قتل علي على يد جابر. | qutila ɕli ɕla jadi dʒabir |

It is to be noted that the translation of ‘by’ as ‘بواسطة’ /biwasitɕot/ can be maintained as a second option in cases where the action is physically done through the agent. E.g.

Bangla: সুদ আইন দ্বারা নিষিদ্ধ। | suɖ ain ɖara niʃiddɦo |

Arabic: الربا ممنوع بموجب القانون. | arriba mamnɕun bimudʒibil qanun |

English Meaning: Interest is forbidden by law.

(e). Phonological Problems

Phonological problems are related to sounds and their effects on meaning. They may sometimes be significant for the meaning and text, particularly in places where sounds are more significant than senses. So, careful and repeated reading, specially reading poetry, dropping unnecessary words, and looking for the broadest possible range of synonyms for keywords and rhyming words can help the translators. It is, therefore, essential for the Bangla-Arabic translator to consider the phonological aspect of language while translating a rhythmical type of text such as poetry or a text of advertisements.

Sounds are also important in language when they appear in different patterns to give different shades of meaning. The sound effect could be more important than meaning in translation, as it plays an aesthetic function in language (Akan et al., 2020). In this regard, we have the following points to talk about:

1. Prosody

In Bangla, alliteration is the repetition of a consonant sound at the beginning of a series of words, but in Arabic, it is at the end of words. However, rhyme which is a matching sound found at the end of words, is more common. Both languages use different naturally suggestive words for rhetorical, dramatic or poetic effects, for example, meow, ha-ha etc. Therefore, the Bangla-Arabic translator must analyze the SL text’s literary stylistics and choose the structure that suits the target language’s literary style.

2. Assonance and Consonance

Assonance is the repetition of the same vowel sound in the middle of words while consonance is the such repetition of consonants. They are not as clear in Arabic as in Bangla and are optional for the translator to accommodate them in translation.

3. Tone

Tone is an attitude of a writer toward a subject or an audience, generally conveyed through the choice of words or his viewpoint on a particular subject. Therefore, phonological features where sounds are more significant than senses are an essential factor of translation and should attract the translator’s attention.

IV. CONCLUSION

The differences between Bangla and Arabic which belong to two diverse language families are, in general, the leading cause of almost all the problems related to the field of translation. It is no denying the fact that Bangla-Arabic translation has never been an easy task. The most critical setbacks in this context are: lexical knowledge insufficiency, deficient knowledge and practice of grammar, inadequate cultural backgrounds, inappropriate teaching atmosphere and methodology. As the influence of culture and religion is very strong in both the languages, great attention should be paid to these aspects. It is hoped that teachers, students and translators will benefit from this research work and continue

investigating the issues at hand. A further comparative study in this field may give the readers and/or learners more precise knowledge about Bangla-Arabic translation.

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A Comparative Linguistic Study on Ambai, Ansus, Menawi and Biak Languages in Papua

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Abstract—This study is historical-comparative linguistic research of the languages of indigenous peoples in Saireri Bay, Papua province, namely the Ambai, Ansus, Menawi, and Biak languages. These languages are classified as non-Austronesian languages (SIL, 2000) and are hypothesized to be closely related. This study aims to find accurate evidence to reveal the genetic relationship level between these four languages. The study's data consisted of the Swadesh list's 200 basic words. The method applied in this study is a comparative method, supported by observation, interview, and documentation techniques. Based on the lexicostatistics technique, it was found that the quantitative evidence indicated that the highest related cognates reach 47% and the lower-level reach 38%, based on the lexicostatistics from the Swedish's 200 basic vocabularies. The percentage of the related vocabulary is higher than in the other languages in the regency. The qualitative evidence found is the exclusive shared phonological and lexical innovation, strengthening the quantitative evidence. The innovation that phoneme PAAMB *j turns into/z/and/d/, *h turns into/O/on Biak. Besides that, metathesis, omission, and phoneme addition. In addition, after the reconstruction, the phoneme system of Proto-language Ansus-Ambai-Menawi and Biak (PAAMB) with segmental phonemes is five vowels and 15 consonant phonemes. The vowels of PAAMB are *i, *e, *a, *o, and *u, which have complete distribution, and the consonants that are (1) consonants that have complete distribution *p, *m, *h, (2) consonants that have distribution in the initial and middle of words *b, *w, *f, *t, *d, *n, *s *r, *j, *k, *g, *y, dan *h.

Index Terms—genetic relationship, reconstruction, sub-group

I. INTRODUCTION

This study focuses on the regional and local languages spoken in the Saireri Bay area of Papua Province, Indonesia. The Saireri customary territory is the customary territory of the tribes living in the northern region of Papua Province, especially in coastal areas. Geographically, the northern part of the area is bordered by the Biak regency while the southern part is bordered by the Waropen regency. Numerous research on regional and local languages in Papua province has been carried out, covering all linguistic components such as morphology, syntax, and semantics. However, studies that examine language kinship relations are still rarely carried out.

