Journal of Language Teaching and Research

Contents

Guest Editorial

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This Volume 14, Issue 4 includes six selected best papers from *the VIII International Conference on Bilingual Teaching in Educational Centers* (CIEB), held at the University of Jaén in October 2022. Bilingual education initiatives have been firmly taking root across the European continent (and increasingly, in Asia and Latin America) for the past two decades. In particular, CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), considered to be the European approach to plurilingual education, has been steadfastly advancing within the language teaching arena and evolving in exciting new directions which have posed novel challenges to researchers, practitioners, gate-keepers, and educational authorities alike. These new avenues for CLIL development include extending its implementation from infant education through to tertiary degrees (as research -e.g. Pérez Cañado, 2018 - has voiced that the effects of CLIL grow stronger with time), setting in place diversity-sensitive bilingual education systems which can increasingly cater for all types of students (Pérez Cañado, 2021), ensuring quality assurance within CLIL programs in order to determine those traits which characterize successful pedagogical practices (Pérez Cañado, 2016), or polling stakeholders' self-reported perceptions, which are particularly relevant in our field, as "their interpretations and beliefs are crucial to understand how the CLIL programme is socially viewed, understood and constructed, and the expectations it raises" (Barrios Espinosa, 2019, p. 1). These are precisely the key issues which the present volume seeks to address.

The first two contributions center on the crucial stage of infant education. **Louisa Mortimore** sets forth an innovative proposal to conflate social and emotional learning (SEL) and CLIL as highly compatible approaches to language learning in the early stages of bilingual education. She contends that an encouraging and supportive classroom climate is essential and that the concomitant development of both approaches is conducive to substantial benefits in favoring the holistic development of young children in bilingual programs. The author identifies the main niches to be filled in implementing SEL through CLIL in the official legislation and within teacher education, and maps out future pathways for progression via the provision of concrete pedagogical strategies which contribute to making bilingual education more extensive to all.

Violeta Delgado-Crespo also focuses on this initial educational level from a trail-blazing perspective by proposing a content-enhanced, needs-based, and CLIL-oriented syllabus model aimed at teaching and learning English in the Degree of Infant Education of the University of Zaragoza to develop the linguistic and communicative competence of undergraduate students. It aims to supersede the coursebook-driven approach and transition into a more meaning-focused, authentic, and multimodal syllabus which encourages cognitive engagement, self-directed learning, and critical thinking.

The next two papers then extend bilingual teaching to the tertiary stage. **Vicky Gil and Pilar Mur Dueñas** present an exemplary professional development itinerary designed and implemented at the University of Zaragoza to equip lecturers with the linguistic and methodological competencies required to step up to the challenge of ICLHE (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education) successfully. It raises teachers' awareness of the need to adapt their methodology and to adopt new strategies and techniques to teach effectively in a second language, with a special focus on the development of digital competence. Participant satisfaction with the initiative is also gauged via a qualitative evaluation survey and high degrees of satisfaction transpire, especially vis-à-vis the combined communicative and pedagogical nature of the training received.

In turn, **Cintia Álvarez-Domínguez, Ana Postigo-Fuentes, and Palma Chillón** also focus on ICLHE by carrying out a qualitative study with pre-service Physical Education teachers experiencing this methodology at Master's level and being trained to implement CLIL in the classroom. They tap into the perceived linguistic and professional competences acquired after applying this approach and use those results to directly inform pedagogical improvements in the subject, thereby constituting an instance of evidence-based practice. After a three-month intervention program, improvement is perceived by the students in their linguistic (especially oral) skills and professional competences. The outcomes then help tweak subsequent teaching practice, such as organizing micro-teaching sessions individually rather than in pairs or encouraging roles entailing more active involvement on the part of the students.

The final two studies cull frontline stakeholder perceptions in order to move towards effective, high-quality, and diversity-sensitive bilingual programs. **Francisco Melara Gutiérrez and Ignacio González López** conduct a mixed-methods investigation with methodological triangulation to determine teachers' chief training needs in guaranteeing quality assessment in bilingual teaching. They work within the school effectiveness and bilingual education research paradigms and make a double-fold contribution with their study: to design and validate a survey tool and to gauge educational needs for effective professional practice. Three teacher training demands emerge as a priority: local and

external networking, the promotion of intercultural competence, and evaluating, selecting, and adapting existing CLIL materials. The training needs identified are then used as a jump-off point to design specific teacher development proposals in working towards effective bilingual education.

Finally**, Pablo Ramón Ramos** also carries out a mixed-method concurrent triangulation study which examines frontline stakeholder perceptions (teachers, students, and parents) via questionnaires to determine the way in which differentiation is being accommodated in CLIL programs at the end of Primary Education. It does so, for the first time, in a bilingual context (the Valencian Community) and extracts key take-aways on all curricular and organizational fronts of CLIL programs, including linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, assessment, and teacher coordination and organization. Within- and across-cohort comparisons are also carried out in terms of a series of identification variables. The insights gleaned allow the author to identify best practices, key challenges, and chief training needs to continue making CLIL more diversity-sensitive and accessible to all.

It is hoped that, as bilingual education continues to gain ground and make headway, the research-grounded, pedagogically-oriented, and multifaceted insights gleaned from the six articles comprised in this special issue will help guide decisions, boost CLIL implementation, and equip frontline stakeholders to rise successfully to the new challenges which bilingual programs continue to throw our way. Therein lies the sustainability of CLIL initiatives, to which this volume hopes to contribute.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Exploring Graduate Teaching Assistants' Beliefs and Practices in Chinese as a Foreign Language Tutoring Program

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Abstract—The current qualitative study researches graduate Teaching Assistants' (TAs') beliefs and teaching practices towards Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) tutoring sessions and examines the possible factors that shape and influence their beliefs about teaching and tutoring. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews with three experienced graduate TAs in a CFL program at a higher education institution in the U.S. Findings revealed that TAs viewed tutoring with four major functions: review/practice of course content, remedial work, test preparation, and individualized instruction. To achieve effectiveness with these functions, they identified three types of methods for tutoring: great emphasis on explicit and implicit instruction of grammar and vocabulary, adoption of error feedback in tutoring writing, and recognition and attempted implementation of task-based teaching. Four factors have been identified to impact TAs' beliefs: TA training, curriculum guidelines, students' feedback, and preconceived beliefs. By exploring the TAs' beliefs, the program administrators would know more about the gaps in their curriculum objectives and actual teaching practices, thus can better train TAs in the future, which is also beneficial to the language learners. This professional and practical motivation is the goal of the current study.

Index Terms—second language instruction, individual tutorials, teachers' beliefs, graduate teaching assistants

I. INTRODUCTION

Researchers of language teaching have gained a great interest in teachers' beliefs in recent years. According to Kagan (1990), teachers' belief is defined as "pre- or in-service teachers' self-reflections, beliefs and knowledge about teaching, students, and content" (p. 421). Borg (1999) described the term as "the beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions, and attitudes that teachers hold on all aspects of their work" (p. 95). The study of second and foreign language teachers' beliefs has emerged since the mid-1990s.

Previous studies have shown that teachers' beliefs have played an important role in teaching and learning. Zheng (2009) pointed out that teachers' beliefs are critical indicators of understanding teachers' thought processes in making decisions about teaching, teaching methods they adopt, and learning to teach. In addition, Li (2013) argued that teachers' beliefs could have a greater impact on teachers' teaching practices than their knowledge of the subject. Therefore, researching L2 teachers' beliefs is of great significance in comprehending their planning process, goals in teaching and teaching methods.

In many FL programs at higher education institutions, Graduate Teaching Assistants (TAs) often serve as sole instructors at all levels under full-time faculty members' supervision. Although their instruction is usually assigned by their supervisors, TAs have spaces to act independently in some teaching practices, such as the tutoring sessions, making them the frontline for most in-class and outside-of-class instructions. However, this group is often overlooked in research about beliefs.

The current study researches three graduate TAs' beliefs towards a Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) tutoring program situated in an undergraduate CFL program at a large U.S. university where graduate TAs take most of the language teaching responsibilities. Through interviews with the TAs, the study aims to gain insight into TAs' beliefs about the effectiveness of their teaching practices and teaching methods they adopt and examine the possible factors shaping and influencing the TAs' beliefs in the tutoring sessions.

By looking at the TAs' beliefs, the program administrators would know more about the gaps in the curriculum objectives and actual teaching practices, thus can better train TAs in the future, which is beneficial to the language learners too. Also, since TAs could be considered as a subset of the profession of FL teachers, the findings and implications could be applied to FL programs in general.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Teachers' Beliefs in FL Teaching

Teachers' beliefs play an essential role in education research since beliefs are considered and proven as the "best indicators of the decisions individuals make throughout their lives" (Pajares, 1992, p. 307). Previous studies have

approached the issue of teachers' beliefs from different perspectives. They have covered topics about content, instruction, students, and learning in different contexts about different subjects, such as mathematics, science, social science, and language education (Fives & Gill, 2014).

In the field of FL teaching, teachers' belief is also a well-researched topic. Among a wide range of issues that have been examined, researchers paid much attention to teachers' beliefs in certain teaching methods in the classroom through quantitative and quantitative studies. Allen (2002) investigated a large-scale quantitative study through questionnaires on teachers' beliefs about the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* (SFLL) in the US, aiming to examine the teachers' familiarity with the Standards and the consistency between teachers' beliefs and the Standards. The results of this study suggested that teachers' beliefs and familiarity with the Standards could affect their implementation of the model for standards-based FL instruction and could impact the development of students' language proficiency. In terms of examples of qualitative research, Zheng and Borg (2014) examined teachers' beliefs about task-based language teaching (TBLT). The study was conducted with three Chinese secondary school teachers of English using observations and semi-structured interviews. Results of the study suggested that different teachers hold different beliefs towards innovative curricula (TBLT, in this case), and to better implement this kind of curriculum, instructional materials, and teacher preparation were important factors in shaping teachers' beliefs.

While extensive studies are conducted in the ESL/EFL context or commonly taught languages, such as Spanish or French, teachers' beliefs in the contexts of less commonly taught languages have gained attention, too, with the development of education in these languages over the past few decades. For example, Saydee (2016) researched 25 teachers of eight less commonly taught languages through interviews and questionnaires. The study focused on the teachers' and students' beliefs about effective teaching methods and the factors that shape their beliefs. Findings suggest that teachers of different languages share similar beliefs on the "best methods" of teaching, and factors that influence their beliefs are in common as well, although certain teachers believe that the languages they teach are different from others which require specific teaching methods, such as Chinese and Persian. To be more specific with Chinese teachers, Hu and Tian (2012) investigated the belief issue from both teachers' and students' perspectives. The participants completed questionnaires about the learning strategies of CFL. Results revealed that teachers and students reported similar learning strategies but had different beliefs regarding the effectiveness of these strategies.

Besides various beliefs in teaching methods, previous studies revealed homogeneity among the teachers regarding factors that influence their beliefs. As Gilakjani and Sabouri (2017) summarized in their review of ESL teachers' beliefs, four major factors have been identified in shaping teachers' beliefs: teachers' experience as language learners, experience from teaching, teachers' personality, and education-based or research-based principles. Studies in other languages, such as Saydee (2016), have identified similar factors that influence teachers' beliefs about effective and ineffective teaching methods, although the participants emphasized that the less commonly taught languages may require different teaching methods from commonly taught languages.

As discussed above, teachers' beliefs have different sources, and studies have shown that beliefs may change over time. Borg (2011) researched the impact of teacher education programs on in-service English language teachers' beliefs through a longitudinal study. Findings suggested that teacher education programs greatly impacted teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning. Teachers also experienced changes in their prior beliefs during the study. In addition to in-service teachers, pre-service teachers are also researched: Yuan and Lee (2014) investigated the process of belief change among three pre-service EFL teachers during the teaching practicum at a university in China. The findings showed that pre-service teachers' beliefs experienced different processes of change during the practicum. The socio-cultural factors contributed to these changes, such as their identity as new members at the school, or interactions with their mentors. The study also suggested that an open and supportive environment is needed for positive change in teachers' beliefs.

To summarize the brief review of the studies on FL teacher's beliefs, findings from these studies have shown that multiple factors can influence teachers' beliefs, but they may change along their teaching paths.

B. TAs' Beliefs in FL Teaching

The 2007 MLA report indicated that in doctoral-granting FL departments in the U.S., graduate TAs teach 57.4% of first-year language courses (MLA, 2007), so it is a natural need to understand TAs' beliefs that influence and orient how they teach. Several studies on TAs' beliefs were conducted similarly to those on teachers' beliefs. For example, Fox (1993) surveyed 147 first-year graduate French TAs about their beliefs in communicative teaching. Results showed that TAs' beliefs are highly influenced by their experience as language learners. Although research on TAs' beliefs looked at similar features in FL teaching, such as teaching methods (Fox, 1993), FL learners (Potowski, 2002), and theoretical knowledge (Rankin & Becker, 2006), some studies revealed additional sources of TAs' beliefs from teachers'. For example, Mills and Allen (2007) found that TAs' most important sources were TAs' training, observations of others' teaching, and informal discussions with their mentors and other TAs about teaching.

Allen and Negueruela-Azarola (2010) published an extensive review on the professional development of future professors of foreign languages, tracing research from 1987 to 2008. In this review, they pointed out that the focus of the empirical studies has primarily laid on the relationships between graduate students' beliefs and their FL teaching. Therefore, the authors indicated that rather than only addressing the training perspective, future research should pay more attention to FL graduate students' needs as teachers and researchers from a professional development perspective.

C. Tutors' Beliefs in FL Tutoring

Second and FL tutoring is a well-accepted practice at many institutions, but little has been done to investigate the what, how, and why of these tutoring sessions. Research on tutors' beliefs mostly focuses on writing center tutorials for L2 writers. The majority of these studies researched the tutors' feedback and the tutees' writing process during and after the tutorials (Williams, 2004). Williams and Severino (2004) reviewed studies on the differences between tutorials with L1 and L2 writers, and tutors' decision-making. The review pointed out that "one unfortunately not addressed at all in this issue and on which there is almost no research, is foreign language tutoring" (p. 169). Therefore, the authors proposed several questions calling for further research on FL tutorials.

It has been more than a decade since these questions have been proposed, but there is still a very limited number of studies focusing on FL tutoring. Matthews (2010) is an exceptional case that approached the issue from the students' perspective. The study investigated factors influencing self-efficacy judgments of university students in FL tutoring in Spanish, French, Italian, and Portuguese. Three discourse elements were identified and considered effective in stimulating a student's motivation: session structures, FL content, and comments with expected motivational impact. This study implies that tutors should be aware that their instructional practices can affect a student's motivation. Thus, they should be strategic about their activities and comments during the tutoring sessions.

An study of the less commonly taught language tutorials is a study by Murphy and colleagues in 2012. It was a small-scale study on tutors' and students' beliefs about tutoring in the UW-Madison Russian Flagship Program. The participants' responses revealed that tutors and students found the tutoring sessions beneficial, although there is sometimes a mismatch between tutors' beliefs and students' expectations. Researchers suggested "the need for greater programmatic support for setting goals for learning" (p. 123); short-term professional training programs or workshops could play a positive role in tutor training.

Tutoring is a generally accepted practice as part of the FL courses across institutions. As Spring (2012) described, the general goal of the tutoring sessions at the institution in the current study is "learners access a body of language materials tailored to their linguistic goals" (p. 143). To fill in the gap about these tutoring sessions, it is important to find out about the TAs' beliefs about the functions and effectiveness of the sessions to assess whether students' linguistic goals can be achieved as expected. Since in the current context of CFL tutoring, it is up to the TAs to decide what to do during the tutoring sessions with students, TAs may hold different beliefs from each other about the tutoring sessions. They may also have different expectations from the students who seek tutoring. These differences could affect students' learning as a result. In terms of how the tutoring is conducted, it is worthwhile to investigate the teaching methods the CFL TAs decide to adopt during tutoring sessions.

In summary, previous studies identified different factors in shaping teachers', TAs' and tutors' beliefs in general. Another issue worth examining is the factors that influence the TAs' beliefs about certain teaching methods and their decisions during tutoring. The results of the current study could reveal the effectiveness of the existing tutoring sessions from the TAs' perspectives and could shed light on the TA training process and curriculum design in CFL programs, which could benefit future language teaching.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

A.   What are the TAs' beliefs about the functions and effectiveness of the CFL tutoring sessions?
B.   What are the TAs' beliefs about the teaching methods of the CFL tutoring sessions?
C.   What factors have influenced the TAs' beliefs and their teaching practices?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Institutional Background and Participants

The current study is situated in an undergraduate CFL program at a large US university. The current study focuses on Mandarin Chinese courses that are usually co-taught by two TAs or a TA and a full-time lecturer. The teaching assignments of TAs depend on their teaching experience, evaluations, and qualifications. The tutoring sessions are part of the courses and serve as complementary help to the in-class instruction. They are mandatory sessions between the TAs and the students that meet once a week outside of regular class time. The specific objectives of these sessions are not explicitly clarified in the syllabi. The statement about the tutoring session in the standard program policy is broad as below:

> *One-on-one language tutorials (5% of final grade): language tutorial is a weekly oral practice session where students will work with instructors to enhance speaking ability. The goal is to help students develop language accuracy, fluency, and communicative competence. Students will meet with an instructor to develop oral conversations based on the newly learned topics. Language tutorials are graded on attendance and participation.*

The participants in this study are three Ph.D. students of the Ph.D. program of East Asian Languages and Civilizations (Chinese). They are all native speakers of Mandarin Chinese and have an advanced level of English proficiency. Their research focuses on literature, literary criticism, comparative cultural studies, and Chinese linguistics. Their educational backgrounds are mostly related to their current research. The TAs of the program received a

two-week training before the first semester of teaching from their supervisors, usually full-time lecturers with years of experience in CFL. During the TA training, the TAs were informed about the necessity and general goals of the tutoring sessions, but there were limited instructions on what and how to conduct the individualized tutoring. As a result, TAs determined the content of the tutoring sessions on their own or with their co-teaching TAs. Detailed information about the participants is listed in Table 1:

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE TAS

Participants	Gender	Years of Teaching (at the current institution)	Degree Pursuing	Courses Taught	Current Position
TA1	Female	5	Ph.D. in Chinese literature	CHI 101, 102, 301, Writing modules (Flagship course)	Graduate Teaching Assistant
TA2	Female	5	Ph.D. in Chinese Linguistics	CHI 101, 102, 110, 301	Graduate Teaching Assistant
TA3	Female	4	Ph.D. in Chinese literature	CHI 101, 102, 202, 301, 402	Graduate Teaching Assistant

B. Data Collection Method

The current study focused on the individual's beliefs rather than a general descriptive analysis of a large population. Therefore, a qualitative design is more suitable for understanding teachers' beliefs, as Corbin and Strauss (2008) explained that it "allows researchers to get at the inner experience of participants, to determine how meanings are formed through and in culture, and to discover rather than test variables" (p. 12). Compared to structured interviews, semi-structured interviews can elicit the interviewees' beliefs indirectly by providing contexts and questions about their behaviors and ideals where "the respondents can be perceived as the experiential experts on the subject" (Smith & Osborne, 2003, p. 59).