This research is a scientific study of language from a comparative point of view. It discusses the genetic relationships of non-Austronesian (Papuan) languages of the Ambai, Ansus, Menawi, and Biak language groups to reconstruct the proto-language of these languages by way of the comparative method (historical-comparative linguistic studies). Previous studies on the grammar of these languages revealed many similarities between the languages, especially in terms of phonology or lexicon (Capell, 1938; Heeschen, 1982; Dunn et al., 2002; Ross, 2005; De Vries, 2005). However, this similarity of the lexicon and sound raises the big question: does the similarity of sound and similarity of the lexicon of these languages prove that these languages are related, thus causing the blurring of the language grouping? To answer this question, empirical evidence is needed through accurate research. For the reasons stated above, researchers are encouraged to take part in a comprehensive research effort on these languages that has implications for our understanding of linguistic facts and of genetic or ancestral connections between these languages to prove the relationship between these languages based on inherited elements of the language of origin or proto-languages that are thought to have inherited the languages that exist today.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS

This research generally discusses the genetic relationship of a group of languages within language families and seeks to find a common origin for groups of languages that derive from these languages by identifying the phonological and morphological similarities of related languages and determining the direction of the spread of languages (Schmidt, 1992). Proto-language reconstruction as part of quantitative and qualitative analysis was conducted by applying the theory of genetic classification (Sidwell, 2002) to formulate the proto-language of Ambai-Ansus-Menawi-Biak languages spoken in the Saireri Bay area. The formulation of the proto-form can give us an overview of the phoneme characteristics and inventory of the proto-language in the past (Ruhlen, 2002; Gonzales, 2019). The phonology and

lexical levels of each modern language are compared to figure out which group they belong to based on the percentage of cognate devices, certain patterns in language change, and their relationship to one another (Dyen et al., 1992). This leads to the conclusion that these languages are closely related lexicostatistically.

The connectedness and order of languages are obtained by finding the common authenticity that is inherited from the same ancestor (Bynon, 1979, p. 47; Mbakop, 2021). The common characteristic of this connotation hypothesis is the similarity of the linguistic form. One of the most reliable features is the similarity in form and meaning of words. Words that have similar or identical forms and meanings are called cognate sets (not as loans, coincidences, or tendencies of the universe), but hypothesized as the inheritance of the same origin. The regularity hypothesis consists of the systematic and disordered changes in sound in derived languages (Jannah, 2018). A part of the sounds of the original language that are passed down through the vocabulary as it changes often in a derived language.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted using the comparative method (Durie & Ross, 1996); that is, by performing a feature-by-feature comparison of two or more languages for studying the relations between the Ambai, Ansum, Menawi, and Biak languages in Saireri Bay, Papua Province, based on the 200 basic words of the Swadesh list. Based on the data of the languages that are still alive and used by the people who speak them, it can be seen that they all come from the same ancestor or parental language.

A. *Research Location*

This study was conducted in the Saireri Bay area, Papua Province, covering the areas of the Ambai, Ansum, Menawi, and Biak languages.

B. *Data Source*

The primary data of this research is in the form of the spoken form taken directly from several native speakers of the Ambai, Ansum, Menawi and Biak languages.

C. *Research Instrument*

A research instrument is a tool used to obtain, measure, and analyzed data related to the topic. This study questionnaire is the instrument of this research. The format of a research instrument may consist of questionnaires, surveys, interviews, checklists or simple tests. Other tools are needed in the form of stationery that is useful for helping record.

D. *Informants*

An informant is a person who has special knowledge or mastered certain languages. The key informants in this research are the speakers of the language concerned and the samples are Ambai, Ansum, Menawi and Biak languages.

E. *Data Collection Method*

The data collection method is a methodical process of collecting, measuring, and analyzing accurate data. In this research, the researcher uses some techniques in collecting the data. Those are observation, interview, and documentation methods. In the application, the recording technique is applied face-to-face, based on the informant's information, which has been selected based on the predetermined criteria.

F. *Data Analysis Method*

This study was conducted by applying a comparative method to compare the features of the languages diachronically. This method is employed by using the Swadesh 200-word list. Qualitative analysis in the search for genetic relationships between languages involves certain techniques to obtain accurate language facts of the common ancestor (proto-language) of a related language group by observing words (lexicon) statistically, to attempt to establish the grouping based on the percentage of similarities and differences of a language with other languages, and also to be able to classify kinship between two or more languages by comparing the vocabulary and the similarities that exist. Following the determination of the 200 basic vocabularies, the lexicostatistics technique was used.

G. *Reconstruction Method*

The reconstruction method is a study on the prediction of old-form of modern languages in the search for the genetic relationship of languages by way of quantitative analysis. These old forms are hypothesized to occur in the past before modern languages existed. The method is applied by formulating the proto-form etymon of Ambai, Ansum, Menawi, and Biak, based on the 200 basic words of the Swadesh list.

H. *Lexical Construction*

Lexical reconstruction is one of the language or dialect groupings techniques that emphasize statistical calculations of words to know the number of similarity of comparable relative's words. In this study, lexical construction is used to find the proto-word sets that have a certain or the same (similar) meaning in the Ambai, Ansum, Menawi, and Biak languages. The data obtained in the field are collected, and then identified by the lexicostatistical method through the procedures of

grouping the basic vocabulary of the related languages; choosing basic vocabulary that is identical, similar, and different; counting which pairs are related words, connecting the results of the calculation in the form of percentage; making genealogical lines or language kinship tree.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Swadesh 200 Word List and Description of the Collected Data

No	English	Ambai language	Ansus language	Menawi language	Biak language
1	Ash	Kangganang	Wawu		Fafem
2	Water	Meroha	Maria	Merah	War
3	Root	Yau	Uwa		Rars
4	I	Newasa	Yaw	Yaune	Aya
5	flow	Deda	Dira,Year	Dedah	Iki/ daf
6	Child	Arikan	Kumai	Arikang	Mkun/Romana
7	Dog	Fiavwera	Wona	Viawera	Naf,make,rofan
8	Wind	Wanang	Wanan	Wanan	Wam
9	What	Fiani	Pitoi	Viani	Rosa
10	Fire	Adia	Adia	Adia	For
11	float	Dewohi	Dewoi	Wanagfoi	Ipisen
12	Smoke	Riraing	Wiyaw	Resaniso	Pawe
13	Cloud	Kawari	Mandipi	Sirs	Mandep
14	How	Todoni	Topino	Tofino	Raiso
15	Well	Dentang	Wyento	Beng	Pyum
16	Come back	Fobera	Toweri	Barabera	Kaber
17	Lots	Bitoiya	Piyawu	Fiau	Nabor
18	Father	Dai	Yayai	Dai	Kamam
19	lay down	Watai	Wata	Bena	Denf
20	New	Weworu	Waworu	Waworu	Babo
21	Wet	Wewasa	Wawa	Wewasa	Idok
22	Stone	Kamiai	Kami	Kaniai	Karui
23	Some	Beiru	Bototi	Beiru	Vis
24	Split	Bauri	Tebau	Bauni	Bolah
25	Right	Tarai	Tarai	Antu	Kaku
26	Seed	Aibong		Eai	Maf mor
27	Swollen	Bebara	Bebara	Bebara	Ibyar
28	Swimming	Deriai	Worowoi	Deriai	Das
29	Walk	Tora	Boaruau	Tora	Imbrau,mbrau
30	Heavy	Miraba	Mirababati	Miraba	Mmarbak,mirabak
31	give	Boni	Bonima	Bohonai	Bei
32	Big	Fiabai	Bebamantaw	Fiabai	Iba
33	When	Kidoniwo	Bontopino	Radiafani	Rassana
34	Animal	Fiaung	Pyau	Andoa	Aiwan
35	Star	Awaha	Pyori	Ampar	Mak
36	Fruit	Aibong	Aibon	Aio webong	Bon
37	Hair	Wawaru	Neituin	Nuwawuru	Bur
38	Flower	Renau	Aibopu	Ainarifo	Pampen
39	kill	Muni	Muni	Muni	Mun
40	Hurry	Dewi	Dewe	Kya eingwera mitona nomi rorong	Siki dem
41	Bad	Kairara	Myoyawa	Karira	Isnai fawa wiwa
42	Bird	Romu	Ayah	Romu	Mau
43	Rotten	Piro	Kenkon	Misuhiai	Ibyewa
44	Meat	Tarai	Tarai	Ruru	Ker
45	Lake	Ruru	Tururu	Arirau	Urs
46	And	Kontai	Interi	Tuti	Ma
47	Blood	Rika	Ria	Rika	Rik
48	Come	Roma	Rwama	Dana	Rwama
49	Leaf	Aireraung	Weraun	Arirau	Wundam
50	Dust	Kanggarang	Wawu	Nukahaifo	Pau
51	Close	Kefang	Kikewu	Kefan	Fanau
52	With	Tuti	Konta	Donria	Aya farpu,yafarpu sko
53	Hear	Terahuoa	Tarawowa	Taramuifa	Wower
54	In the	Narorong	Nararompui	Robuhantani	Ryo wandum
55	on,on	Nao	Nawana,yawe	Rabnang bo	Ryo
56	Cold	Kararutu	Yenwana	Deunana	Syufe,Isyuf
57	Where	Nadoni	Natotoi	Nadoni	Ryoiso
58	Self (standing)	Boa	Yawuyoa	Boa	Wors
59	Here	Nanina	Nanina	Minaifa	Dine
60	There	Nawana	Nawana	Nanaifa	Diya
61	Sew	Daua	Bewaware	Esairi	Sapsip