The current study was conducted through semi-structured, 50-60 minute interviews with participants, following a structured protocol (see Appendix B). The interviews were individual and to disclose more personal beliefs and experiences without possible influence from each other. The questions were adapted from Murphy et al. (2012), which focused on tutors' and students' beliefs from a Russian Flagship Program. Since all the TAs were native speakers of Chinese, the interviews were conducted in Chinese to ensure they fully understood the interview questions and to facilitate the expression and communication in their responses.

To answer the first research question about the TAs' beliefs in the functions and effectiveness of the CFL tutoring sessions, the questions focused on their teaching philosophy, objectives, understanding of the students' needs, and their opinions on the tutoring sessions and students who attended the sessions. In terms of the second research question about the TAs' beliefs and possible changes in teaching methods of the CFL tutoring sessions, some questions focused on their current and past procedures and methods and certain events during the tutoring sessions described by the participants, in addition to their ideal methods that they preferred. For the last research question on factors that influence the TAs' beliefs, questions focused on their decision-making process and the instructions they receive along with their teaching. To triangulate the data from oral interviews, other written materials related to the tutoring sessions were collected, such as syllabi, slides, or handouts, to disclose some actual teaching practices of the TAs.

C. Data Analysis

The data analysis method for this study was Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA), a dominant qualitative approach in many academic disciplines. It explores "how participants are making sense of their personal and social world" (Smith & Osborn, 2003. p. 53). TAs' responses in the interviews were transcribed, labeled, and categorized in Chinese based on their themes, following the steps of IPA detailed in Smith and Osborne (2003). The detailed steps of the analysis with each interview are as follows:

(a). Read the transcripts a few times to be familiar with the participants' responses;
(b). Located and highlighted the interesting and significant opinions, comments, and anecdotes from the transcripts;
(c). Provided initial notes and labels to the highlighted responses, such as "practice of course content," "remedial work," or "test preparations";
(d). Categorized these labels into different themes. For example, the labels above fall into the theme of "functions of the tutoring sessions";
(e). Checked the emergent themes against the original transcripts and transformed the data into narratives;
(f). Translated the narratives into English when reported in the findings section;
(g). Returned to the interview transcripts to review and revise the findings, following an iterative process.

V. FINDINGS

A. Research Questions 1: What Are the TAs' Beliefs About the Functions and Effectiveness of the CFL Tutoring Sessions?

To reveal the TAs' beliefs about functions, they were asked to explain the focus of their tutoring sessions, their

understanding of the syllabus, and their goals for conducting the tutorials. The responses from TAs were coded and emerged into the following four themes about functions: review/practice of course content, remedial work, test preparation, and individualized instruction.

(a). Review/Practice of Course Content

As described in the course syllabi, "students will meet with an instructor to develop oral conversations based on the newly learned topics," course content or textbook content is the most seen theme of functions in the one-on-one tutorials. In the TAs' description of the tutoring sessions, all the TAs in the study emphasized their intentions of supplementing classroom instruction. For instance, one TA explicitly described the function of her sessions as "a review":

TA 1: It's a review of their classes, and I can answer their questions, not limited to course content. (I want my students) to use some vocabulary and grammar that they learned in class.

With this common goal in mind, TAs have taken different approaches for the review/practice purpose, as detailed in Research Question 2.

(b). Remedial Work

The second theme of functions is also highly related to classroom instruction. Rather than just focusing on the new course/textbook content, TAs all revealed that they aim to assist individual students during the tutorials, targeting their specific learning weaknesses. TAs also emphasized their intentions to meet different students' needs, which they can hardly accomplish in the classrooms due to class size or time limit, so they saved it to the tutoring sessions:

TA 1: Some students are too nervous to talk in front of their classmates, so when we have one-on-one conversations, they feel more comfortable talking in Chinese. Besides, I can correct their errors and reorganize their speeches so they can try again… In terms of writing, they wish tutors could revise their compositions because they can't detect errors independently. And I can do that with them too.

(c). Test Preparation

When students in the Chinese program reach a higher level of language study, the program encourages students to take some tests administered by authoritative institutions, such as the HSK (*The Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi* 汉语水平考试, the Chinese Proficiency Test) or the OPI (The ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview). As a result, one TA mentioned a critical element of her tutorials as test preparation:

TA 3: For third-year students, I used an online listening program to practice listening skills with them. It was required by their instructor/my supervisor because the students need to take a speaking/listening test by the end of their third year. For the fourth year, I adopt the method of OPI (oral proficiency interview). They need to take the test too, so I want to prepare them for it, and I believe it is a great way to assess their speaking ability.

(d). Individualized Instruction

The TAs all mentioned their desire to help students at more advanced levels. They were concerned that it would "waste our time" to teach the students what they already knew. The TAs were willing to provide these advanced students with resources and tools to facilitate their learning during the tutoring sessions. For instance, one TA described her efforts in making the tutoring go beyond linguistic knowledge in their language courses:

TA 1: For students with higher proficiency, they would like to apply their language knowledge to other fields. For example, right now, my students are taking Chinese linguistics, Chinese literature, and history courses, so sometimes I'll introduce some new words, idioms, or just some cultural facts based on the course contents.

To summarize the TAs' beliefs on the functions of tutoring sessions, their responses fell into four themes: review/practice of course content, remedial work, test preparation, and individualized instruction. This finding exposed a tension between the program requirements and the TAs' perception. As described in the syllabi, the tutoring should serve as an "oral practice session" to enhance students' speaking ability, focusing on improving accuracy, fluency, and communicative competence. The findings in TAs' beliefs on functions, however, revealed that the TAs have desires to accomplish more goals than just an oral practice.

Concerning the effectiveness of the tutoring sessions with multiple functions, the TAs were asked about their perceptions of the most and the least helpful aspects for students' learning of the tutoring and if their focus on one aspect can help the students in other areas (e.g., Does it help students to improve their writing or speaking skills with the emphasis on grammar during the tutoring?).

The TAs in the study were confident with the effectiveness of the tutoring. They all reported some positive effects on their students' performance, despite what activities they used for different students' needs. For example, TA2 mainly highlighted the effectiveness of the tutorials in improving students' speaking skills and her efforts with students with learning difficulties:

TA 2: I see the tutorial as an interactive speaking section, so I aim to improve their communicative competence. It (the role-play activity mentioned in the previous description) can help more with students' fluency in speaking…Students at risk are probably incapable of carrying on the conversation (the role-play), so basic vocabulary and grammar are the only focus (of the tutorials). In this case, they should be able to do better in class.

Also, the TAs wanted to ensure that they could prepare their students for real-life applications of the Chinese language with more opportunities than classrooms:

> TA 1: (For compositions) I want to help them write authentic Chinese essays that they can use for program applications or publish their writing anywhere rather than just for school assignments.

In terms of the effectiveness of improving language skills in other areas, the TAs admitted that they were not sure about the actual effectiveness, because they did not have the chance to assess it, but held a positive belief: they believed that with the improvement in one skill, the students should be able to apply it effectively to other areas and contexts, for example:

> TA 3: Tutorials have provided opportunities for students to utilize all their knowledge about the language. Topics should go beyond textbooks and more about real life and the world. I believe it (OPI) is a great way to assess their speaking ability. They can transfer these techniques when they really need to use Chinese in the real world.

In addition to the effectiveness in language ability, one TA touched upon the effectiveness of students' motivation. She believed that if the students could perform the OPI-format interviews with the tutors successfully, they would be more motivated and confident in their future learning:

> TA 3: TAs guide the students during the process of OPI so that they not only measure their language ability but also become more motivated, because they would know what they can talk about in Chinese in a more natural setting, even when they leave the program. I can engage their interests and motivate them to learn and participate in this process.

B. Research Question 2: What Are the TAs' Beliefs about the Teaching Methods of CFL Tutoring Sessions?

The TAs in the present study have participated in the tutorials for years with rich experiences with students from different backgrounds and proficiency levels. When they are asked about their teaching methods that have been adopted in their tutorials, one of their common responses is that they all believe there is no perfect teaching method that is appropriate for all students at the same time, so a good teacher should use different methods for students with different needs:

> TA 1: Teaching method is tricky to me…the students are different, so there should be different teaching methods too.

In terms of specific teaching methods, TAs' responses fell into three themes according to the courses they teach: great emphasis on explicit and implicit instruction of grammar and vocabulary, adoption of error feedback in tutoring writing, and recognition and attempted implementation of task-based teaching:

(a.) Explicit and Implicit Instruction of Grammar and Vocabulary

TAs all believed that grammar and vocabulary are very important components in the process of learning the Chinese language. They referred to grammar and vocabulary as the "foundation" or "basics" of producing correct Chinese. The objectives are consistent throughout the tutorials from different TAs, although there is a disagreement between their choice of explicit or implicit teaching methods. One reported that she chose a traditional method through drills and pattern practice:

> TA 1: According to the lesson plan, I ask the students questions, and they answer with the words and grammatical structures they learned. When they make mistakes, I will correct them, and we try again.

At the same time, another TA explained how she tried to avoid the traditional methods, and her way of creating a more communicative environment for grammar and vocabulary teaching:

> TA 2: The basic idea is that I start with words and grammar that they newly learn that week and have some interactive activities. I don't want it (the tutorial) to be too mechanical, so I usually create a proper scenario where we have some performance-based activities. For example, I was a salesman, and the student was a customer, so we could practice vocabulary and grammar about shopping. If I had a pair of students, I would have them take turns completing the role-play. It can help a lot more with students' fluency in speaking.

(b). Adoption of Error Feedback in Tutoring Writing

TA 1 was in charge of tutoring students from Chinese writing courses, so she was the only one who talked about teaching methods in writing. She mentioned that she provided written and oral corrective feedback to her students' writing and gave direct and indirect feedback along the process. She described the process of tutoring writing with her students as follows:

> TA 1: They send me their drafts before the tutorials. I'll read them and give feedback on their writing. I would either correct their errors or mark the sentences or words that I find problematic. During the tutorial, we went through each point that I marked previously. Sometimes I just tell them the right way to write, or sometimes they would explain their original plans or thoughts to me, and we can negotiate about the proper ways to express their ideas.

(c). Recognition and Attempted Implementation of Task-Based Teaching

As mentioned earlier, TAs believe their tutorials should help students apply their linguistic knowledge and language skills to the "real world." Performance-based teaching through meaningful tasks, consistent with the ACTFL Guidelines,

was valued by two TAs. One example is TA 2's description of her methods of teaching grammar and vocabulary in the last section, and the other example is when TA 3 addressed her concerns and belief about teaching materials:

> TA 3: Topics (of the tutorials) should go beyond textbooks and more about real life and the world. I think some of the content in the textbooks and common methods we use now are outdated. Most textbook texts in the fourth year are news reports, so would it be possible to have students interview people, Chinese students, for example, after class? The task-based method is more connected with real life and should be adopted.

C. Research Question 3: What Factors Have Influenced the Tas' Beliefs and Their Teaching Practices?

To answer the third research question, TAs were asked about their decision-making process of developing the goals, content, and teaching methods in the tutoring sessions throughout the interviews. Based on their descriptions and reflections, factors influencing their beliefs can be categorized into TA training, curriculum guidelines, students' feedback, and preconceived beliefs.

(a). TA Training

Findings from the three participants suggest that TA training impacted their beliefs about the tutoring program and their overall teaching methods, especially at the early stage of teaching. According to the TAs' description, modeling plays a vital role in shaping their beliefs in teaching. As described in the last section, the TAs reported designing their primary tutorials based on the sample lesson plans. New TAs who teach lower-level courses also tend to follow what other experienced TAs do from their observations, for not having much experience in teaching at that stage:

> TA 1: I remember the first semester when I started to tutor flagship students, I did not have any students at the beginning. Instead, my mentor teacher had me sit in another TA's class (tutorials) for about four weeks, and then I took over some of that TA's students later that semester. I basically just imitated exactly what she did for that entire year.

(b). Curriculum Guidelines

Another factor influencing the TAs' beliefs is their understanding of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and the teaching and learning objectives set by the language program. The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines describe functional language ability, emphasizing the use of the target language in real-world situations (ACTFL, 2012). As mentioned in the previous section, TAs value real-world application of the language, and as a result, this affects their teaching methods. For instance, TA 3's decision to follow an OPI format in her tutorials is also developed from her understanding of the ACTFL guidelines. The curriculum guidelines provide instructional implications for language skills at different proficiency levels, which help the TA to have a more precise goal in scaffolding the students with their learning and assessment needs.

(c). Students' Feedback

A third common theme among TAs' responses is students' feedback: they all referred to students' written or oral comments on their tutorials or implicit feedback as an essential element in improving the effectiveness of their tutorials. When Tutor 1 explained her methods in tutoring writing, she commented that she adopted this error feedback method because "students like it". TA 3, on the other hand, mentioned that she chose to quit the question-and-answer drill format (from their sample lesson plans) because of students' negative feedback:

> TA 3: Sometimes, students are not very interested in the topics in the textbooks, and if we force them to talk about them, it's torture for both of us.

As a result, she chose to use the OPI mode to adapt to the student's interests and abilities.

Unlike in-class instructions, TAs believed that the tutoring sessions are for individual attention, and they should likely draw students' interests at best:

> TA 2: TAs have to have individualized methods for each student. Needs analysis is important. For example, some heritage learners are more interested in practicing their writing skills than speaking.

(d). Preconceived Beliefs

The last factor is that preconceived beliefs influence TAs' teaching practice greatly. Due to each TA's background and teaching experience, individual differences could play an important role in their teaching. TA3, for example, mentioned that she developed the current teaching methods based on how she was taught in other languages. She took Japanese and French courses to fulfill the foreign language requirements of her Ph.D. study, and she learned many teaching strategies from her teachers in these classes, like how to communicate with novice learners or the OPI mode from her testing experience in her Japanese. Since TA 2 majors in linguistics, she often referred to terminology or theories that she learned in graduate linguistic courses or readings when she explained her teaching philosophy during the interview.

VI. DISCUSSION

Findings from this study provide preliminary insights into graduate TAs' beliefs about the functions, effectiveness, and teaching methods of the tutoring practice, as well as factors that influence their beliefs.

TAs in the study revealed four major functions of tutoring: review/practice of course content, remedial work, test

preparation, and individualized instruction. The findings revealed some existing issues within the current program and the implications for future teaching. The TAs all mentioned the necessity of clear curriculum guidelines and requirements from the department/program. As TA2 pointed out, she wished the content of the classes and tutorials to be more "predictable" so that TAs and students could know about the learning objectives, assignments, or assessment tools (such as portfolios) in advance. In reflection of their teaching, the TAs find that there is sometimes a mismatch between students' interests and the current curriculum, so they wish they could have space to work with an individual student during tutorials to meet their learning needs and interests so that "students can be more motivated," as TA 3 described.

Consequently, there is a calling for needs analysis for students. TAs occasionally refer to their current students as "not my students" since they did not teach the same group of students in the previous lower-level classes. Articulation between classes could be a factor that impacted the effectiveness of their teaching. One TA proposed that teachers can create learning profiles for their students since they enter the program, so when the students move into a higher-level class, their new teachers can quickly get familiar with their characteristics and needs. These findings suggest that TAs are willing to get involved in the curriculum development process, although sometimes they do not have a say.

In terms of teaching methods, TAs mainly identified three types of methods for tutoring: great emphasis on explicit and implicit instruction of grammar and vocabulary, adoption of error feedback in tutoring writing, and recognition and attempted implementation of task-based teaching. This finding is primarily consistent with the literature. Ning (2001), in her review of CFL commercial textbooks, commented that "many in the field still doubt the usefulness of SLA studies to Chinese-language teaching. Overall, the field tends to be conservative" (p. 38). In addition to the teaching materials, researchers in the field have also identified minimal success in the modernization of pedagogical practice in CFL (Chiang, 2010; Orton, 2008). This is evident in Saydee (2016), when Chinese teachers use more traditional methods than teachers of other languages. At the same time, there is a positive change in TAs' beliefs about more innovative teaching methods, such as task-based or performance-based teaching. They have reported attempted implementation of these approaches in their tutoring to some extent. Unlike the participating Chinese teachers in Saydee (2016), who believed that the Chinese language is different from other languages, therefore, requires different teaching methods, TAs in the current study repeatedly referred to their learning experience of English, French or Japanese, and their reading and research in SLA theories and language education literature when addressing their teaching experiences and beliefs. This could be a good sign that some pre-service CFL teachers are aware of making a change in the field.

Four factors have been identified to impact TAs' beliefs: TA training, curriculum guidelines, students' feedback, and preconceived beliefs. This finding is aligned with previous research. Mills and Allen (2007) suggested that TAs' most important sources were TAs' training, observations of others' teaching, and interaction with their mentors. TAs in the current study also talked about how these factors shaped their beliefs, especially at the early teaching stage. Gilakjani and Sabouri (2017) summarized that four major factors shaped teachers' beliefs: teachers' experience as language learners, experience from teaching, teachers' personality, and education-based or research-based principles. In comparison, TAs in the current study did not talk much about their own personalities, but they demonstrated positive and supportive attitudes toward students seeking tutoring.