62	Street	Tora	Rwanto	Bran	Iyan,Sampak
63	Heart	Kambaina	Anewraron	Kambaina	Ken
64	Fall	Tawai	Twawa	Sawai	Isapi
65	Far	Waroi	Woroi	Waroi	Fanamba,byingkwana
66	rapids	Foa		Afui	
67	Push	Tawampare	Twantetari	Ewarami tuba	Pampun
68	Two	Boru	Kodu	Boru	Suru
69	Sit down	Minohi	Moyoi	Monoliu	Kon,kain,wakain
70	Tail	Aman daung	Amakapun	Sumiri	Purai
71	Four	Boa	Manua	Boa	Fyak
72	You	Wau	Au	Wawa	Auw
73	Dig	Sirai	Esirai	Sesa kamirei	Bai
74	Salt	Ai	Emasuasi	Garam	Masa
75	scratch				
76	Bubble	Airing	Budebudear	Mireha wiwu	Piryai
77	Fat	Feabai	Pyun	Netarai fiabai	Iba,baku beba,mafem
78	Tooth	Deremu	Deremu	Dereng	Nakor
79	Bite	Karifi	Keripi	Kirifi	Dark,darki
80	rub	Pisoi	Kyari	Piso	Pyos
81	Mountain	Uwai	Wi	Uai	Bon
82	hit	Boi	Wyorai	Boi	Muni
83	Liver	Enerorong	Anewraron	Eneronong	Barpisu
84	Green	Kehe	Mekae	Wowongho	
85	Nose	Ubomu	Wompemu	Ubong	Snonipo
86	Life	Barang	Wey	Nua ninu	Ibye,kenem
87	Suck	Wufi	Wupi	Suh	Pam,ipam
88	Black	Nyumetang	Myetam	Numetan	Paisem
89	Count	Boto	Detori	Botok	Kor,wakor
90	Rain	Mamang	Maman	Metang	Imyun
91	Forest	Aironong	Bon	Uwairorong	Irmor
92	She	Tarai	Yo	Wau	Imbo
93	Mother	AI	Inani	Ai	Awin
94	Fish	Diang	Ayemu	Diang	In, ine
95	Tie	Bawiti	Koyeyi	Tabohir	Wayawk
96	Wife	Binemu	Wawini	Dinemo	Swa
97	That	I	Anato	Wanoi	Iya
98	Fog	Kawari	Beroran	Ayewi	Pampan
99	Foot	Awemu	Ayemu	Avenue	Wemin
100	If	Ambori	Interi	Mano	Rarirya
101	We us	Ameo,Auro	Tata,Wira	Atoru amena	Inggoo
102	You, all of you	Amea kiyai	Tatakwira,tampandura	Muntorukai	Mgo,mgokame
103	Right	Domoya	Dowatan	Domoya	Dasar
104	because	Weo	Bontopino	Ampefe	Kukro,befnai
105	To say	Kaiwo			Wakofen
106	Fight	Tumuntata	Emamusa		Mamun-mun
107	Head	Nungkamiai	Dungkami	Mamakaia	Wokor
108	Dry	Sirahiyai	Yenaya	Sirahi	Pnase
109	Small	Ketui	Meiya	Ketuai	Kasun
110	Left	Dowiri	Dowiri	Dowei	Daku
111	Dirty	Kerira	Keraria	Kotorira	Ibyewa
112	Skin	Rerawa	Kerawa	Rerawa	Kif
113	Tree skin	Airerawa	Airerawa	Ainore rawa	Kif ai
114	Yellow	Bemining	Kerawi	Mirehara	Nar,nya nyar
115	lice	Utu	Utu	Utu	Wuk,uk
116	Other	Siai	Wyeaya	Siai	Wese
117	Sky	Rora	Mandipi	Sora	Mandep
118	sea	Airau	Rawana	Revana	Swau
119	Wide	Nemu torai feabai	Beba	Tirara	Iba
120	Neck	Rahanang	Rawkanan	Rahang fo	Sasukor
121	Man	Mang	Amyoman	Man	Snon
122	Throw	Wo	Eyo	Woi	So
123	Tongue	Taperemu	Worepan	Tibohanawai	Ramar
124	Look	Botioi	Erewoi	Boti	Mam.mame
125	Five	Ring	Borin	Ring	Rim
126	Slippery	Sirarebat	Kya	Sorarei batanai	Dakukyew
127	Spit	Kandai	Kanyu	Ehandi	Anif,danife
128	Straight	Mimoya	Yerivan	Mimoya	Dafbiober
129	Play	Mei	Eyanyui	Mei	Fnak
130	Eat	Bampi	Yampi	Bampi	Wan.wanan
131	Evening	Diru	Diru	Diru	Mandira
132	Eye	Uremu	Renkami	Uremi	Kmamor
133	Sun	Wo	Woyo	Wofoi	Or

134	Die, Die	Wireha	Kedato	Mireha	Imar
135	Red	Berika	Merai	Beika	Ijik
136	They	Amea	Ama	Mea	Sko
137	Drink	Bunung	Yanu	Bunung	Wim,wirem
138	Mouth	Boromu	Woremu	Boromu	Swadon
139	Throw up	Memuta	Momuta	Mumotafi	Bayorem,Byayorem
140	Breath	Wongse	Asen	Angsefi	Kenem
141	Name	Wonomu	Anomu	Wonomu	Snou-snou
142	on	Dong	Dea	Dengaroru	Isak
143	Sing	Rohi	Ryoi	Rohu	Disen,dow
144	People	Nyungtarai	Nyuntarai	Nuntarai	Snonggaku
145	Hot	Maninggapoi	Menkakopi		Isam
146	Long	Dewaroi	Tembani	Dewaroi	Ikwani
147	Sand	Nyumbuaing	Ruwuan	Niruwai	Karyem
148	Hold	Ruti	Ruti	Rutawanai	Fufe
149	Short	Tinang	Tenam	Tinang	Iknampu
150	squeeze	Kuwari	Kuari	Webea	Warams,warames
151	Woman	Wiwing	Wawin	Wiwini	Bin
152	Stomach	Enemu	Anemu	Enemu	Snewar
153	Think	Yeite	Wepikir	Piker	Kara
154	Tree	Ai	Ai	Ai	AI
155	Cut	Ferang	Perang kutuai	Verang	Kwaruk
156	Back	Warabia	Wanandei	Kurumufi	Dokor
157	White	Biyua	Byua	Bna	Pyoper
158	Hair	Numu	Duan daun	Menumiran daungwai	Pik
159	Grass	Afui	Nanimpun	Nineo	Abris
160	Wing	Warapemang	Warapema	Warapena	Prer
161	One	Boiri	Koiri	Baiyuri	Eser
162	A little	Kuteai	Katea	Kufenan	Kerkmun,nabarwa
163	Afternoon	Rahida	Raida	Rahida	Meser
164	Ready	Mantei	Matei	Maitei	Mamse
165	Narrow	Kepang	Kyota	Dadira	Ibawa
166	All	Sentenang	Kwirakai		Nakame
167	Husband	Wamuai	Awamui		Swari,snon ya buk riri
168	River	Waya	Maria	Waiya	Wurs
169	Sharp	Reisa		Reisa	Isar
170	Know	Boitawan	Weatawato	Dewatanai	Fafi,wawafi
171	Year	Fuirai	Tahun	Defuna	Saun
172	Afraid	Mitai	Metai	Mutai	Makak
173	Rope	Wai	Wai	Wai	Kabrai
174	Land	Kaofa	Kakopa	Kohofa	Saprop
175	Hand	Waramu	Warawu	Wasamu	Bramin
176	scorching	Wofiah	Wekeramamu	Rabiti	Idares
177	Ear	Taramu		Taran	Kheraum
178	Egg	Aibong	Telur	Aibong	Pnor
179	Fly	Sifo	Yepo	Sifo	Irau
180	Laugh	Miri	Mori	Miri	Mararif
181	No	Nanafani	Wereria	Nanafani	Oroba
182	Sleep	Dena	Wena	Dea	Enf
183	Three	Botoru	Botoru	Botoru	Kyor
184	stab	Bisang	Biani	Tisan	Iwan
185	Thin	Timba	Meni	Newafo	Isrepek
186	Blow	Rurui	Bui	Suu	Wuf,wawuf
187	Worm	Kauboi		Kauboi	Arsyawek
188	Smell	Nanahi			Nyas
189	Old	Wiwing katu	Meitui	Nunahi	Mansar
190	Wash	Ruai	Roiwi	Mamo	Pap
191	Bone	Neina	Neina	Ina	Kor
192	Thick	Mamboni	Tepei	Rehabu	Ikpor
193	Blunt	Rahabu	Kebung	Rehabu ampa	Ipup,israba
194	Stick	Aisiang	Aisoi	Aitatohi	Anggion
195	Snake	Tawai	Pyara	Tawai	Ikak
196	Wipe	Umamu	Kyari	Runamahikai	Sfu,wasfu
197	Intestines	Enemu	Anemui	Enerorong	Snewaw
198	Flood	Merehadautai	Marya baki	Foafidaurai	Farbrub
199	Dry season	Wonifia	Merin	Embai we wopia muru	Paik ine idarese
200	Rainy season	Wametang	Myuna-panpan	Embai we metang muru	Paik ine imnyun ker

Reconstruction

Lexical Innovation of Sub-Groups A1 A2

PA1	A2	A1	A2	M
*adia	adia	adia	adia	for
*tarai	tarai	tarai	antu	kaku
*bebara	bebara	bebara	bebara	Ibyar
*muni	muni	muni	muni	mun
*tarai	tarai	tarai	ruru	ker
*nanina	nanina	nanina	minaifa	dine
*nawana	nawana	newana	nanaifa	diya
*deremu	deremu	deremu	deremu	nakor
*dowiri	dowiri	dowiri	dowai	aku
*airerawa	airerawa	airerawa	ainorerawa	kif ai
*utu	utu	utu	utu	wuk uk
*diri	diru	diru	diru	mandira
*ruti	ruti	ruti	rutawanai	wufe
*ai	ai	ai	ai	ai
*wai	wai	wai	wai	kabrai
*botoru	botoru	botoru	botoru	kyor
*neina	neina	neina	ina	kor

Lexical Innovation of Sub-Groups A1 M

PA	1M	A1	M	A2
*adia	adia	adia	adia	for
*dai	dai	dai	yayai	kamam
*wewasa	wewasa	wewasa	wawa	idok
*beiru	beiru	beiru	bototi	fis
*bebara	bebara	bebara	bebara	ibyar
*derai	derai	derai	worowi	das
*tora	tora	tora	boarua	imbrau
*miraba	miraba	miraba	membabati	mmabrak
*fiabiai	fiabiai	fiabiai	bebamantaw	Iba
*muni	muni	muni	muni	mun
*romu	romu	romu	ayah	man
*rika	rika	rika	ria	rik
*nadoni	nadoni	nadoni	natoti	ryoyo
*boa	boa	boa	yawuyoa	wors
*kambaina	kambaina	kambaina	anewraron	ken
*waroi	waroi	waroi	worowi	byingkwan
*boru	boru	boru	kodu	suru
*boa	boa	boa	manua	fyak
*boi	boi	boi	wyorai	muni
*ai	ai	ai	inani	awin
*diang	diang	diang	ayemu	in,ine,ika
*domoya	domoya	domoya	dowatan	dasar
*rerawa	rerawa	rerawa	kerawa	kif
*utu	utu	utu	utu	wuk
*siai	siai	siai	wyeyawa	wese
*ring	ring	ring	boring	rim
*mimoya	mimoya	mimoya	yeriwan	dafbiober
*mei	mei	mei	eyannyui	fnak
*bampi	bampi	bampi	yampi	wan
*diru	diru	diru	diru	mandira
*bunung	bunung	bunung	yanu	wim
*boromu	boromu	boromu	woremu	swadon
*wonomu	wonomu	wonomu	anomu	snon-snon
*dewaroi	dewaroi	dewaroi	tembani	ikwan
*tinang	tinang	tinang	tenam	iknampu
*enemu	enemu	enemu	anemu	snewar
*ai	ai	ai	ai	ai
*rahida	rahida	rahida	raida	meser
*reisa	reisa	reisa		isar