In addition to what Allen and Negueruela-Azarola (2010) proposed, research on TAs' beliefs should pay attention to the TAs' professional development rather than solely teacher training, TAs in the current study touched upon the issue too. For example, TA 3 mentioned that she valued her tutoring experience a lot because she wished to be a certified OPI tester in the future, and she could use this experience as a practice before applying for the certification. TAs briefly discussed their plans as teachers, researchers, or administrators of the CFL field "when they get their own positions." These statements have shown their commitment to a larger professional community, and the potential benefits to their professional development by implementing appropriate professional or academic training programs or workshops in their current graduate program.

This study has some limitations in terms of the design. First, the study is a small-scale study with three TAs with different backgrounds and profiles. The interviews did not require them to connect their backgrounds with their beliefs in teaching Chinese, although they sometimes refer to their past learning experiences as a source to validate their decisions in the tutoring process. Future studies could have a more in-depth investigation of the connections between the TAs with different backgrounds and their beliefs, for example, if TAs with a literature background share different beliefs in language teaching from TAs with a linguistic background. In addition, the majority of data were from the participating TAs about their recent tutoring experience, who was in charge of three different language courses from three language levels. Since TA1 and TA 3 were teaching upper-level courses, they shared their beliefs in teaching students with more advanced language proficiency, but whether language levels affect the tutors' beliefs remains unknown. Future research can compare TAs' beliefs across language levels to examine whether it is an influential factor. At last, as Allen and Negueruela-Azarola (2010) suggested, research on teachers' beliefs should aim to fulfill long-term needs, so more studies should be done to derive some findings based on a comparison of the interview data across semesters.

VII. CONCLUSION

Tutoring is perceived to be effective in improving students' language learning. It is closely connected to the Chinese

curriculum and provides richer opportunities for students to practice the target language with more individual attention from the TAs in a less stressful environment than in-class instructions. The present study only researched TAs' beliefs on tutoring sessions. However, for further exploration of the effectiveness of tutoring, students' perceptions of seeking tutoring should be researched to triangulate the problem.

The current study about TAs' beliefs about the tutoring program is situated only in one specific CFL program, and different language programs at other universities may have different requirements and instructions. Findings from this study provide preliminary insights into TAs' beliefs of tutoring in the CFL Program. At the same time, it should be relevant for in-class instruction in some way. Overall, these findings suggest positive effects of theoretical instructions in related fields, TA training, and a supportive environment from administrations, which could provide implications of program development and graduate TA training in general.

APPENDIX A INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TAS

1. Please describe your Chinese tutoring sessions in your own words. What is the focus of your tutoring? What do you do during tutoring sessions?
2. Are they (your tutoring sessions) different from your understanding of the tutoring sessions in the syllabi?
3. What aspects of tutoring do you find to be the most helpful, and the least helpful for students' learning?
4. To what extent do you feel that tutoring focused on one aspect (e.g., grammar) helps students in other areas (e.g., writing or speaking)?
5. How did you decide to follow the current procedures and methods in your tutoring? Did you receive any instructions when you started to teach?
6. If you could change one thing (e.g., lesson plans, materials, or schedules) in your future tutoring sessions, what would it be? Why?
7. Is there anything you would like to know before starting to teach? Why do you believe something is missing?

Optional follow-up questions: Could you tell me a little more about that? Could you give an example?

APPENDIX B IRB APPROVAL LETTER

ASU Knowledge Enterprise Development

EXEMPTION GRANTED

Mark James
English
480/965-2731
Mark.A.James@asu.edu

Dear Mark James:

On 2/12/2019 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title:	Exploring Graduate Teaching Assistants' beliefs and practices in Chinese as Foreign language tutoring program
Investigator:	Mark James
IRB ID:	STUDY00007745
Funding:	None
Grant Title:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	• consent_updated, Category: Consent Form; • RECRUITMENT SCRIPT_Yifan Guo.pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Protocal_updated, Category: IRB Protocol; • CITI reports, Category: Other (to reflect anything not captured above); • Interview Questions, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions);

The IRB determined that the protocol is considered exempt pursuant to Federal Regulations 45CFR46 (1) Educational settings, (2) Tests, surveys, interviews, or observation on 2/12/2019.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

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A Critical Discourse Analysis of Medical English Course Syllabuses

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Abstract—**This article presents an analysis of the teacher-student power relationship embedded in three English for Medical Purposes (EMP) course syllabuses at a case study university. The study employs Fairclough's critical discourse analytical approach to examine the linguistic elements of the syllabuses, including verbs, modality, and quantifying adjectives. The findings reveal that the syllabuses textually represent an unequal power relationship, with the teachers holding significant authority over the students. This finding is significant as it contradicts some recommendations that ESP teaching should avoid a teacher-centred approach. By analysing the linguistic elements of the syllabuses, this study provides valuable insights into the power dynamics in EMP courses and highlights the importance of critically examining course materials for equitable and student-centred learning environments.**

Index Terms—**critical discourse analysis, English for medical purposes, course syllabuses**

I. INTRODUCTION

Many different approaches to teaching English as a foreign language have been introduced over the last century. Looking back at these approaches, we could assert that many of the conventional teaching approaches focused on teachers with an emphasis on input-oriented course design, where students are required to process input by demonstrating they have understood a target element in input. However, this approach pays little attention to learners' individual needs and differences. It was not until the emergence of humanistic psychology in the 1950s that some teaching approaches started to transit from teacher-centred to learner-centred.

A teacher-centred approach has its roots in behaviourism (Kember, 2000), which treats learners as passive recipients of knowledge without being involved in an active learning process (Huba & Freed, 2000). By contrast, the learner-centred approach empowers learners to decide what to learn, how to learn and where to learn (Dasein, 2017). The teacher-centred approach is often associated with traditional teaching methods, such as lectures and rote memorization (Schunk, 2012). According to Schunk (2012), in a teacher-centred classroom, the teacher is the primary source of information and authority, and students are expected to follow instructions and comply with rules. The teacher sets the pace of learning, determines the curriculum, and evaluates student performance.

In contrast, the learner-centred approach emphasizes active learning, student autonomy, and collaboration (Weimer, 2013). According to Weimer (2013), in a learner-centred classroom, students are encouraged to ask questions, explore ideas, and participate in activities that promote critical thinking and problem-solving. The teacher acts as a facilitator, providing guidance and support, rather than simply delivering information.

In terms of research, there is evidence to suggest that the learner-centred approach can lead to improved student outcomes, including higher levels of engagement, motivation, and achievement (Lai & Vethamani, 2015). However, it's worth noting that the effectiveness of any instructional approach may depend on a variety of factors, such as the subject matter, the goals of instruction, and the needs and preferences of individual learners (Schunk, 2012).

In ESP teaching, many scholars have argued that a learner-centred approach should be adopted because learners' language learning needs are usually the basis of ESP course design. It is important to provide ESP learners with the opportunity to choose topics that interest them (Sharkey & Weimer, 2003).

The Chinese National Medium and Long-term Education Reform and Development Plan for the period of 2010 to 2020 promulgated by the Chinese government in 2010 clearly stated that in Chinese higher education institutions, undergraduate and postgraduate students should be encouraged to take part in the process of deciding course contents, length, location of study and assessment methods. As a result, many Chinese university teachers have adopted the learner-centred teaching approach in their classrooms (Lee et al., 2017). However, some studies (e.g., Cheng & Ding, 2021; Li, 2019; You, 2019) have revealed that many Chinese students were still accustomed to the teacher-centred approach when entering universities, which entailed challenges of adopting the learner-centred approach for them. For example, Luo and Garner (2017) found that when using the problem-based learning method – a learner-centred approach enabling students to learn a subject by solving open-ended problems – many university students had difficulty in solving problems independently without being fully instructed by teachers.

In conclusion, despite many researchers having suggested that English language teaching should be learner-centred, it would be desirable to find out which approach is currently being used in Chinese EMP classrooms and to investigate Chinese EFL medical students' and EMP teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards it. However, regarding this

important issue, very little research has been conducted targeting Chinese EFL medical students. Therefore, the current study investigates this issue using critical discourse analysis on three EMP course syllabuses used in a university in China.

Document analysis on three EMP course syllabuses was conducted. The main purpose of analysing three EMP course syllabuses was to examine messages about teacher-student power relationships embedded in the syllabuses of EMP courses. The two questions to be answered by analysing syllabuses were: 1) Do these courses adopt a learner-centred or teacher-centred approach? 2) Are students given flexibility in course activities and grading procedures?

Three syllabuses of the EMP courses that are provided as optional courses for undergraduate students in Clinical Medicine (5-year degree) at a university in China were analysed. The syllabuses were downloaded from the university official website. The syllabuses used are all open-access documents. None of them required an application or someone's help to gain access. The lengths of these syllabuses vary from 572 words (*Illness Narrative*), through 875 words (*Medical Visual Culture*), to 1117 words (*Medical Terminology*). For all courses, the tasks in each academic week are clearly outlined.

The reason for choosing these three syllabuses rather than other syllabuses is because this research focuses on examining the adequacy of the current EMP courses in preparing medical students' English language skills for their target careers; these three courses are the only dedicated EMP courses that undergraduate students in Clinical Medicine (5-year length) can take at this university. The reason for analysing syllabuses rather than other forms of documents available at this university is that the syllabuses contain more detailed information, enabling me to analyse how teacher-student power relationship is textually represented than others. In line with the purpose of this study, only components that indicated classroom power relationships were presented: course objectives and grading procedures.

II. COURSE SYLLABUSES

A. Course Name: Illness Narrative

Course objectives: The syllabus presents the course objectives as "To provide students with a grounding in auto/biographical illness that focus on narratives that focus on aspects of the body – from cancer, HIV/AIDS to disability – by examining key theoretical and auto/biographical texts as well as biographical films; to reflect upon variants of the experience of illness in various contexts; to engage with volunteers from the Cancer Rehabilitation Society of the Chinese Anti-Cancer Association to write about their experience of living with cancer".

Assessment: The assessment comprises "class attendance and tutorial portfolio – 20%; profile of an illness – 50%; parallel chart – 30%". From the assessment procedures, it can be seen that 80% of the grade is based on submitted written work, which may help students develop writing skills. In addition, to accomplish these two tasks (profile of an illness – 50%; parallel chart – 30%), students are required to interview a volunteer from the Cancer Rehabilitation Society of the Chinese Anti-Cancer Association who speaks Chinese.

B. Course Name: Medical Visual Culture

Course objectives: According to the syllabus, the course objectives are "to connect and integrate across-discipline knowledge between the humanities and medicine; to learn and apply cross-disciplinary skills to solve problems; to synthesize and transfer knowledge across disciplinary boundaries through the lens of morality, ethics, socio-economic factors, cultural bias, and changing environment; to collaborate on team project and presentation; to learn the analytical techniques used by art historians and health professionals; to enhance students' visual literacy and critical thinking skills".

Assessment: The grading is "short paper assignments – 40%; homework (submitting blog posts and comments on the class website) – 30%; group project: presentation and final paper – 30%".

C. Course Name: Medical Terminology

Course objectives: Helping students "learn medical terminology" and "improve their reading and communication skills in medical settings" are the objectives of this course. Reading and communication skills are stated in these course objectives.

Assessment: Grading is based on the following guideline: "attendance – 20%; quizzes – 30%; final exam – 50%". English and Chinese are both used as language of instruction in class, while all quizzes and exam are taken in English.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

The theories and analytical techniques on which this document analysis was based were Van Dijk's discourse semantics and ideology (Van Dijk, 1995), Fairclough's emphasis on word choice (Fairclough, 2001), and Halliday's functional analysis of discourse, particularly his analysis of lexical connotation (Halliday, 2004). Specifically, it involved analysing word choices, lexical connotations, modality, and quantifying adjectives.

Linguistic features of texts were analysed and then linked them with a broader issue – teacher-student power relationships – to understand the teaching approach (student-centred or teacher-centred) used in the EMP courses. Fairclough's three-dimensional framework for critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a model that is widely used to

analyse language use in social contexts. The first dimension focuses on analysing the linguistic features of the text, such as grammar, vocabulary, and discourse structure. The purpose of this analysis is to understand how language is used to construct meaning and how it reflects power relationships and ideologies. The second dimension is concerned with analysing how the text relates to its social context. It examines how the text constructs and reproduces social practices, identities, and power relationships. The analysis of this dimension helps to uncover how language is used to perpetuate or challenge dominant discourses. The third dimension focuses on the broader social context in which the text is produced and consumed. It examines the social institutions, structures, and practices that influence the use and interpretation of language. The social analysis helps to understand how power is distributed in society and how language is used to maintain or challenge power relationships. Fairclough's critical discourse analysis has been used in educational research to analyse language use in textbooks, syllabi, and classroom interactions. Researchers may use CDA to examine how language use reflects power relationships between teachers and students, or how language use in textbooks reinforces or challenges dominant ideologies related to race, gender, or class.

Fairclough's (2001) critical discourse analytical framework (Table 1) was adopted because its three interrelated analysing processes (at the micro-, meso- and macro-level) that are tied to the three interrelated discourse dimensions suit the purpose of this part of the case study, which is to examine how the student-teacher power relationships are textually represented by syllabuses. By using all three dimensions, Fairclough's framework aims to provide a comprehensive analysis of language use and its role in constructing and reproducing social practices, identities, and power relationships. Therefore, a linguistic analysis at the micro-level was first conducted on learning objectives and grading procedures and the syllabuses were then further analysed by using the principles of ideology for a macroanalysis. The findings were structured in the three dimensions of analysis.

TABLE 1
FAIRCLOUGH'S THREE-DIMENSIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (2001)
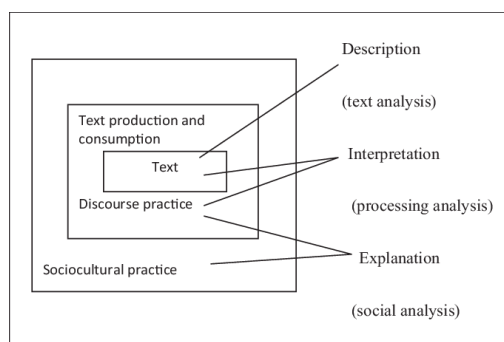
IV. FINDINGS

A. First Dimension: A Linguistic Analysis

The linguistic analysis focused on the verbs used in 'intended learning outcomes' and 'grading procedure'. In particular, it focuses on the modality of the statements on the basis of whether these verbs were transitive or intransitive. For example, the learning outcomes of Medical Visual Culture stated that learners will: "**connect** and **integrate** interdisciplinary knowledge between medicine and humanities; **learn** and **apply** interdisciplinary skills; **synthesize** and **transfer** knowledge over disciplinary boundaries; **learn** the analytical tools used by health professionals and art historians" (emphasis added). The verbs in this section are all transitive and show a strong modality (a category of linguistic meaning having to do with the expression of possibility), indicating certainty and strength. Moreover, the declarative mood found in these statements ignores learners' diverse language learning needs.

Another example is the strict rules of assessment; the frequency and due dates of assignments were clearly defined, and a rubric explicitly precluded flexibility. For example, in the Illness Narratives syllabus, the use of the subjective modal verb "**must**" in "class attendance is **compulsory** and active participation in tutorials and class discussions is **strongly encouraged**. Before each tutorial students are **required** to read **all** of the articles in advance and prepare 2 questions and/or discussion points. The questions and discussion points **must** be submitted in class each week." expresses the instructor's authority and defines him or her as someone with power over the students instead of someone who shares the power. In addition, the use of the adjective "**compulsory**" and the quantifying adjective "**all**" designates the instructor as the decision-maker regarding the curriculum; it implies that the instructor, not the learners, knows the elements that are crucial for the students' learning. The quantifying adjective with a fixed grading percentage seemed to deny the students any power in the decision-making process.

B. Second Dimension: Text Production and Consumption Analysis

In terms of text production, the verbs used indicate that the syllabuses are constructed using a politically acceptable approach. This reveals the fact that syllabuses may only get official approval if they are written using uncontentious

language. Although teachers may expect the language of syllabuses to be constructed using declarative tones, it may be a potential problem because it may be inconsistent with the diverse needs among learners. Throughout the learning objectives, there is little acknowledgement of the diverse nature of learners' language learning needs. If the consumption (use) of these syllabuses is guided by its language, it may influence the achievement of course objectives.

C. Third Dimension: Ideology Analysis

Given the nature of transitive verbs and the declarative tones in syllabuses, the ideology was taken within the syllabuses as being teachers' power over students. In many parts, the discourses in learning outcomes and grading procedures are framed with students' obedience as the default. Moreover, the Medical Visual Culture syllabus seems to be an extreme example of teaching language in the target culture (English) because the readings and course topics are all related to western culture without any Chinese counterparts. For example, "**the Renaissance period**" and "**Broad Street Pump Outbreak**" are entirely western, whereas Chinese culture in medical visual arts is clearly absent in the syllabus, even though the target students are mostly Chinese speakers and there has been a long history of Chinese medical visual arts (Chen, 2019). In addition, the declarative language used in this syllabus indicates a certainty of teaching contents and schedule; thus, the target students might not have been given the flexibility in deciding learning contents.

The linguistic analysis on a micro-level showed that all three EMP syllabuses were written in a declarative voice with predominantly transitive verbs and in a modality that indicates strong certainty. The ideological analysis on a macro-level reveals an unequal teacher-student power relationship in the EMP class that is textually represented in the discourse of these syllabuses. The reason might be that people tend to write in certain genres (Nagao, 2018). When today's instructors were students, they were taught by their professors using traditional, teacher-centred syllabuses. When they became instructors, the university they are working at would give them a syllabus format for them to follow. As a consequence, the syllabuses they develop may be based on a given convention, producing a situation where instructors are unaware of the message these syllabuses may convey to the readers. According to Fairclough (2001), power relationship could be reinforced with the conventions being frequently repeated and thus undermined the possibility of making changes to the conventions.

Auerbach (2000) argued that teachers are pivotal in fostering a participatory learning community. Many students, including Asian students, instead of being independent thinkers who are aware of the rationale behind their behaviours, tend to be obedient and wait for the teacher's instructions (Zhu & O'Sullivan, 2020). Regardless of whether they are aware of this, the dynamics of power are integral to daily classroom activities. Even when teachers try to enhance the degree of learner participation by using dialogue and negotiation, their attitudes critically influence their classroom decisions. Thus, it is meaningful and important for teachers to become aware of their standpoints. If language instructors acknowledge the power structures embedded in the text and reflect on their own syllabuses to determine the teaching philosophy underlying formal, traditional syllabuses and their choice of words, then they may be able to provide their students with more power, enabling them to become participants in their own learning process, and foster their critical thinking and creativity, all of which are emphasised as essential skills in the Student Handbook of this university (2019).

Since the concept of learner centeredness (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) was developed in foreign language teaching, many scholars (Literat, 2017; Bremner, 2019; Ibrahim, 2019) have critiqued traditional teacher-centred pedagogy, and suggested that ESP courses should be learner-centred and based more directly on learners' language learning needs. Ideally, ESP courses should be designed for learners with homogeneous language learning needs (Blackie, 1979). However, as Cunningsworth (1983) stated almost forty years ago, the needs of learners in a group may differ quite considerably from one to another. In view of this, ESP courses should be designed with a certain flexibility, especially in learning activities and grading procedures. In other words, ESP courses should assist students in overcoming the teacher-student boundary, allowing students to express their opinions freely and become decision-makers in their learning rather than seeing teacher as an authoritative figure.

V. DISCUSSION

The research findings focus on a linguistic analysis of the syllabuses of three English for Medical Purposes (EMP) courses in a Chinese university, with an aim to understand the extent to which the syllabuses reflect learner-centeredness. The linguistic analysis is conducted using three dimensions: linguistic analysis, text production and consumption analysis, and ideology analysis. The linguistic analysis found that the syllabuses were written using a declarative voice with predominantly transitive verbs, indicating strong certainty. The text production and consumption analysis revealed that the language used was politically acceptable and may not acknowledge the diverse nature of learners' language learning needs. The ideology analysis found that the syllabuses represented an unequal power relationship between teachers and students.

The study highlights that the use of declarative language and transitive verbs in syllabuses may create an unequal power relationship between teachers and students, with the former being seen as having the authority and power over the latter. The study argues that this approach is not learner-centred, and may limit students' participation and critical thinking. The study suggests that instructors need to reflect on their teaching philosophy and syllabus design to ensure

they promote learner-centeredness, which fosters critical thinking, creativity, and participation in the learning process.

The study highlights the importance of instructors understanding the power structures embedded in the text and reflect on their own syllabuses to promote learner-centeredness. This approach can enhance students' autonomy, foster their critical thinking and creativity, and make them active participants in their learning process. The study emphasizes that instructors need to be aware of their attitudes, which critically influence their classroom decisions, and promote participatory learning communities. The findings of the study can be useful for instructors, syllabus designers, and educational policymakers who are interested in promoting learner-centeredness in the classroom.

The research discussed here sheds light on the linguistic analysis of the syllabuses of three English for Medical Purposes (EMP) courses in a Chinese university. The aim of this study was to understand the extent to which the syllabuses reflect learner-centeredness. The study used three dimensions, namely linguistic analysis, text production and consumption analysis, and ideology analysis, to examine the syllabuses.

The linguistic analysis found that the syllabuses were written using a declarative voice with predominantly transitive verbs, indicating strong certainty. This approach may create an unequal power relationship between teachers and students, with the former being seen as having the authority and power over the latter. This finding is concerning as it is not learner-centred and may limit students' participation and critical thinking. The text production and consumption analysis revealed that the language used in the syllabuses was politically acceptable and may not acknowledge the diverse nature of learners' language learning needs. This approach is not conducive to promoting learner-centeredness, which fosters critical thinking, creativity, and participation in the learning process. The ideology analysis found that the syllabuses represented an unequal power relationship between teachers and students. This finding reinforces the importance of instructors understanding the power structures embedded in the text and reflect on their own syllabuses to promote learner-centeredness. The study argues that instructors need to reflect on their teaching philosophy and syllabus design to ensure they promote learner-centeredness. This approach can enhance students' autonomy, foster their critical thinking and creativity, and make them active participants in their learning process. Instructors need to be aware of their attitudes, which critically influence their classroom decisions, and promote participatory learning communities.

In summary, the findings of this study have important implications for instructors, syllabus designers, and educational policymakers who are interested in promoting learner-centeredness in the classroom. It is crucial to reflect on syllabus design to ensure that it is inclusive and promotes a participatory learning environment that fosters critical thinking and creativity.

VI. CONCLUSION

In recent years, there has been growing interest in the role of power dynamics in language teaching, with an increasing emphasis on creating more equitable and student-centred learning environments. This study has contributed to this literature by examining the underlying messages of three EMP course syllabuses at the case study university, and revealing an unequal teacher-student power relationship textually represented in the discourse of the EMP syllabuses.

The analysis of the linguistic elements of the syllabuses, including verbs, modality, and quantifying adjectives, has provided a valuable insight into the power dynamics in these courses. The findings suggest that the teachers hold significant power over the students, which contradicts the recommendations of some scholars that ESP teaching should avoid a teacher-centred approach.

The implications of these findings are significant for course evaluation and improvement. By analysing the linguistic elements of the syllabuses, educators can identify and address any imbalances in the power dynamics, and work towards creating a more equitable and student-centred learning environment. This is particularly important in ESP classrooms, where students may already feel marginalized or intimidated by the technical and specialized language used in the curriculum.

Overall, the analysis of EMP course syllabuses has demonstrated the importance of critically examining course materials and their underlying power dynamics in order to create more effective and equitable language teaching environments. By prioritizing the needs and perspectives of students, educators can create an empowering and inclusive learning environment that supports the development of their language skills and knowledge.

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Students' Awareness of Reading Strategies in 'Communicative English Skills' Across Three Ethiopian Universities

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate students' awareness of reading strategies in 'Communicative English Skills' (CES) across three Ethiopian universities. A sample of 600 first year regular students and 72 English language teachers were part of the research population. The sample of students was obtained through a random sampling technique (lottery method) and the teachers were selected using a purposive sampling technique; respectively. A descriptive quantitative research design was used for this study. Thus, the data were collected through questionnaires from students and their English teachers. Quantitative analysis of data was made using frequency and percentage. The result indicated that students of the three Ethiopian universities have very limited awareness of both cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies. This problem emanates from students' limited exposure and poor habit of reading in English, their lack of motivation for reading texts in English and their teachers' instructional problems of teaching reading and reading strategies. The recommendations are that students should maximize their exposure of reading texts in English and comprehensively invest their time and efforts to improve their reading habit. The English teachers should teach students the overall conceptualizations of reading and its strategies when they teach reading. The teachers should also provide students with technical and professional support and motivation to make them be cognizant of reading.

Index Terms—reading, reading strategies, students' awareness, Ethiopian universities, communicative English skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is one of the four basic language skills that a learner of a foreign language should acquire. It is the most important skill that leads a reader to a successful academic career and a productive personal life (Atwell, 2007; Bayless, 2010; Robinson, 2010). Furthermore, Tinto (1993) contends that reading is one of the attributes on which the academic success of a learner depends. This means, an adequate reading ability is needed for a learner to access any written information and make use of it (Pardo, 2004). Every day, students read different texts such as textbooks, reference materials, short notes and other extracurricular materials to gain certain information for the accomplishment of their academic requirements. Thus, it is through reading that students understand different arrays of subjects and then acquire much of their academic knowledge that can be essential to effectively handling any tasks in their academic studies and in their future careers at work (May, 2009). This implies that, for students, reading different materials and developing their comprehension competence is essential.

According to Aragaw (2015, p. 222), "comprehension in reading is conceived as the ultimate goal of reading". He (Ibid) contends that reading comprehension is the process by which one makes meaning from a written text. On the other hand, Broek and Kremer (2000) define comprehension as a process of making a mental representation of textual information and its interpretation, or the extracting of meaning from written words, sentences, and texts. *i.e.,* comprehension is regarded as the ultimate goal of reading. It is a complex and multifaceted process which requires the reader's ability to construct meaning from the text using different reading strategies (Snow, 2002).

Reading strategies are different techniques that a reader uses in all levels and phases of his/her reading to intensify his/her comprehension (Saricoban, 2002; Yenus, 2018; Anderson, 2003; Pressley, 2002a; May, 2009; Jah, 2013a). The strategies are considered cognitive and metacognitive concepts in reading (Karbalaei, 2010). In other words, readers use varieties of reading strategies in the three phases of their reading (pre, while and post-reading) as well as in their reading proficiency levels (early emergent, emergent, early fluency and fluency levels). Various studies have been conducted on different aspects of English reading comprehension in Ethiopian universities. Most of them reported that Ethiopian university students are ineffective in their English reading comprehension abilities (Belilew, 2015, etc.). For instance,

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Belilew (2015) conducted his study on assessing the English reading comprehension ability of second year English major students at Dilla University in 2014/15 using a reading comprehension test and questionnaire as tools. He concluded that the English reading comprehension ability of the students was unsatisfactory. Similarly, Jha (2013a) did a study on overall students' abilities of English language skills including reading at three Ethiopian universities located in the Eastern part of the country (Haramaya, Dire Dawa and Jigjiga universities) and discovered that the reading comprehension ability of the students was ineffective or unsatisfactory. Wondfiraw (2013) studied the effect of infusing intellectual standards of critical thinking on EFL students' critical reading performance at Haramaya University and concluded that the reading comprehension ability of students was unacceptable.

The aforementioned empirical research findings indicated that there is a deficiency in the English reading comprehension ability of Ethiopian university students requiring research in order to identify the major source/s of the problem. The researchers of this study believe that the aforementioned reading comprehension gap of Ethiopian university students might emanate from multifaceted strands of factors such as the implementation of communicative approach of teaching reading, large class size, access and authenticity of reading materials used by the students and students' and teachers' attitudes towards the act of reading. However, the researchers were more interested to investigate students' awareness of reading strategies in 'Communicative English Skills' across three Ethiopian universities. Thus, the aim of this study was to investigate students' awareness of reading strategies in 'Communicative English Skills' across three Ethiopian universities in all three reading phases and early fluency levels.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Reading strategies are mind games through which readers interact with written materials in many ways (Roomy & Alhawsawi, 2019). They are part of learning strategies (Oxford, 1992). Reading strategies have many definitions emphasizing on what readers intentionally do to solve their comprehension hurdles. As to Garner (1987), they are regarded as actions or series of actions implemented in order to draw meaning out of a text. On the other hand, Erler and Finkbeiner (2007) argue that reading strategies are self-directed actions where readers flexibly take control with a certain degree of awareness to retrieve, store, regulate, elaborate and evaluate textual information to achieve reading goals. Similarly, Roomy and Alhawsawi (2019) claim that reading strategies are intentional plans that readers use to help themselves make sense of their reading. They are conceived as deliberate actions that readers take voluntarily to develop an understanding of what they read (Pritchard, 1990a). The strategies are classified under different categories and can be used flexibly to meet the demands of the reading task.

According to Williams and Burden (1997), reading strategies can be cognitive, metacognitive or social by their nature. Cognitive reading strategies are strategies that involve mental processing or they involve the effective and efficient retrieval, storage, and acquisition of information for readers to extract and construct meaning from texts. Metacognitive strategies address readers' knowledge of cognitive resources, awareness of cognitive processing, and the ability to adjust the utilized strategies (Baker & Brown, 1984; Carrell et al., 1998). They are performed by readers to "check the outcome of any attempt to solve a problem, plan one's next move, monitor the effectiveness of any attempted action, and test, revise, and evaluate one's strategies for learning" (Brown, 1994, p. 115). On the other hand, social strategies involve "asking for clarification or verification, cooperating with peers and proficient users of the new language, developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings for the meaning of a reading text" (Oxford, 1990, p. 323).

Readers mostly use the aforementioned three categories of reading strategies to confront their comprehension difficulties (Tercanlıoğlu, 2004; McEwan, 2007). They often consciously resort to different mental techniques to help them identify the sources of their reading confusion and address them accordingly (Alexander & Jetton, 2000). Such sorts of techniques involve reader's mental negotiations of various processes. So, a reader needs to possess both knowledge about the techniques and the ability to apply them effectively in procedural steps (Anderson, 1991), which is one of the notable characteristics that distinguish proficient (good) readers from less proficient (poor) readers.

Good readers always change their reading process in response to the text they are reading (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Through their reading process, they keep connecting skillfully and automatically what they are reading to their previous knowledge and experience. This suggests that when these readers encounter challenges during the reading, they often consciously resort to different mental techniques to help them identify the sources of the confusion and address it accordingly (Roomy & Alhawsawi, 2019). Poor readers on the other hand, often mistakenly believe that they are reading when they are actually engaged in what researchers call mindless reading (Schooler et al., 2004). They are characterized by ineffective reading strategies, insufficient linguistic and background knowledge, unconscious monitoring of comprehension, and inconsistent integration of textual meaning (Wang, 2016).

So, helping students to be aware of and master diverse reading strategies allows them to be proficient and independent readers (Booth & Swartz, 2004). If students (readers) are made to be cognizant of the strategies, they can differentiate the reading strategies that they want to use based on their reading tasks. They can easily handle the pre-reading, in-reading and post-reading strategies that will lead them to attain their targeted goal of reading comprehension. *i.e.*, reading strategies are viewed as roadmaps of comprehension. They are conscious, deliberate and intentional actions that readers use to facilitate their understanding of what they read (Pritchard, 1990a).

III. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

A. Design of the Study

For this study, the researchers used descriptive quantitative research design. Descriptive quantitative research design attempts to describe, explain and interpret conditions of the present (Kothari, 2004; Keith, 2000). Supporting this idea, Babbie (2004) argues that the descriptive quantitative research design specifies who or what is to be studied, when it is to be studied, how it is to be studied and for what purpose it is to be studied. Similarly, Mitchell and Jolley (2007) claim that descriptive quantitative research design helps a researcher to answer questions of who, what, when, where and how. Using this design, the researchers investigated students' awareness of reading strategies in 'Communicative English Skills' across three Ethiopian universities (Arba Minch, Hawassa and Wolaita Sodo Universities).

B. Description of the Research Setting

Wolaita Sodo, Arba Minch and Hawassa are three universities out of the total of fifty two public universities in Ethiopia. Even though these universities are in different geographical settings, they enroll students having similar socio-economic, linguistic and cultural backgrounds; from all corners of Ethiopian Nations and Nationalities (all inclusive in each university). Thus, the student communities of the universities have similarities in their overall backgrounds. All of the aforementioned universities have many colleges and schools training students in multi-disciplinary areas. For instance, Wolaita Sodo University (the youngest among the three) has seven colleges and four schools with 54 departments in total. The first year students of all the departments across the three universities take the course 'Communicative English Skills' as an academic requirement in the first semester of their studies.

C. Population of the Study

The major population of this study was an average of 9, 000 first year regular students who were taking the course 'Communicative English Skills' and 120 English language teachers who were offering the course in the three Ethiopian universities (Arba Minch, Hawassa and Wolaita Sodo Universities) under study.

D. Sampling Technique

For this study, the researchers used simple random sampling technique (lottery method) to come up with the representative and relevant sample (Ruane, 2005; Corbetta, 2003) of first year students of three selected Ethiopian universities. Simple random sampling is a sampling technique which gives each subject or unit of the population equal chance of being selected (Taye, 2005). By this sampling technique, 600 students from the three selected Ethiopian Universities (200 students from each university) were selected for collecting data through questionnaires. For this, the researchers used a lottery method which is one of the two methods of random selection for simple random sampling. As a procedure, the researchers went to each of the universities in the sample, got names of students in each department taking 'Communicative English Skills' as a course, listed them on slips of paper having the same size, shape and color. Then, they folded and mixed up slips of papers in a container. The required numbers of slips were selected at random for the desired sample size.

After having questionnaire data collected from sample of students, the researchers drew the sample of English language teachers offering the course 'Communicative English Skills' by using purposive sampling technique. By using this sampling technique, the researchers selected 72 teachers (24 from each university who were offering the course 'Communicative English Skills' for the classrooms where the sample students were selected) for filling the questionnaires. These teachers were included in the sample by using the purposive criterion that they were offering the course 'Communicative English Skills' to sections of students included as participants of the study. Purposive sampling is a sampling technique that includes subjects selected based on the specific characteristics or qualities and eliminates those who fail to meet these criteria (Taye, 2005).

E. Tools of Data Collection

In order to achieve the intended research objectives by gathering valid, relevant and reliable information from the pertinent sample of the target population, the researchers used students' and teachers' questionnaires. They used questionnaires for both students and teachers with the rationale that this study is purely quantitative. Using the questionnaires, the researchers conducted survey of students' awareness of reading strategies used in 'Communicative English Skills'.

F. Data Analysis

In this study, purely quantitative data analysis was used. The items of both students' and teachers' questionnaires were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counting and percentage (Porte, 2002). Using the analysis, the researchers examined the students' awareness of reading strategies in 'Communicative English Skills' at the three Ethiopian universities.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

Our results are presented in two thematically categorized sub-headings. The first sub-heading deals with students' awareness of reading strategies in terms of whether they control or maintain the distraction of their reading using different techniques and the second is about students' awareness of reading strategies in terms of whether they understand the multifaceted conceptualizations of reading strategies.

(a). Students' Awareness of Reading Strategies in Terms of Whether They Maintain Focus During Their Reading by Using Different Techniques

There are several strategies that readers use to refocus their attention while reading academic texts. To evaluate these strategies, students and teachers were asked five thematically related survey questions. The summary of their responses are portrayed in Tables 1 and 2 and the analysis of the data is presented below each table.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF DIFFERENT READING STRATEGIES TO MAINTAIN FOCUS

No	Item	SDA	DA	UD	AG	SAG
		f	f	f	f	f
		%	%	%	%	%
1	I focus only on the text while reading.	46	172	42	156	164
		8	30	7	27	28
2	I reread the text when I lose focus.	83	43	38	220	196
		14	7	7	38	34
3	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration during reading.	60	71	20	246	183
		10	12	3	42	32
4	I try to reduce my reading speed when I lose my reading focus.	42	68	18	232	220
		7	12	3	40	38
5	I guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases when I lose the focus of my reading.	149	332	30	40	15
		26	57	5	7	3

SDA = Strongly disagree, DA = Disagree, UD = Undecided, AG = Agree, SAG= Strongly agree
f = Frequency, % = Percentage.
The percentage of each value in the above table is rounded off to the nearest whole number.