*wai	wai	wai	wai	kabrai
*aibong	aibong	aibong	telur	pnor
*sifo	sifo	sifo	yepo	irauw
*miri	miri	miri	mori	mararif
*nafani	nafani	nafani	wereria	oroba
*botoru	botoru	botoru	botoru	kyor
*kauboi	kauboi	kauboi		arsywek
*tawai	tawai	tawai	pyar	ikak

Lexical innovation of sub group A 2-M

PA	2M	A2	M	A1
Wanan	wanan	wanan	wanan	wam
Adia	adia	adia	adia	for
Waworu	waworu	waworu	waworu	babo
Bebara	bebara	bebara	bebara	ibyar
Muni	muni	muni	muni	mun
Diru	diru	diru	diru	mandira
Ai	ai	ai	ai	ai
Wai	wai	wai	wai	kabrai
Botoru	botoru	botoru	botoru	kyor

Lexical Innovation of Sub-Groups A1B

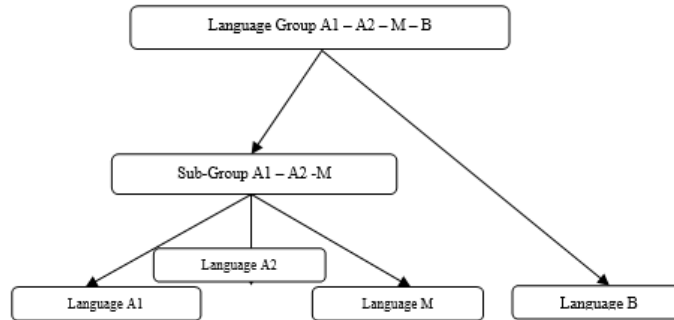
PA	1B	A1	B	A2
Ai	ai	ai	ai	ai

Lexical Innovation of Sub-Groups A2B

PA	2B	A2	B	A1
Rwama	rwama	rwama	roma	rwama
Ai	ai	ai	ai	ai

Diagram 1 Family Tree

Language Family of A A1 – A2 – M – B Language Groups Based on Qualitative Evidences



Having reviewed the presented results above, it is found that Ambai, Ansus, and Menawi languages are a group of related languages consisting of Ambai, Ansus, and Menawi languages. Moreover, the A1, A2, M language group is a separated group consisted of Ambai, Ansus, Menawi and Biak languages. Next, the Ambai – Ansus, Menawi language sub-group consists of Ambai, Ansus and Menawi languages.

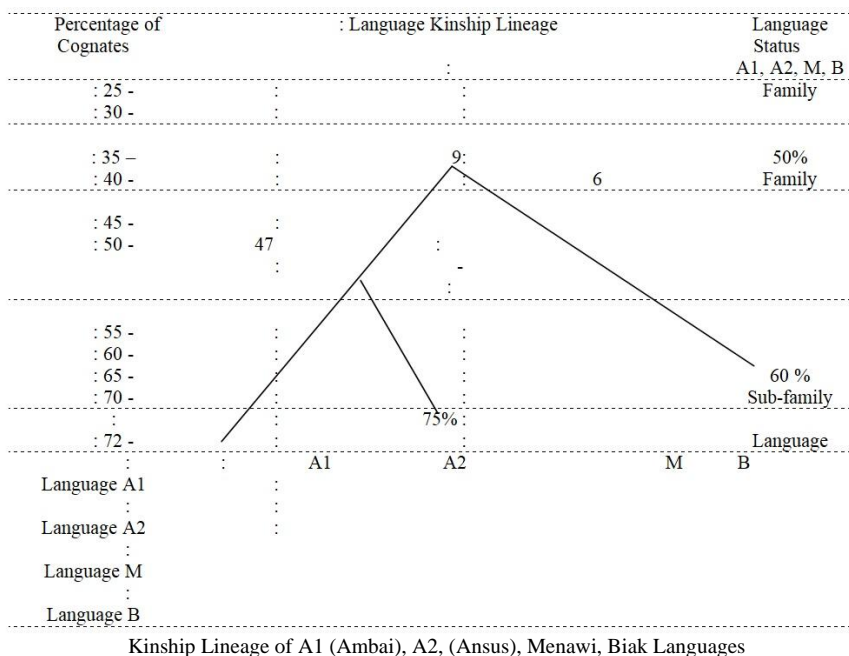
Diagram 2 Percentage of Similarity

Quantitative Data of Ambai, Ansus, Menawi and Biak Languages

Ambai	-			
Ansus	17	-		
Menawi	47	9	-	
Biak	1	2	0	-
	Ambai	Ansus	Menawi	Biak

Based on the diagram above, it is concluded that Ansus with Ambai has 17 related vocabularies, Menawi with Ambai language has 47 related vocabularies. Biak with Ambai language has 1 related vocabulary. Menawi language with Ansus language has 9 related vocabularies. Biak language and Ansus language have 2 related vocabularies. There are no related vocabularies between Biak with Menawi language (0). It means that there is no kinship relationship.