As can be seen in the above table (Table 1), students responded to five survey questions all having the central theme of whether they maintain focus/attention while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'. Their responses clearly portrayed that a majority of them were using the techniques of maintaining focus/attention while reading. For the first item that asks whether students focus only on the text while reading, 55% responded agree (27% agree and 28% strongly agree respectively) that they focus only on the text while they are reading. 38% responded the reverse (30% disagree and 8% strongly disagree respectively). The remaining 7% of students responded with undecided. In this case it seems that the majority of students do not totally lose focus/attention while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'.

However, in item number 2 of Table 1, 72% of students responded that they reread the text when they lose focus. This undoubtedly indicates that the majority of students practically lose focus/attention while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills', even though 21% of students responded the reverse or disagree (14% responded strongly disagree and 7% responded disagree to the question) and the remaining 7% responded undecided.

As reflected throughout Table 1, students lose focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills' but 74% try to get back on track when they lose concentration during reading. Getting back to track while reading indirectly implies that the students lose their focus during reading texts and try to refocus their attention.

In a similar manner, 78% of students responded strongly agree (40% agree and 38% strongly agree) that they try to reduce their reading speed as a technique to maintain their reading focus. This implies that the students adjust their reading speed when they encounter a lack of focus in their reading. From the remaining students, 22%, strongly disagreed and 19% responded disagree, but only 3% responded undecided. This shows that some students do not adjust their reading speed even when they lack focus in their reading.

Students were asked whether they guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases when they lose their focus when reading texts in the course 'Communicative English Skills'. Surprisingly, 83% of students responded disagree that they guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases when they lose their focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'. Only 10% of the students agree or strongly agreed that they guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases when they lose focus as a technique of maintaining their reading focus. The remaining 5% responded undecided.

Figure 1 clearly indicates the overall picture of the students' practical usage of different techniques of maintaining focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills' at the three Ethiopian universities.
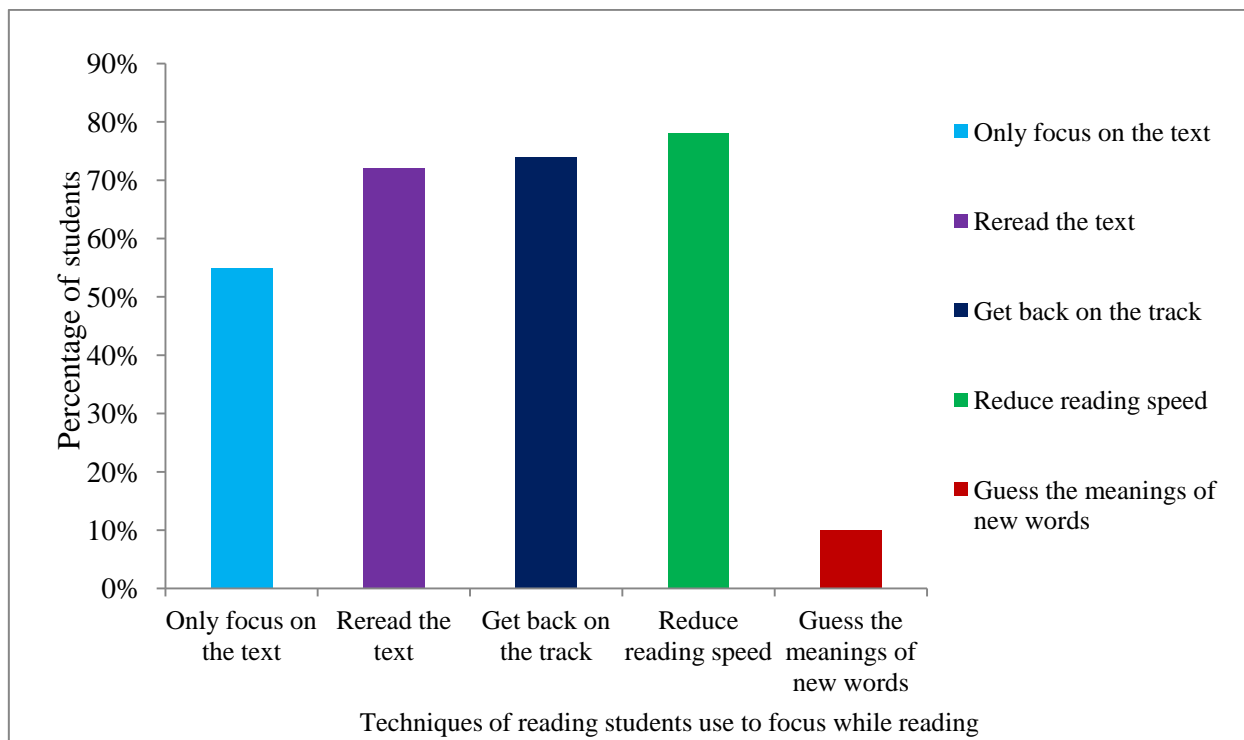
Figure 1. Techniques Students Use for Maintaining Focus While Reading Texts in 'Communicative English Skills'

Teachers were also asked the same survey questions as the students to help us triangulate the data. The summary of their responses is indicated in Table 2 and the analysis is presented under it.

TABLE 2
TEACHERS' RESPONSES ON THE TECHNIQUES THEIR STUDENTS USE TO MAINTAIN READING FOCUS WHILE READING TEXTS IN 'COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH SKILLS'

No	Item	SDA	DA	UD	AG	SAG
		f	f	f	f	f
		%	%	%	%	%
1	My students focus only on the text while reading.	13	52	4	2	1
		18	72	6	3	1
2	My students reread the text when they lose focus.	0	2	2	58	10
		0	3	3	81	14
3	My students try to get back on track when they lose concentration during their reading.	2	10	0	46	14
		3	14	0	64	19
4	My students try to reduce their reading speed when they lose their reading focus.	14	53	1	2	1
		19	74	1	3	1
5	My students guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases when they lose their focus in reading.	16	50	0	4	2
		22	69	0	6	3

*SDA = Strongly disagree, DA = Disagree, UD = Undecided, AG = Agree, SAG= Strongly agree
f = Frequency, % = Percentage.
*The percentage of each value in the above table is rounded off to the nearest whole number.

Teachers clearly indicated how their students try to maintain focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'. Among all of the teachers, 90% (see item 1, Table 2 above) responded that their students do not focus solely on the reading text while they are reading. In other words, this implies that the majority of students lose focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'.

One of the techniques that the students are expected to use to maintain their focus is rereading the text when they lose focus. In line with this, 95% of teachers agree (81% agree and 14% strongly agree) that their students reread the text when they lose focus. Only 3% of the teachers indicated their disagreement and the remaining 3% responded undecided.

Similarly, 83% of the teachers agree (64% agree and 19% strongly agree) that their students try to get back on track when they lose focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'. 17% disagree (14% disagree and 3% strongly disagree) with the statement. No teacher responded undecided for this statement.

However, for the students' practical use of the other two techniques; namely reducing speed and guessing meanings of unfamiliar/new words while reading, the majority of the teachers disagreed (74% disagree and 19% strongly disagree) that their students try to reduce their reading speed when they lose focus while reading. On the other hand, 91% of the teachers disagree (69% disagree and 22% strongly disagree) that their students guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases when they lose focus while reading texts in the aforementioned course. In both cases (in items 4 and 5, see Table 2), an insignificant number of teachers agree and are undecided as well.

(b). Students' Awareness of Reading Strategies in Terms of Understanding the Strategies' Multifaceted Conceptualizations

In this section, students and teachers were asked different items of survey questions to know whether the students had an awareness of multidimensional conceptualizations of reading strategies. The summary of their survey responses are presented in Tables 3 and 4 and the analysis of data in each table is presented below it.

TABLE 3
STUDENT RESPONSES ON THEIR AWARENESS OF READING STRATEGIES IN TERMS OF UNDERSTANDING THE MULTIFACETED CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF READING STRATEGIES

No	Item	SDA	DA	UD	AG	SAG
	Reading strategies are:	f	f	f	f	f
		%	%	%	%	%
1	language processing strategies.	36	52	45	304	143
		6	9	8	52	25
2	conscious plans.	276	219	16	28	41
		48	38	3	5	7
3	tactics for attacking a comprehension problem.	285	90	49	31	165
		49	16	9	5	29
4	mental operations involved in reading.	301	161	63	26	29
		52	28	11	4	5
5	cognitive abilities of a reader.	300	176	50	32	22
		52	30	9	6	4
6	techniques of reading.	92	29	34	370	55
		16	5	6	64	10
7	ways of repairing comprehension breakdown.	198	245	59	58	20
		34	42	10	10	3
8	components of a thinking game in reading.	312	178	28	16	46
		54	31	5	3	8

*SDA = Strongly disagree, DA = Disagree, UD = Undecided, AG = Agree, SAG= Strongly agree
   f = Frequency, % = Percentage.
*The percentage of each value in the above table is rounded off to the nearest whole number

As clearly portrayed in Table 3, students provided responses to eight items conceptualizing reading strategies. Among these eight items, the majority of students provided their agreement to two items namely items number 1 and 6. In item number 1 of Table 3, 52% of students agree and 25% strongly agree that they think reading strategies are conceptualized as language processing strategies. Similarly, in item number 6, 64% agree and 10% strongly agree that they think reading strategies are considered as techniques of reading.

However, for all other items (2,3,4,5,7 and 8) students disagreed regarding the different facets of conceptualizations of reading strategies, such as reading strategies as tactics for attacking a comprehension problem, mental operations involved in reading, cognitive abilities of a reader, ways of repairing comprehension breakdown, and components of a thinking game in reading, the majority of students disagreed.

For instance, 86% of students disagreed that reading strategies are defined as conscious plans, 65% disagreed that they are tactics for attacking a comprehension problem. In a similar vein, 80% disagreed that reading strategies are mental operations involved in reading and 82% disagreed that they are cognitive abilities of a reader. Furthermore, 76% of students disagreed that reading strategies are the ways of repairing comprehension breakdown and 85% of students disagreed that they are components of a thinking game in reading.

Figure 2 clearly demonstrates the students' awareness of the multifaceted conceptualizations of reading strategies.
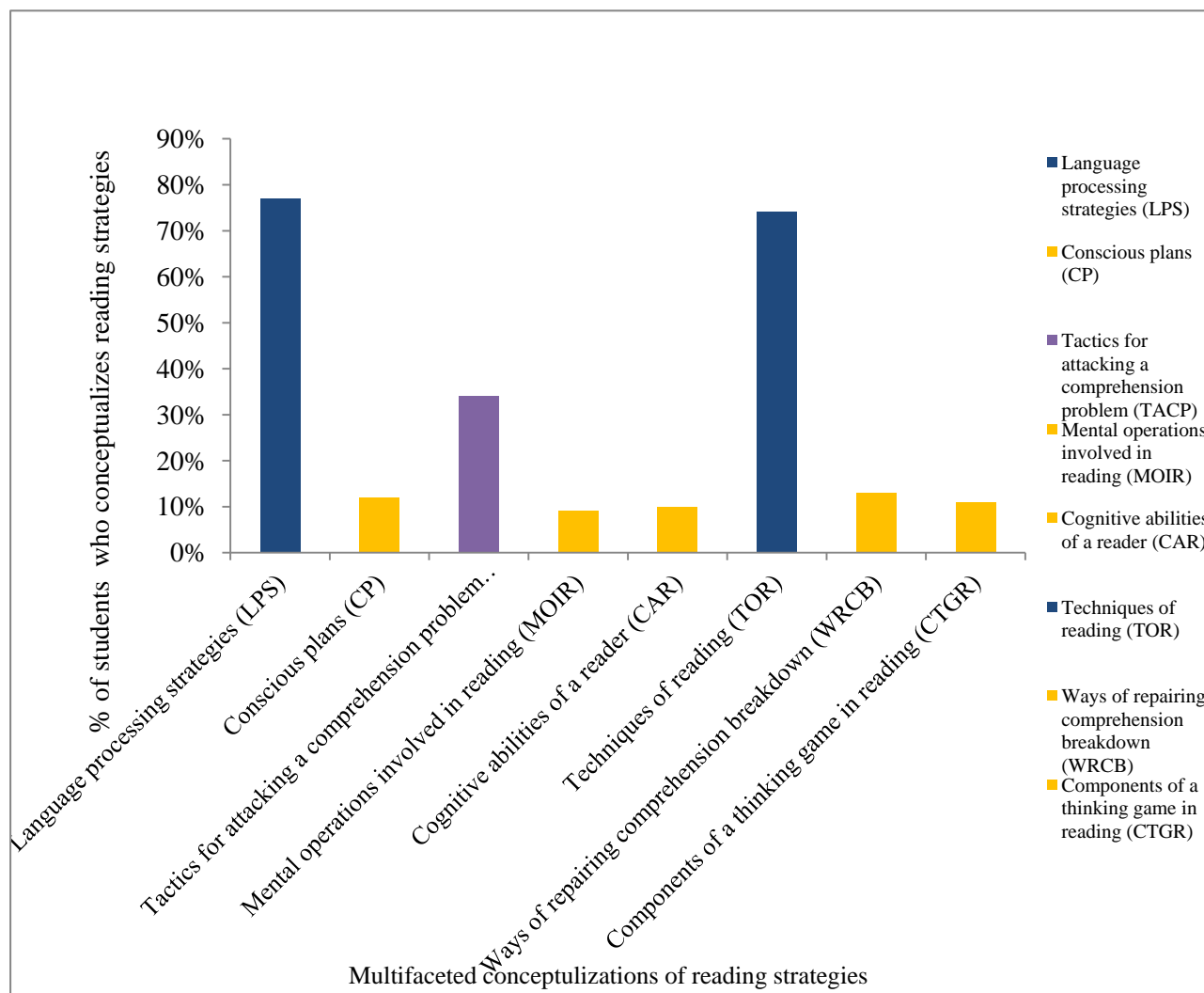
Figure 2. Students' Awareness of Multifaceted Conceptualizations of Reading Strategies

On the other hand, teachers were also asked similar survey items to know whether their students have adequate awareness of how reading strategies are conceptualized. Their responses are presented in Table 4 and the analysis is indicated below the table.

TABLE 4
TEACHERS' RESPONSES ON THEIR STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF READING STRATEGIES IN TERMS OF UNDERSTANDING THE MULTIFACETED CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF READING STRATEGIES

No	Item	SDA	DA	UD	AG	SAG
	My students know reading strategies as:	f	f	f	f	f
		%	%	%	%	%
1	language processing strategies.	9	55	3	2	3
		13	76	4	3	4
2	conscious plans.	16	48	0	5	3
		22	67	0	7	4
3	tactics for attacking comprehension problems.	13	52	2	1	4
		18	72	3	1	6
4	mental operations involved in reading.	8	58	0	4	2
		11	81	0	6	3
5	cognitive abilities of a reader.	12	48	3	5	4
		17	67	4	7	6
6	techniques of reading.	3	3	0	56	10
		4	4	0	78	14
7	ways of repairing comprehension breakdown.	18	46	4	2	2
		25	64	6	3	3
8	components of a thinking game in reading.	12	50	5	4	3
		17	69	7	6	4

The majority of teachers provided their disagreement that their students have awareness of the different facets of conceptualizations of reading strategies. For instance, 89% of teachers disagree that their students define reading

strategies as language processing strategies, 89% of teachers disagree that their students define reading strategies as conscious plans. Similarly, in item number 3, 90% of teachers disagree that their students define reading strategies as tactics for attacking comprehension problems and in item 4, 92% of teachers disagree that their students define reading strategies as mental operations involved in reading. Furthermore, in item number 5, 84% of teachers disagree that their students conceptualize reading strategies as cognitive abilities of a reader and in item 7, 89% of teachers disagree that their students conceptualize reading strategies as ways of repairing comprehension breakdown and in item 8, 86% of teachers disagree that their students conceptualize reading strategies as components of a thinking game in reading.

However, only in item number 6, 92% of teachers responded that their students define reading strategies as techniques of reading which is in accordance with students' responses in table 3 above. This implies that students have a very limited understanding of how reading strategies are conceptualized.

B. Discussion of the Findings

In this section, the discussions of results identified in the previous two sections are presented. The discussion comprises two sub-headings. The first sub-heading focuses on whether the students have awareness of controlling or maintaining the distraction of their reading by using different techniques and the second one is on whether the students understand the multifaceted conceptualizations of reading strategies.

(a). Students' Awareness of Reading Strategies in Terms of Whether They Maintain Focus During Their Reading by Using Different Techniques

Focus in reading is one of the essential techniques that facilitate comprehension. It is a reader's ability to concentrate on or provide attention to his/her reading task (Wager et al., 2004; Sarter et al., 2001). Distractions or lack of focus in reading is controlled or maintained by using different strategies. Among these strategies, focusing only on the text while reading, rereading the text, getting back on track when the focus is lost, reducing reading speed, and guessing the meanings of unknown words or phrases are worth mentioning. The quantitative data analysis was made in the previous sections to see whether the students use these techniques to preserve their focus or not.

The results clearly indicated that the students lost their attention while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills' (55% of students and 90% of teachers affirmed this fact). The teachers reported different reasons as to why the students lost their focus while reading. One of the reasons was that the students had a lack of motivation for reading texts in English. The students also had very low motivation for reading texts in English, particularly in the course 'Communicative English Skills'. Secondly, students had a poor habit of reading; therefore, they were characterized by their poor experiences of reading texts in English. Thirdly, the students had a deficiency in reading competency especially in comprehending reading texts for the course 'Communicative English Skills'.

As clearly indicated by the results of the quantitative data analyses, students had a problem with rereading texts when they lost focus even though 72% of students and 95% of teachers reported that the students tried to reread the texts when they lost focus. However, they did not reread correctly, *i.e.*, they frequently tried to reread (repeat) the whole text from beginning to the end. They did not conduct rereading properly as it requires the repeating of certain essential sections (paragraphs) of a text (Garner & Reis, 1981). Rather, they immediately turned back to the beginning of the text and reread it from beginning to end.

The results showed that the students got back on track when they lost concentration while reading in the course 'Communicative English Skills' (74% students and 83% of teachers verified this fact). However, the students did not know how to get back on track and concentrate when losing their focus while reading. The students perceived their non-technical and continuous repetition as getting back on track or concentration which is not considered as getting back on track to conserve focus. This implies that the students had a misunderstanding of the concept of focus; hence they did not implement it properly. Getting back on track when focus is lost while reading does not involve rereading of the whole text; rather it involves the reading of some selected sections of a text using certain procedural steps.

It was also found that the students did not have satisfactory understanding of the relationship between reading comprehension and reading speed. The students' experience was to read English texts very slowly (78% of students supported this argument). They do not do this intentionally (as a technique of controlling their reading speed); rather they do it because they have a lack of quick reading habits in English. The students' problem of managing reading speed is due to their inherent unfamiliarity of a large number of English words and phrases that distract their reading comprehension when they read texts in 'communicative English Skills'. The students are discernibly characterized by their poor familiarity of a large number of English words, but being familiar to large number of words in English has a facilitative effect on reading comprehension (Alderson, 2000; Stanovich, 1991). So, they are expected to mitigate this problem by using different techniques like guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words.

However, as 83% of students and 91% of teachers reported, the students do not properly use the techniques of guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words or phrases which is contrary to a lot of reading lessons that require students to guess the meanings of unknown words or phrases in the course 'Communicative English Skills'.

Overall, one can conclude that the students had a lack of awareness in reading strategies in the perspective of controlling or maintaining their focus when they lost focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'. Focus in reading requires effective use of different reading techniques, as stated above. The students had a very limited understanding of techniques such as only focusing on the text while reading, rereading the text when they lose focus,

getting back on track when they lose concentration, reducing reading speed to focus and guessing the meanings of unknown words.

(b). Students' Awareness of Reading Strategies in Terms of Understanding the Strategies' Multifaceted Conceptualizations

As cognitive and metacognitive processes, reading strategies have a plethora of conceptualizations. For instance, Cohen (1986) defines them as mental processes chosen by the reader consciously in order to achieve certain reading goals. Block (1986) perceives them as a set of methods and techniques used by readers to achieve success in reading. On the other hand, McNamara (2007); Saricoban (2002) and Yenus (2018) conceptualize them as the different actions that readers use under the purpose of achieving comprehension in reading.

As analyses of quantitative data indicated, the students of the three universities have very limited understanding of reading strategies. They merely think that the concept of reading strategies is only confined to the idea of language processing strategies (as 77% of students reported) or techniques of reading (as 74% of students reported). 92% of teachers verified this fact. This implies that the students had no satisfactory understanding on the technical aspects of conceptualizing reading strategies such as reading strategies as 'conscious plans', 'tactics for attacking comprehension problems', ways of 'repairing comprehension breakdown' and 'components of a thinking game in reading'.

One of the major barriers in students' learning of reading strategies is that students have been exposed to teachers' who have varying levels of English. Ethiopian teachers are teaching English at different education levels and are not properly trained to teach reading strategies successfully. The curricula used for their training at different levels of education comprise of the macro skills of English language (reading, writing, speaking and listening). However, such curricula do not give adequate emphasis to reading strategies which has a clear impact on the students' understanding of reading strategies.

Another source of students' limited understanding of reading strategies is limited exposure to using reference materials (Sanford, 2015). As clearly indicated in the results section, the students do not refer to relevant reference materials, which are available in their university libraries. 'Communicative English Skills' comprises a very large number of lessons and tasks in reading skills; therefore, the students are expected to use varieties of reading strategies to solve their comprehension difficulties.

In general, we conclude that students have very shallow or limited understanding of the multifaceted conceptualizations of reading strategies (77% of students and 92% of teachers reported this fact). The students perceive reading strategies as simply language processing strategies or techniques of reading. However, as cognitive and metacognitive processes, reading strategies are beyond such conceptualizations. They rather comprise multi-layered aspects of reader's cognition of planning, monitoring and evaluating the overall process of reading in three different phases: before, during and after reading (Ozek & Civelek, 2006; May, 2009; Booth & Swartz, 2004).

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusions

The findings of the study suggest that students of the three Ethiopian universities have very limited awareness of reading and its strategies. The students have a lack of awareness in reading strategies in the perspective of controlling or maintaining their focus while reading texts in 'Communicative English Skills'. The students also have very limited understanding of techniques like rereading the text, getting back on track when reading, reducing their reading speed and guessing the meanings of unknown words.

In general, we conclude that the students have very shallow or limited understanding of the multifaceted conceptualizations of reading strategies. They perceive reading strategies simply as language processing strategies or the techniques of reading. However, according to Pritchard (1990a) and Ozek and Civelek (2006), reading strategies are conceived as cognitive and metacognitive processes that comprise multi-layered aspects of reader's cognition of planning, monitoring and evaluating his/her overall process of reading in three different phases: before, during and after reading with intention to facilitate comprehension.

B. Recommendations

Based on the conclusions made above, the following recommendations have been forwarded.
  ➢ Students should maximize their exposure of reading texts in English
  ➢ They should exhaustively invest their time and efforts to improve reading habits.
  ➢ Students should also invest their overall academic efforts to improve their focus/attention while reading texts in English.
  ➢ Students should improve their reading speed and make use of the technical aspects of conceptualizing reading strategies.
  ➢ English teachers should teach their students the overall conceptualizations of reading and its strategies when they teach reading.
  ➢ The teachers should also provide their students with technical and professional support and motivation to help them to be cognizant of reading in general and its strategies in particular.

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Noises and Colors: Two Untraditional Methods of Teaching ESL/ EFL Pronunciation

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Abstract—This article is based on a professional development session or presentation that the author gave in a regional TESOL affiliate conference, and it discusses the importance of teaching, why ESL/ EFL teachers should teach pronunciation, the reasons they generally give for avoiding it and how we can integrate it into our curriculum. The author sheds light on SLA, Second Language Acquisition, research especially studies that are related to connectionism or the noticeability hypothesis and their connection to teaching and practicing pronunciation in the ESL/EFL classroom. The article focuses on not only teaching segmental aspects of English pronunciation such as vowel phonemes but underscores suprasegmental features such as thought groups/chunking and word/phrase stress because they shape rhythm in English, which is key to intelligibility. The author also suggests using two effective and tested techniques in teaching pronunciation to a variety of ESL/EFL learners and provides samples of classroom activities that could be easily implemented in teaching pronunciation together with vocabulary. The article concludes with reviewing some studies conducted quite recently about one of these two suggested approaches to see how effective this approach is.

Index Terms—articulatory phonetics, word/phrase stress, thought group, rhythm, tonic syllable, Color Vowel Chart

I. INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation matters. What a short sentence to start with although a lot of linguistic curricula and materials contain few and sometimes no activities targeting pronunciation. Language is basically a medium of communication, and effective communication requires clarity. Listener-friendly and intelligible pronunciation is key to clarity, fluency, and better communication. ELT professionals need to realize the importance of teaching pronunciation whether explicitly or implicitly. There are several sound reasons why it is sound to teach English sounds; the first section of this article discusses some of these reasons before giving details about the two suggested approaches to teaching pronunciation to learners with certain preferable learning styles and to special groups of learners. The article is based on a presentation given by Gabriel (2021) about relevant pronunciation teaching tips.

II. HOW SOUND IS IT TO TEACH ENGLISH SOUNDS?

Teaching pronunciation counts. Another short statement that research studies support to a good extent especially when it comes to introducing, practicing, and substantiating suprasegmental features of pronunciation. O'Brien (2004) confirms through a longitudinal study the efficacy of teaching vowel-controlled suprasegmental pronunciation features such as intonation, rhythm, chunking, stress and connected speech. Another study conducted by Kissling (2013) underscores the pedagogical gains obtained through explicit teaching of pronunciation features of foreign languages. Explicit teaching of pronunciation might evoke objections as it could entail using metalanguage and linguistic jargon that could put off non-native learners of the language; therefore, some ELT practitioners might argue that teaching pronunciation is an optimal practice with advanced/proficient EFL/ESL learners. As a counterargument here, explicit teaching of pronunciation does not necessarily involve using terminology or lexicon that is esoteric to phonologists and linguists. The choice of instructional strategies is based basically on teachers' and students' beliefs and preferences, and some studies showed that students prefer grammar-based teaching methods (Brown, 2009). Since learner-centered approaches are effective and learners themselves prefer learning explicitly, it is beneficial to introduce and practice pronunciation features. As for delaying teaching pronunciation, proponents of the critical period hypothesis promulgate it is more efficient to introduce it earlier as proved by studies including massive sampling amounting to millions (Hakuta et al., 2003). Therefore, target-like, fluent, and comprehensible pronunciation skills are difficult to acquire and master by late second-language learners.

A. Learning/ Teaching Pronunciation and Communicative Competence

The first strong and plausible reason for teaching pronunciation is boosting communicative competence among target language learners and avoiding breakdown of communication that could emanate from mispronunciations. Inaccuracies in pronunciation are sometimes due to the negative transfer impact of the mother tongue (Allard et al., 2011) especially when the first language does not have certain phonemes or phonological features that are typical of the target second language. For instance, Arabic includes only one voiced realization of bilabial plosives/stops, which is /b/; as a result,

occurrences of voiceless /p/ are frequently mispronounced (Al-Ani, 1970). Sometimes the context clarifies what is meant or intended and communication might not be severely impacted, but this is not always the case.

There are many instances when this specific error could result in weirdly hilarious misunderstanding (Barros, 2003). Below are examples of what could happen as a result mispronouncing /p/:

- He swallowed the **bills** (*instead of "pills"*).
- His uncle runs a **big** farm (*instead of "His uncle runs a **pig** farm*).
- It was his foolish **bride** that made him lose the **cub** (*instead of "It was his foolish **pride** that made him lose the **cup**"*).

Arabic learners of English sometimes replace /θ/ and /ð/ with /s/ and /z/ respectively, which could cause some trouble in pronouncing words such as "*think, thin, breathe* and *clothing*". Speakers of Romance languages such as Italian and French sometimes have trouble pronouncing long vowels and tend to shorten them (Flege & MacKay, 2004). Here is an example of replacing "fate" with "feet" because of confusing long vowels: "*The queen had no desire to share the **feet** of her dead husband*". These examples reflect how communication could be influenced; therefore, teaching pronunciation is important to develop communicative competence.

B. Ortho-Phonological Unpredictability

The second pressing reason for teaching pronunciation is the nature of English orthography/spelling and its notoriously unpredictable irregularity or inconsistency with its spoken counterpart: pronunciation (Schane, 1970). Unlike several languages, there is no one-to-one correspondence between the English alphabet and different sounds or phonemes (Kenworthy, 1987). No matter what rules ELT professionals may establish, there are always numerous exceptions to these rules. The only rule is that inconsistency rules. This inconsistency or ortho-phonological unpredictability is manifested in many ways as shown below:

(a). One sound but variable orthographies
- The long vowel /ɪː/ as in: He, believe, Caesar, sees, seize, seas, people, amoeba, key, machine, scene, ...etc.
- The short vowel /e/ as in: Dress, friend, bread, any, many, said, ...etc.

(b). One orthography but different pronunciations
- **A**ll, **a**pple, f**a**ther, w**a**nt, gr**a**y, bl**a**ck, must**a**rd, b**a**d, **a**ny, **a**bout, **a**ge, ...etc.
- W**o**rk, w**o**men, w**o**man, **o**f, s**o**, t**o**, ...etc.

(c). One sound but two letters
- **Sh**oot, **ch**oke, **ph**one, pl**ai**n, lo**ck**, b**oo**k, b**oa**st, a**pp**le, spe**ci**al, …etc.

(d). One letter but two sounds
- Schi**z**ophrenia, E**x**it, bo**x**, …etc.

(e). Letters standing for no sounds
- Cor**ps**, **m**nemonic, **k**now, dou**b**t, indi**c**t, i**s**le, bou**gh**, **p**terodactyl, **p**sychology, … etc.

This weird and irregular link between English spelling and pronunciation inspired language-loving poets to write poems that vividly point out difficulties ESL/EFL learners could experience when they learn pronunciation based on written texts. "The Chaos" is a seminal example that epitomizes samples of the challenges faced by nonnative learners of English (Upward, 1994). Another shorter poem, taken from a letter by Bland and published in the London Sunday in 1965 and cited by several well-known linguists such as Chomsky, shows the intricacies of English spelling patterns and their unpredictable pronunciations (Shipley, 2013). Below are the first four lines of this untitled poem:

"I take it you already know
Of tough and bough and cough and dough?
Others may stumble but not you
On hiccough, thorough, slough and through" (Shipley, 2013).

The writer of this article himself was inspired by the same phenomenon after reading the intriguing short story "The Story of an Hour" (Chopin, 2001) and came up with the poem below that describes the last minute in an English teacher's life. The ELT teacher peculiarly suffered from English spelling; here is the poem:

"The Story of A minute"
A terrible pain in the **head**,
My face went dreadfully **red**.
It almost smoked,
And I nearly choked.

Spelling drove me **insane**,
And I couldn't stand the **pain**.
I called the doctor but answered the **nurse**,
Who was writing some English **verse**,
Which made my case even **worse**.

I was **dizzy**,
And the doctor was **busy**.

What a **shame**!
She asked why I called, what is my **aim**?
And wanted me to **spell** my **name**!!!
Spelling: I said "**No!**"
She thought I did not **know**!
That made my head **blow**
I fell off the bed**side**
Open-**eyed**,
With little **pride**,
With no **guide**
I barely **tried**…
And eventually committed **suicide**!

It is very clear teaching ESL/EFL pronunciation is crucial because of this inconsistent, irregular, and weird connection between spelling and pronunciation.

C. Teaching Pronunciation and the Noticeability Hypothesis

Research-based theories support the practice of explicit teaching of pronunciation, which is augmented by Schmidt's noticing hypothesis. It is assumed that when learners' attention to specific areas in the target language, including pronunciation, is drawn and increased, their acquisition and retention of the target language is improved (Godfroid et al., 2013). There are predicable pronunciation challenges in the target language based on the nature of the learners' first language. Each language learner has already internalized and integrated a phonemic inventory in the brain; this inventory influences how learners perceive and intake the target language phonemic inventory. Common grounds between both inventories cause positive transfer; however, phonetic features of the target language that do not exist in the learners' L1 phonemic inventory pose challenges. It is when they notice and practice these areas of challenge that they can overcome them and communicate intelligibly and effectively (Derwing et al., 2009). There is evidence in research studies that direct instruction of ESL/EFL pronunciation in the classroom and explaining the difference in pronunciation between L1 and L2 improve pronunciation and language learning (Counselman, 2015).

D. Validity Says "Teach Pronunciation"

Validity is one of the basic assessment principles in ESL/EFL, linguistics and actually all disciplines. It simply means that if teachers test something, they must teach it to their learners or test takers (Hogan, 2007). Language proficiency is measured by using standardized high-stake tests such as TOEFL, IELTS, and other tests. These tests include sections that test all language skills including pronunciation which appears clearly in their rubrics and rating scales. The point is simple then: if you test pronunciation to measure language proficiency, you then have to teach it in order to abide by the principle of validity.

E. Why Teachers Avoid Teaching Pronunciation

It is evident now why ESL/EFL pronunciation should be given the same priority that other language skills such as grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening, and speaking take. Despite that, quite a good number of ESL/EFL teachers feel less confident and avoid teaching pronunciation systematically or in a planned manner (Macdonald, 2002). Some argue that it is due to lack of proper materials and the scarcity of pronunciation activities in the ESL/EFL curricula. Others might argue that pronunciation is not given full attention to promote social judice, advocate equity, combat discrimination against nonnatives, resist the native-factor or native-speakerism and imperialism of BANA countries (Nair et al., 2006). Seeking to become native-like could be very discouraging for both language learners and teachers. It is good to consider translanguaging or accent addition instead of the commercially notorious accent reduction. When teaching pronunciation targets comprehensibility and not mimicking certain accents, it becomes doable (Medgyes, 2017). Teachers also need to prioritize and teach key pronunciation features that influence comprehension. As mentioned earlier, suprasegmental features such as intonation and stress are key to comprehension and communication and the concept of thought groups is at the core here (Murphy, 2020).

III. THOUGHT GROUPS AND THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING VOWELS

When speakers or users of English communicate orally, they usually pause at certain intervals after each utterance or after each meaningful and relatively short string of words. This string of words is known as a *thought group* (Levis & Grant, 2003) that consists of a number of syllables with one prominent syllable. Phoneticians sometimes call the *thought group* a *tone-unit* and label the stressed or prominent syllable in it as the *tonic syllable* (Roach, 2009). If the tonic syllable changes, the pause we make at the end of each thought group changes as well and so does the meaning. In writing, punctuation helps readers know where to pause. To further clarify this, look at the pairs of examples below where each thought group is underlined separately, and the stressed tonic syllable is in bold. More details and comments are provided in parentheses to emphasize the importance of making the right pause at the right time after deciding which syllable or syllables to stress.

A. Examples of Thought Groups

- <u>Let's **eat**, **mom**</u>. (2 thought groups. Meaning: A child or children calling their mom to eat with them.)
  - o <u>Let's eat **mom.**</u> (1 thought group. Meaning: A cannibalistic child talking to other children and inviting them to eat their mother together.)
- <u>Rachel Ray finds inspiration in **cook**ing, her **fam**ily and her **dog**</u>. (3 thought groups. Meaning: Ray likes 3 things: cooking, her family, and her dog.)
  - o <u>Rachel Ray finds inspiration in **cook**ing her family and her dog.</u> (1 thought group. Meaning: Cannibalistic and animal-eating Ray likes cooking her family and cooking her dog too.)
- <u>A woman without her **man** is **no**thing.</u> (2 thought groups. Meaning: Man is very important for women.)
  - o <u>A **wo**man: without **her**, man is **no**thing. </u> (3 thought groups. Meaning: Man has no value when women leave him.)

This means that making the right pause counts: *"A pause in the wrong place, an intonation misunderstood, and a whole conversation went awry"* (Forster, 2020, Chapter XXXI). This shows very clearly that intonation, stress and grouping thoughts, all of which are controlled by vowel peaks in stressed syllables, are extremely important. To decide on what can be prioritized when it comes to teaching pronunciation, we should briefly analyze one thought group.