Diagram 3 Lineage



The genealogy of the languages A1 (Ambai), A2 (Ansus), Menawi, and Biak is stated as follows. Firstly, the Ambai, Ansus, Menawi language from the genealogy of these three languages (Ambai, Ansus, Menawi) is a separate group, while the Biak language is far from these three language groups. Secondly, of these three language groups (Ambai, Ansus, Menawi) the sub-groups of the three languages are derived as a separate member. Thirdly, lexically, the Ambai, Ansus, Menawi language groups have an average percentage of 49% of their native vocabulary belonging to the sub-family language.

Etimon List

* adia ‘fire ‘				
S adia	PAIM	*adia	A1 adia	M adia
*ai ‘mother ‘				
S ai	PAIM	*ai	A1 ai	M ai
*ai ‘tree				
S ai	PAIM	*ai	A1 ai	M ai
*aibong ‘egg ‘				
S aibong	PAIM	*aibong	A1 aibong	M aibong
*beiru ‘few ‘				
S beiru	PAIM	*beiru	A1 beiru	M beiru
*bebara ‘swollen’				
S bebara	PAIM	*bebara	A1 bebara	M bebara
*Boa ‘ Self (standing)’				
S boa	PAIM	*boa	A1 boa	M boa
*Boru ‘two’				
S boru	PAIM	*boru	A1 boru	M boru
*Boa ‘four’				
S boa	PAIM	*boa	A1 boa	M boa
*bampi ‘eat’				
S bampi	PAIM	*bampi	A1 bampi	M bampi

*bunung ‘drink’				
S bunung	PA1M*bunung	A1 bunung	M bunung	
*boromu ‘mouth’				
S boromu	PA1M* boromu	A1 boromu	M boromu	
*botoru‘three’				
S botoru	PA1M *botoru	A1 botoru	M botoru	
* dai‘ Father’				
S dai	PA1M *dai	A1 dai	M dai	
*derai ‘swim’				
S derai	PA1M *derai	A1 derai	M derai	
*diang ‘fish’				
S diang	PA1M *diang	A1 diang	M diang	
*domoya ‘right’				
S domoya	PA1M *domoya	A1 domoya	M domoya	
*diru‘night’				
S diru	PA1M *diru	1A diru	M diru	
*dewaroi ‘long’				
S dewaroi	PA1M *dewaroi	A1 dewaroi	M dewaroi	
*enemu‘stomach’				
S enemu	PA1M*enemu	A1 enemu	M enemu	
*fiabai ‘big’				
S fiabai	PA1M*fiabai	A1 fiabai	M fiabai	
*kambaina ‘heart’				
S kambaina	PA1M*kambaina	A1 kambaina	M kambaina	
*kauboi ‘ worm ‘				
S kauboi	PA1M *kauboi	A1 kauboi	M kauboi	
*miraba ‘heavy’				
S miraba	PA1M *miraba	A1 miraba	M miraba	
*muni‘kill				
S muni	PA1M *muni	A1 muni	M muni	
*mimoya ‘straight ‘				
S mimoya	PA1M*mimoya	A1 mimoya	M mimoya	
*mei ‘play’				
S mei	PA1M*mei	A1 mei	M mei	
*miri ‘laugh’				
S miri	PA1M*miri	A1 miri	M miri	
*nadoni‘where’				
S nadoni	PA1M*nadoni	A1 nadoni	M nadoni	
*nafani‘not’				
S nafani	PA1M* nafani	A1 nafani	M nafani	

*romu 'bird'				
S romu	PA1M romu	A1 romu	M romu	
*rika 'blood'				
S rika	PA1M rika	A1 rika	M rika	
*rerawa 'skin'				
S rerawa	PA1M rerawa	A1 rerawa	M rerawa	
*rahida 'afternoon'				
S rahida	PA1M *rahida	A1 rahida	M rahida	
*siai 'other'				
S siai	PA1M * siai	A1 siai	M siai	
*reisa 'sharp'				
S reisa	PA1M* reisa	A1 reisa	M reisa	
*sifo 'fly'				
S sifo	PA1M* sifo	A1 sifo	M sifo	
*tora 'walk'				
S tora	PA1M * tora	A1 tora	M tora	
*tinang 'short'				
S tinang	PA1M * tinang	A1 tinang	M tinang	
*tawai 'snaker'				
S tawai	PA1M * tawai	A1 tawai	M tawai	
*utu 'lice'				
S utu	PA1M *utu	A1 utu	M utu	
*wewasa 'wet'				
S wewasa	PA1M *wewasa	A1 wewasa	M wewasa	
*waroi 'jauh'				
S waroi	PA1M waroi	A1 waroi	M waroi	
*wonomu 'name'				
S wonomu	PA1M wonomu	A1 wonomu	M wonomu	
*wai 'rope'				
S wai	PA1M wai	A1 wai	M wai	

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the description above, it is concluded that (1) the kinship of Ambai, Ansus, and Menawi languages is revealed, and their frequency is high, in which the percentage of word relatives (vocabulary) of Ambai and Menawi languages is 47; Ansus and Ambai languages have 17 related vocabulary; Menawi and Ansus have 9 related vocabulary; while Menawi and Biak have no related vocabulary (0). The Ambai, Ansus, and Menawi languages are then classified as belonging to the same proto or family based on quantitative evidence, lexical innovation, and lexical reconstruction, while the Biak language is classified as being geographically separated from the group. (3) The kinship Ambai, Ansus, Menawi, and Biak in Saireri Bay, Papua Province, are classified as non-Austronesian proto-languages based on phonemic correspondence, phonetic similarity, and word systems.