B. Thought Groups as Pyramids

Thought groups can be compared to pyramids with stressed syllables as the peaks of these pyramids (Gilbert, 2008). Each thought group has a focus word, which is usually a content word [*noun, verb, adjective* or *adverb*] uttered near the end of the though group. For example, the disyllabic noun "*sushi*" is the focus content word in the thought group *"How do you cook sushi?"*. If the focus word is monosyllabic such as *"rice"* in *"How do you cook rice?"*, it is also the stressed syllable. The stressed syllable in "sushi" is the first syllable and the peak vowel is /u:/, which is illustrated in the figure below:
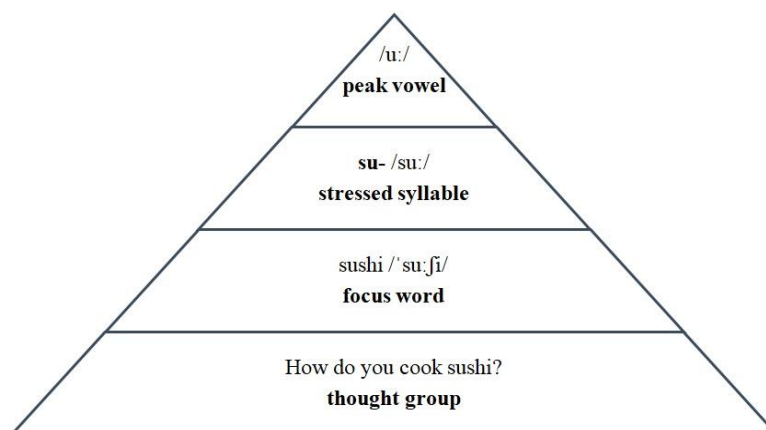
Figure 1. Example of a Thought Group Compared to a Pyramid With a Peak Vowel

This means that vowels control stress which controls intonation and thought-grouping; therefore, teaching vowels to EFL/ESL learners is of top priority to enhance clarity, communicative competence and fluency.

IV. TRADITIONAL AND SEMI-TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO TEACHING VOWELS

Articulatory phonetics is the classic and traditional method of teaching English sounds including vowels; it is a discipline that describes the vocal apparatus or vocal system organs and what happens when different sounds are articulated (Bickford & Floyd, 2006). Articulatory phonetics aims at distinguishing different sounds by describing articulators and points of articulation involved in the production of each sound. This discipline usually starts with physiology of speech describing the vocal tract that starts at the pharynx and reaches either the oral or nasal cavity (Freeman & Freeman, 2004).

Articulatory phonetics uses basically three criteria to differentiate and identify vowel sounds: tongue height, part of the tongue involved in articulating specific vowels and lip rounding (Bieswanger & Becker, 2010). It also involves other criteria such as length and tenseness and uses a set of terminology such as high, low, mid, front, back, central, rounded, unrounded, short, long, tense, and lax (Davenport & Hannahs, 2013). Articulatory phonetics sometimes describes extreme points or vowel sounds that do not exist in English and use them as reference points; they label them as cardinal vowels (Ogden, 2009).

Articulatory phoneticians use a table or grid replicating the human tongue showing where each vowel is produced in the oral cavity, and they use certain color or shading codes to point out characteristics like lip-rounding and tenseness. Each vowel is represented by using a different symbol, and unfortunately different linguists, lexicographers and

phoneticians use different symbols. The common set of symbols is known as IPA or International Phonetic Alphabet. Below is the graphic representation describing vowels; those with a black background are tense vowels and the rest are lax. The areas in the table that are highlighted in gray include rounded vowels and the rest are unrounded.

		Position of the Tongue		
		Front	Central	Back
High		/ɪː/ (see) /ɪ/ (it)	/ɜː/ girl	/uː/ (zoo) /ʊ/ (put)
Mid		/eɪ/ (day) /e/ (met)	/ə/ about /ʌ/ cut	/əʊ/ coat /ɔː/ thought /ɔɪ/ toy
Low		/æ/ (cat)	/aɪ/ bye /aʊ/ now	/ɒ/ job

Figure 2. Graphic Representation of English Vowels

This conventional method of teaching vowels could be suitable to students majoring in linguistics and might not be suitable for ESL learners for several reasons including the use of jargon such as diphthongs, triphthongs, neutral, spread ... etc. It also uses symbols that are not part of the English alphabet, which makes learning a language a bit overwhelming and confusing because different books and dictionaries use different symbols. Technology and smartphones apps introduced a semi- or less traditional manner of doing the same thing using the same but clickable charts. There are several phonemic charts online, but several of them require certain browser extensions; an easy-to-use one is found on the English Club website ("Interactive Phonemic Chart," n.d.). However, the use of weird symbols is still there. Teachers can still use it as a reference, but there must be more effective and learner-friendly methods.

V. TWO SUGGESTED APPROACHES TO TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

Teaching pronunciation becomes fun when it is integrated effectively into classroom activities (Underhill, 1994) in a way that appeals to all or at least most learners. In addition to attempting to make it fun, teachers and learners' attitude about pronunciation should be a positive one (Dale et al., 2005). Instilling the concept that it is ok to be different and to have a foreign accent, because we all actually have one. As long as we speak English intelligibly and comprehensibly, we should not worry at all. Instead, we should be proud that we have our unique, and understandable, way of speaking English.

When we set realistic and attainable goals to ESL learners, we maintain and even boost their motivation and reduce their anxiety; motivation is a key success factor in language learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Setting unrealistic goals such as attempting to have a native-like accent will lead learners to frustration and failure. Native English accents vary widely, which makes the unrealistic task even more unrealistic and undoable. As mentioned earlier some teachers avoid teaching pronunciation because they are not happy about having a foreign yet intelligible accent. This means that some teachers themselves need to tweak their attitude and gear it toward a more positive direction. Isn't it sufficient to say that if all non-native English teachers did not teach English, more than half the world would not be able to speak it? (Yates et al., 2009) Learning and teaching English pronunciation should not be affected or judged by the what is known as the native-factor which could be a mere accident of birth (Richardson, 2016).

A. Color as the First Approach

As for the two suggested approaches of teaching and integrating vowel sounds into the curriculum, they are both based on the theory of connectionism in second language acquisition (Gass & Selinker, 2000). When learners link or associate each vowel with something easy that they like, they can easily acquire, integrate, and ultimately retrieve it.

The first suggested approach capitalizes on the concept of acrophony which we commonly use when dictate alphabetical letters; it is like when we say "A as in apple, B as in ball, … etc." Acrophony is used in multiple manners as per the user's performance. For example, English teachers might say "A as in adjective, B as in in bilingual, C as in countable, … etc." Acrophony is easily implemented with spelling and alphabet letters, and in the same way it can be used with vowel sounds through linking each sound with a certain color. Research shows that there is a relatively strong and positive link between the notion of color and language learning (Khan & Liu, 2020).

Karen and Thompson (2013) created a vowel chart like Figure 2 above but they used colors as example words to facilitate learning and practicing different vowel sounds. There is a clickable and interactive vowel chart in the Color Vowel Chart website; this chart is a useful visual tool or organizer that helps learners acquire and produce English vowel sounds in an appealing way (Karen & Thompson, 2013). Below is a replicated graphic representation of the traditional vowel grid adding the color examples:

Figure 3. Color Vowel Chart

Using this chart, instead of saying that the vowel in words like "cat, mat, hat … etc." is a low, front, lax unrounded short vowel, learners can simply say "the black vowel". Colors are used as anchor words to easily pin how each vowel is perceived and produced to the memory. Most of the color anchor words are monosyllabic, but all words and even phrases have colors. A phrase or multisyllabic word gets its color according to the peak vowel of the prominent stressed syllable, also known as the tonic syllable in the thought group. Examples are provided below for further clarification; the stressed syllable is underlined, and the color of each peak vowel is provided in parentheses:

- infor**mat**ion (gray)
- psy**cho**logy (olive)
- on the **desk** (red)
- tie the **knot** (olive)
- sharp **cook**ie (wooden)

B. *Noisy Colors or Colorful Noises as the Second Approach*

Associating vowel sounds with colors is suitable for learners whose learning style preference is the visual one, but not all learners prefer to learn visually. There are some special groups of ELLs (English language learners) who cannot learn visually because they have genetic vision issues. Catering for learners with special needs such as the visually impaired and blind ones is of extreme importance. Sighted people can distinguish colors easily and clearly, yet all colors are the same for visually impaired learners. In this case, noises can replace colors when we describe, teach and practice vowel sounds because this special group of ELLs access ESL/EFL pronunciation or any skill via the ear.

It should be noted though the mention of colors for visually impaired learners is not an unwise decision because they know colors do exist: they just cannot perceive them. Instead of replacing colors with noises, we can use them together and create a new chart of vowels labelling it the Noisy Color Vowel Chart. Visually impaired learners are great thinkers who can do a world of things like hearing, touching, using cognitive and meta-cognitive skills … etc., to name only a few. The only thing they cannot do is use eyes to access the external world, but they have their own unique and powerful 20/20 channels of contacting the world around them.

When we teach ESL/EFL to visually impaired learners, a good deal of adaptation and accommodation is needed to help them reach their full potential; therefore, the second suggested approach or teaching tool is "The Noisy Color Vowel Chart".

Figure 4. Noisy Color Vowel Chart

VI. SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES ADOPTING THE TWO NEW APPROACHES TO TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

There are lots of classroom activities that can involve any or both the suggested approaches/tools above. It depends on the nature of target learners and their learning styles and preferences. Students can sort words or target vocabulary according to the color of their stressed syllables. They can even write or type them using these colors.

Students can also play the "Dominant Colors and Odd One Out". They are given lists of the target vocabulary and they decide on the dominant color while deciding which one is the odd color out and what color this word is. The table below is a sample of this activity with answers.

TABLE 1
ODD ONE OUT GAME

Dominant Color	Black	Blue	Brown	Green	Gray
	Gymnastics	Balloon	Allowed	Believe (N)	Inspirational
	Balance	Vow	Belief	Genius	Erase
	Champion	Communicate	Powerful	Esteem	Humdrum
	Character (N)	Improve	Shout	Leader (N)	Aflame
	Dynamic	Reassuring	Shroud	Peaceful	Prepared
	Fantastic	Secure	Tower	Debate	Transformation
	Produce (V)	Truthful	Pronounce	Unique	Station
Odd One Out	Produce	Vow	Belief	Debate	Humdrum
	Blue	**Brown**	**Green**	**Gray**	**Mustard**

ESL/EFL teachers can provide learners with the color vowel chart in a worksheet and ask students to add words to them. Teachers can play games such as word mazes, bingo, word dominoes or scattergories including the color vowel chart or the noisy color vowel chart. All these tasks, activities and games enhance pronunciation as well as vocabulary. The updated version of the vowel chart including noises is the idea of the author of this article and no research has been done related to it, but there is research related the Color Vowel Chart as shown in the next section.

VII. LITERATURE AND RESEARCH RELATED TO THE COLOR VOWEL CHART IN THE LAST EIGHT YEARS (2014 – 2022)

The teaching tool or strategy known as the Color Vowel Chart is relatively new and research conducted to test its effectiveness is not so common; there a are a few studies and articles discussing this tool as shown in this section. On the website of one of TESOL organization affiliates, New York TESOL, Nau (2014) emphasizes the importance of pronunciation not only for oral or spoken skills, but also for all language-related skills including writing. Some students write inappropriately or incorrectly because they either perceive or produce some sounds incorrectly. For example, some students write "should of" instead of "should've" due to incorrect perception of pronunciation (Nau, 2014). As a result of this, teaching pronunciation creatively and adopting effective out-of-the-box techniques, strategies and tricks are essential for improving learners' speaking skills and their output intelligibility.

On the article written on the New York TESOL website, Nau (2014) recommends eight hands-on strategies and tricks for ESL/EFL teachers to use when dealing with pronunciation. One of these tricks is called the Rainbow Trick, which is Nau's (2014) suggested name for the Color Vowel Chart. Nau (2014) suggested this appealing name for the implementation of this tool in the ESL/EFL classroom and wrote in its favor as a powerful teaching tool especially when dealing with vowels and stress. Nau (2014) confirmed that the available resources on its website facilitate the teaching and learning of vowels and stress to a great extent.

The Color Vowel Chart is available basically as an online resource or tool and Datko (2015) wrote an article in which he evaluates internet or online-based resources that can be used in the ESL/EFL classroom especially when dealing with pronunciation. Using theoretical benchmarks and criteria supported by second language acquisition research as well as practical recommendations by ESL/EFL practitioners, instructors, and teacher trainers, Datko (2015) evaluates some online pronunciation teaching media resources and provides useful recommendations for ESL/EFL student teachers, novice teachers as well as experienced ESL/EFL ones. Datko (2015) looked at the Color Vowel Chart as a pedagogically appropriate online teaching tool especially when introducing and practicing individual phonemes. According to Datko (2015), the Color Vowel Chart – when properly used – can potentially assist in the accurate perception, interesting practice, and comprehensible output of vowel phonemes. The Color Vowel Chart adopts color codes which learners are highly expected to like, and which adds interest to the process of drilling individual vowel sounds. By depending on linking each distinct vowel sound to a color, this chart cleverly avoids using metalinguistic terminology or jargon that students find overwhelming, complicated, incomprehensible, and even sounding non-English. In addition to its simplicity and its potential to keep learners involved while learning phonetics and pronunciation, Datko (2015) further commends the Color Vowel Chart as a learning facilitating tool that is suitable for a wide range of age groups and English proficiency levels.

In a paper that was recently written, the Color Vowel Chart is recommended as a useful tool in teaching North American as well as Canadian accents in English (Fanenshtel, 2017). The author provides sample tasks and activities that can be used in the ESL / EFL classroom to assist learners with their pronunciation. Fanenshtel (2017) commends the concept of using colors and key words to represent different vowel phonemes instead of using phonetic transcription or IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). For example, to represent the peak vowel sound in the word "hurt", the color and key word "purple shirt" are used. To prove the efficacy and pedagogical benefits of using the Color Vowel Chart, Fanenshtel (2017) refers to its use in several reputable educational organizations in Canada and North America; it is also found on the website of US State Department. RELOs (Regional English Language Offices) in various US

embassies distribute the Color Vowel Chart cards and arrange training to local teachers. For example, the author attended the training given to Ukrainian English teachers during a training university course.

Fanenshtel (2017) noticed that the Color Vowel Chart directs students' attention to phonemes rather than spelling and assists them to overcome stress errors as one word could have two different pronunciations as a result of shifting stress. For example, the word "object" is *red* as a verb due to having stress on the second syllable; however, the same word is *olive* when used as a noun because stress is on the first syllable. Fanenshtel (2017) concludes the paper with different groups of suggested activities according to the learners' proficiency level.

Kone et al. (2019) carried out relevant research with the purpose of testing the efficacy of the Color Vowel Chart. The researchers did action research in the Indonesian district of Majauleng and introduced the Color Vowel Chart in an experimental group of 20 students at grade eight, and there was another group of 20 students who were not taught pronunciation using the Color Vowel Chart. Both groups included a balanced representation of male and female students. For example, there were 10 male and 10 female students in the experimental group of students who were taught using the Color Vowel Chart. The action researchers, Kone et al. (2019), conducted a pre-test before delivering the pronunciation course and a post-test at the end of the course. After comparing the mean score of both tests, researchers found a significant difference because the score is 78 in the pre-test but increased 7 points reaching 85 in the post-test. This supported the researchers' assumption that the Color Vowel Chart and its proper use in EFL classes in pronunciation courses can make a significant difference and improve the learners' pronunciation, speaking and communication performance. It is because pronunciation is inextricably connected to both speaking and communicative competencies. In other words, enhanced pronunciation develops speaking skills and subskills and as a result it facilitates and boosts communication.

Kone et al. (2019) mentioned in their study that using the Color Vowel Chart in EFL speaking classes is not just effective, but it could serve as a solution or remedy to oral problems that students face in speaking including psychological or emotional ones. It was noticed that the Color Vowel Chart increased the students' active participation and raised their motivation and class involvement. It was also noticed that the Color Vowel Chart encouraged the learners to work collaboratively in pairs and groups applying the pedagogical principle of scaffolding and assisting each other in learning challenging phonemes, particularly long vowels, and diphthongs. Kone et al. (2019) confirmed that the Color Vowel Chart enhanced the learners' active involvement because these same learners perceived it as a game rather than a learning or teaching instrument. Overall, the researchers in this study provided evidence that using the Color Vowel Chart properly improves EFL learners' pronunciation.

In a teaching tip presented in the tenth Annual PSLLT (Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching) Conference in Iowa State University in Fall 2018 and published in the conference proceedings the following year, Wallace and Fernandez (2019) warn against the possibility of some ELLs misplacing and mistaking stress at the word and phrase level as a result of insufficient teaching and practice of important aspects of English pronunciation. Confusing and misplacing stress could highly result in misunderstanding, inaccurate output, or even unintelligible messages, which affects communication. The researchers confirmed that communication is not negatively affected by accent variety, but mainly my misplacing stress especially when the context is not helpful enough to make inferences of the intended message. Wallace and Fernandez (2019) mentioned that learning vowels and stress could be very challenging; however, they suggest a teaching tip to overcome this challenge through using the Color Vowel Chart and some features of a relevant application known as Blue Canoe which was developed to accompany the Color Vowel Chart. Wallace and Fernandez (2019) draw the readers' attention to the poor connection between English spelling and English pronunciation especially when we consider vowel sounds and how they are orthographically represented in various and confusing patterns. The researchers stated the problem, yet they also offered the solution, which is the adoption of the Color Vowel Chart pronunciation teaching approach. Wallace and Fernandez (2019) state that the Color Vowel Chart is particularly helpful for students whose mother languages, accents or dialects have different vowel inventories and/or different stress patterns.

The initial stage of the Color Vowel Chart pronunciation teaching approach starts when instructors do a needs analysis by prompting the students to pronounce words of high frequency, and then the instructors can create inventories and wordlists of mispronounced words as a result of misplacing stress and confusing vowel sounds. Instructors here include mispronounced lexical items and phrases that could impact comprehension. The list or inventory of these items should be left open throughout the semester for ELLs and the teacher to add more items to it. Wallace and Fernandez (2019) suggest using a Google form or any type of shared document which ELLs and the teacher can frequently add items to.