From the above conclusions, the comparative historical linguistic research on Ambai, Ansus, Menawi, and Biak languages in Papua Province in Saireri Bay is limited to quantitative and qualitative aspects, which needs further research on phonology, morphology, and syntax aspects. Therefore, the researcher strongly recommends that future researchers conduct more in-depth and more specifically similar studies using a historical-comparative linguistic

analysis to prove the relationship of the languages to the other languages in the surrounding area, which is useful for the development of non-Austronesian language studies.

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A Review of Studies on the Selective Attention Strategy During Language Comprehension: The Present and the Future <i>Linlin Qiu and Norhiza Binti Ismail</i>	789
Saudi EFL University Instructors' Perceptions of Online Education During the COVID-19 Pandemic <i>Farah N. Algraini</i>	799
The Effects of the Communicative Approach and the Use of Information Technology on Students' Motivation and Achievement in Indonesian Language Learning <i>Alif Mudiono, Bambang Budi Wiyono, Maisyaroh, A Supriyanto, and Kung Tech Wong</i>	808
Developing Multimodal Literacy in the Business English Reading Class: A Case Study of Students' Presentation PowerPoint Slides <i>Wenjin Qi</i>	820
Approaches to Bangla-Arabic Translation: Subtleties and Solutions <i>Md. Faruquzzaman Akan, Salahud Din Abdul-Rab, and Aziz Abdulrab Saleh Salafi</i>	828
A Comparative Linguistic Study on Ambai, Ansus, Menawi and Biak Languages in Papua <i>Hendrik Arwam and Yosefina Baru</i>	840

The Ambivalent Depictions of Arabs in Naomi Shihab Nye's <i>Habibi</i> and Diana Abu-Jaber's <i>Crescent Ehab Hashem AlOmari and Nasaybah Walid Awajan</i>	620
Teachers' Expectations and Challenges in Using Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT) Strategies in the ESL Classroom <i>Faizah Idrus and Mahfuzah Sohid</i>	629
Non-Prototypical Uses of Personal Pronouns and Their Grammaticalization in Chinese <i>Tunan Hu and Moying Li</i>	636
The Translation of Quranic Metaphorical Expressions From Arabic Into English <i>Ronza N. Abu Rumman and Mohd Nour Al Salem</i>	646
Status of Rungus Language as an Indigenous Language Spoken by Rungus Ethnic Group in Eastern Malaysia <i>Bilal Ayed Al-Khaza'leh</i>	656
The Uniqueness of Imperative Construction in the Balinese Language <i>Made Sri Satyawati, I Nyoman Kardana, Ketut Widya Purnawati, and I Ketut Trika Adi Ana</i>	665
Insights Into Vietnamese Bilingual Students' Quizlet-Based English Vocabulary Learning <i>Thao Quoc Tran and Vy Lan T. Nguyen</i>	682
The Validity of Hiring Native and Non-Native English-Speaking Instructors: Professional Observers', Learners', and Programme Administrators' Perceptions <i>Abeer Yahya Murtada and Yasser Abdulrahman Alsuhaibani</i>	689
Indonesian Language Performance of Mentally Retarded Children: Reference for Writing Literacy Text Needs <i>Nengah Arnawa, Anak Agung Gde Alit Geria, I Gusti Lanang Rai Arsana, Made Wery Dartiningsih, and I Wayan Susanta</i>	701
Correlations Between Learning Style Preferences and Arab-Speaking Gulf Region First-Year College Students' EFL Performance: A Literature Review <i>Raafat Gabriel</i>	709
Nursing Students' Knowledge and Attitude Towards Medical Writing Skills in the English Language <i>Norah Banafi</i>	715
Shifting Divine Moral Values in the Novel <i>Rahwana Putih</i> by Sri Teddy Rusdy <i>Tri Astuti, Novi Anoegrajekti, and Nuruddin</i>	722
Arabic-Speaking EFL Learners' Pronunciation of British English Vowels: A Production-Based Study <i>Mohammed Hezam S. Naji and Ahmed Yahya Almakrob</i>	730
Polysemous Verbs <i>Break, Run, and Draw</i> Within Prototype Theory From the Perspective of Saudi Learners of English <i>Sahar Alkhelaiwi</i>	740
A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Microstructure of Covid-19 Health-Protocol Advertisements in Tourist Facilities <i>I Wayan Budiarta and Ni Wayan Kasni</i>	751
Comprehension of Metaphors by Typically Developing Arabic-Speaking Jordanian School Children <i>Ronza N. Abu Rumman</i>	759
Using the Motivation and Engagement Wheel to Examine the Interplay Between Learner Engagement, Motivation, Year Level, and Academic Achievement in an EFL Tertiary Context <i>Eman I. Alzaanin</i>	767