The second step in this approach capitalizes on learner autonomy as ELLs are given these lists of words to know the number of syllables in each word and determine which of these syllables is the peak /stressed one. Then they are asked to categorize these words according to the color of the stressed syllable using the Color Vowel Organizer: a graphic design in form of a table with a slot for each vowel according to its matching color. ELLs are trained to easily identify, and practice peak vowel sounds by looking at the Color Vowel Chart and deciding to which color the stressed or peak syllables in example words and phrases belong. ELLs are encouraged to use reliable dictionaries to check their answers. ELLs are also encouraged to use the dictionary that comes with Blue Canoe app and YouGlish, which is a video database website developed mainly to assist its users in enhancing their pronunciation in 3 major accents: US, UK, and

Australian varieties. Learners are free to choose and stick to any preferred variety. This way of learning through discovery helps ELLs retain the accurate pronunciation and via sufficient practice, they can retrieve it.

The third step in this Color Vowel Chart approach suggested by Wallace and Fernandez (2019) is based on the pedagogical principle of collaboration and scaffolding as ELLs cross-check their pronunciation of the words in the list and see together what syllable is the peak one and its color in the chart. Teachers can provide feedback here when necessary, and ELLs can use reliable online dictionaries to come to a consensus.

The fourth step, which is interesting and involves the class and gets them to substantially and subconsciously practice vowel sounds and stress, is the game *color it out* during which students play a card game. The instructor gives each player from the students 4 cards and then keeps the rest of the cards with him / her. After shuffling the cards, he turns one of them face up and reads the color vowel with the example key word/s, "the green tea" card for instance, and any student who has a card with the same vowel raises his / her hand and pronounces it. If correct, he gives the card to the teacher. The first team to run out of cards is the winning team. As students do this, they practice the vowel sounds and stress excessively and in an indirect interesting way.

The fifth and last step of the Color Vowel Chart approach involves students in communicatively using target words with certain vowel sounds and stress patterns; students can provide definitions for the target words or use them in role play dialogues. Students record their output and do peer and self-evaluation to increase their accuracy in pronunciation. After applying this approach, the researchers interviewed the learners who confirmed how helpful the approach is, which is encouraging to other EFL / ESL instructors to experiment with the chart to help their learners' fluency and communication. In the first chapter of her famous book about pronunciation, Jones (2015) suggests similar teaching tips, games, and activities that make use of the Color Vowel Chart.

According to Jones (2015), intelligibly articulated and correct pronunciation is a very important element in English language learning and acquisition; it is essential for improving linguistic proficiency and communication. There are claims in research related to second language acquisition, language learning, psycholinguistics and neurolinguistics that support the gravity of pronunciation in the process of language learning (Jones, 2015). Therefore, ELT instructors should plan to integrate it regularly into their instructional practices inside the classroom. Instead of ignoring it completely, EFL / ESL instructors can teach it along with other language skills such as speaking, vocabulary, grammar, … etc. The Color Vowel Chart is suggested here as an untraditional technique, but ESL / EFL instructors are encouraged to choose other similarly modern techniques or traditional ones such as repetitions, recording, using minimal pairs, using tongue twisters, … etc.

In addition to all reviewed studies above, a qualitative study conducted in Indonesia showed that using the Color Vowel Chart improves learning speaking and pronunciation (Syaifullah et al., 2022). The chart is an effective teaching tool and learning aid in EFL pronunciation instruction and learning; it provides students and teachers with an easy and interesting approach to learning and teaching pronunciation at both the lexical and short phrase levels. According to Syaifullah et al. (2022), the Color Vowel Chart as a pedagogical technique is successful because it focuses on a very important suprasegmental feature in English pronunciation. It focuses on stress which controls rhythm, the sequence of unstressed and stressed syllables. This sequence makes the learners' comprehension easy and makes their pronunciation comprehensible. Rhythm is vital because it affects clarity, accuracy, and fluency, all of which are necessary for smooth communication. Syaifullah et al. (2022) illustrate and analyze the use and details of the Color Vowel Chart by referring to its official websites. Syaifullah et al. (2022) explored a lot of relevant primary and secondary sources related to the pedagogical use of the Color Vowel Chart and recommended that EFL teachers increase their teaching or classroom time in speaking and pronunciation-related areas as most teachers give priority to reading and writing. Syaifullah et al. (2022) found that instructors who used the Color Vowel Chart in their teaching made a difference in their students' pronunciation and confirmed that the chart was an interesting alternative to the use of phonemic symbols to explain pronunciation issues to learners. The researchers confirmed that using the Color Vowel Chart improves other aspects of the language other than pronunciation; it was noticed that it improves vocabulary learning in particular.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Teaching pronunciation, particularly vowels, is of top priority and all ESL/EFL materials should include relevant activities and lesson plans targeting teaching this important component of the English Language. Language educational leaders and administrators need to explore ESL/EFL teachers' attitudes toward teaching pronunciation and gear it in the right direction in case these teachers eschew this practice. Associating pronunciation lessons with concepts that learners like and remember easily such as colors and noises can be very useful in the ESL/EFL learning process. The article presented two suggested tools or approaches to teaching vowels sounds, suggested relevant classroom activities, and explored relevant modern research studies that investigated the efficacy of using color in teaching pronunciation. More relevant teaching methods that keep ESL/EFL learners involved need to be explored; furthermore, more research particularly scholarly and action research is recommended in the area of learning and teaching ESL/EFL pronunciation.

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Rationale for a Conceptual Model of Teaching English for Special Purposes

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Abstract—**Teachers' professional and personal qualities and the latest information and communication technologies combined with student-centered teaching methods are the prerequisites for effective English language teaching. The study's objective is to design a conceptual model of active English language learning to be implemented in the course of professional training for technical specialists in academic settings. The conceptual model for teaching English for special purposes has been designed based on the descriptive method, scientific literature data analysis, and theoretical modelling technique. The method of expert evaluations was used to identify professionally significant research areas. Specific features of intensive learning technologies, which can be effectively combined in the learning process, have been identified. A modern interpretation of active learning in English as a generalized conceptual model of learning is presented. The established combination of intensive teaching methods and technologies can be used to teach English for Special Purposes at technical universities.**

Index Terms—**conceptual teaching model, active teaching methods, modern educational technologies, future civil engineers, active learning methods**

I. INTRODUCTION

The professional and personal qualities of the academic staff, student-centered instruction methods, and economic and socio-cultural factors are the prerequisites for effective English language teaching. Traditionally, deep expertise and skills in mastering the English language used to be achieved primarily through a long stay of a student in the language environment. Now advanced teaching methods and aids contribute greatly both to students' motivation and their effective language instruction (Ozoda et al., 2021). The contemporary information and communication technologies implemented into an academic process at universities, in particular, the widespread open online courses for engineering students, create ample opportunities for students to gain professional language competence (Aitenova et al., 2019; Zubkov, 2020). Therefore, an important research topic today refers to the creation of a conducive didactic and psychological atmosphere of the academic process, which would help instructors develop students' intellectual, social, and communication skills effectively, stimulate their interest in learning, creative activity, and independence in gaining knowledge, acquiring language skills, as well as shape the future specialists' ability to predict a professional situation and make their own decisions. Thus, the relevance of this study is predetermined by the necessity to improve the effectiveness of teaching English for special purposes.

The objective of the study is to develop a conceptual model of active learning of English for special purposes in the professional training of technical specialists in academic settings.

Research tasks:

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1.   To review the scientific literature data on the latest educational technologies for teaching English for special purposes.

2.   To identify specific methods and technologies of active learning that can be integrated into the process of language instruction for future civil engineers based on the model of active learning in English.

3.   To develop a conceptual model of active teaching of English for special purposes.

The scientific novelty of the study is that modern methods and technologies for teaching English for special purposes have been offered as a conceptual model for the first time, which will improve the effectiveness of language instruction for future civil engineers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Nicol et al. (2018) and Zepke (2013) consider active learning as an umbrella term covering a variety of teaching techniques designed to engage students in learning as well as to enhance and maintain their motivation. The global best practices of instruction in academic settings are marked by the integration of various technologies, approaches, and methods (Chernysh et al., 2020). Students' complex experiences and their leading representational systems of perception are the core components of their intrinsic motivation, which must be taken into account when they learn new professional materials (Rubtsova, 2019).

Teaching English is a priority area of modern higher professional education, the knowledge of which is a key to specialists' competence. In this regard, the task of an instructor is to encourage the students' creative activity and spark their abilities through innovative forms of education by using communication-oriented digital technologies and online resources (Yuldasheva & Aminova, 2020). Matkasimova and Makhmudov (2020) refer to interactive and information and communication approaches based on digitalized education as one of the most promising evidence-based methodological approaches to teaching English. Discussions, email projects, web quest technologies, and Skype technologies are considered methods (Yuldasheva & Aminova, 2020). For the development of listening and speaking skills, it is proposed to use, in particular, individual modes and group activity, as well as case technologies, which enable students to make a situational analysis of speech activity. The introduction of innovations in teaching English also sets out new requirements for the level of instructors' qualifications, which implies their mastery of digital computer technologies (Akhmedov & Shuhkrat, 2020). The substantiation of innovative technologies for teaching English is based on their relevance to the functions and means of the professional tasks to be solved by the trainees. This approach includes the interactive transformation of knowledge into activities, which is achieved due to the shift from subjective curriculum content writing to the development of integrated training courses representing a holistic picture of professional activity. The consideration of innovative trends as prospects for improving the teaching of English is associated with the possibility of their effective use in shaping students' professional communicative culture (Alibekova & Urinboyeva, 2020). The communicative situation influences the nature and goals of communication, which makes it the central concept of linguistic pragmatics. Teaching English based on the communicative approach stimulates students' activity due to the maximum number of channels used to receive information and memorize it better (Akramova, 2021; Alibekova & Urinboyeva, 2020). Bakhadirovna (2021) also mentions the use of lexical word games and distance education technologies for remote learning of foreigners as one of the effective interactive methods of teaching English (Guzachchova, 2020).

Integrated teaching of English is predetermined by prioritizing special professional tasks of students (Nsengiyumva, 2018). Technology enables instructors to better adapt the learning process to the student's abilities and characteristics, and improve students' language skills and the quality of education (Ahmadi, 2018). The use of mobile platforms is one of the ways to increase the effectiveness of English language teaching, providing an opportunity for collaborative learning as well as increasing the students' motivation and interest in learning (Mbukusa, 2018). The inclusion of the development of critical thinking in classroom activities is another innovative theoretical and practical idea in the English language teaching (Muratova & Abraimova, 2020). As for the use of information and communication technologies for teaching English, it is necessary to consider the opportunities provided by electronic and Internet resources for shaping communicative competence and its development in the course of classroom activities. Thanks to the intensification of the academic process, innovative information and communication technologies contribute to the development of students' skills to independently acquire new knowledge, and shift away from their mechanical learning, which increases the quality of memory retention and learning process efficiency (Muratova & Abraimova, 2020). Therefore, researchers evaluate the introduction of the communicative approach to teaching English as a revolutionary transformation of the academic process (Sharma & Khanal, 2019). The problem of creating and implementing modern methods of teaching English in the academic setting is related to the issue of shaping professionally significant skills, abilities, and special competencies that predetermine the success of graduates, their relevance, and competitiveness in the global labour market.

III. MATERIALS AND RESEARCH METHODS

The research procedure is based on the descriptive method, scientific literature data analysis, and theoretical modelling techniques used to develop a conceptual model for teaching English. Besides, to identify the professionally

significant areas of the study, the method of expert assessments was applied for interviewing master's degree students of the "Construction and Civil Engineering" speciality at the Kyiv National University of Construction and Architecture.

The research hypothesis was that developing and applying a conceptual learning model, which, based on the combination of intensive methods and technologies, will improve the effectiveness of teaching English for Special Purposes at technical universities.

The sample of respondents was made by a simple randomization procedure with the use of random numbers tables, which made it possible to make up a group of experts from a larger group, while the probability of extracting all possible samples of a given size was the same. The randomization procedure made it possible to avoid the bias associated with personal preferences and to obtain the desired result. As experts, 42 students (28 males and 14 females, aged 22.4 years on average) were interviewed, selected by simple randomization among all students of this speciality.

Initially, the authors proposed a conceptual model of teaching English, which was created as a result of using the observation method. In the work it was used the observation method. It allowed to determine more characteristic elements for this study based on researched aspects (Yüzlü & Dikilitaş, 2022). Consequently, the model was divided into three categories:
- intensive methods and technologies of learning;
- educational materials;
- technology in teaching.

The next step in the work was to determine the effectiveness of the presented model using the Thurstone scale. The Thurstone scale is a definition of intervals, considering psychological and social characteristics (lit.). To this end, students were asked to determine the most significant parameters for learning and sent answers to the mail of the authors' article within 12 hours. Students were proposed to indicate the most preferable parameter, excluding its gradation.

Focusing on the stages of professional knowledge (superficial, technical, dynamic knowledge), their possibility of applying was defined in the work by calculating the Shapiro-Wilk coefficient. The Shapiro-Wilk coefficient was chosen as a part of the research because it admitted to determine the significance of the values (Ghasemi et al., 2022):

$$W = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_{(i)})^2}{(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i - \bar{x})^2} \tag{1}$$

where, $x_{(i)}$ – ith for research; $\bar{x}$ – sample mean; a_i – statistical coefficients.

The limitations of the study were determined by its objective and tasks with the focus on teaching English to students of engineering specialities. Nevertheless, the general principles of creating a model of active language learning can be applied to the training of professionals in other specialities and extrapolated to teaching other foreign languages, with some minor adjustments to be made.

Ethical issues in the process of conducting the study were ensured due to compliance with the principles of tolerance, academic integrity, as well as other norms of bioethics.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

The contemporary interpretation of active teaching of English for special purposes is suggested as a generalized conceptual model of learning, which is a set of integrations of various modern teaching technologies and teaching materials. The combination of intensive teaching methods and technologies can be used simultaneously for teaching English for Special Purposes at technical universities (Figure 1.).

Intensive learning-and-cognitive activity and teacher-and-student interaction should be managed by an instructor so that important thematic issues and professional topics for the students of a particular specialization are taken into consideration. The conceptual model of active learning will foster harmonious development both of students and instructors in dynamic learning, thus embracing key psychological components for better mastering the learning material such as lack of fear, perception of knowledge as important, immersion in a set of experiences (recognition of familiar patterns), active self-assessment, and incorporating the gained experience into a broader worldview.
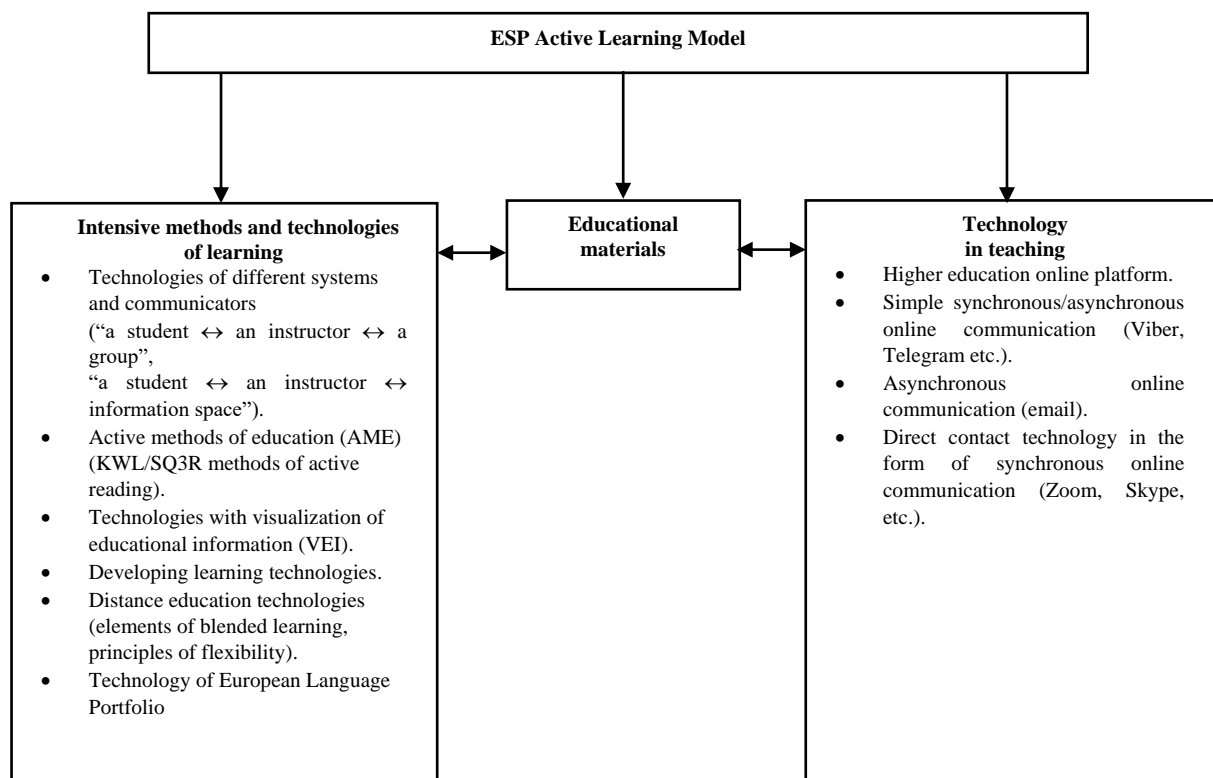
Figure 1. Conceptual Model for Active Teaching of English for Special Purposes in Technical Universities

Students' behaviour in the course of knowledge acquisition is influenced by their feelings, beliefs, and values. This is also true for modern intensive technologies of the academic process, which are characterized by a combination of ergonomic, emotional, and mental components of student learning, which best suits the dynamic model of the organization of the educational process (Fussell & Truong, 2022; Huang et al., 2019).

As part of the study among the respondents, it was determined the most important parameters of the learning model for getting high scores. For this purpose, data from the respondents were obtained using the Thurstone scale (Table 1).

TABLE 1
EFFICIENCY OF THE PRESENTED MODEL IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

Intensive methods and technologies of learning	Distribution of respondents' answers	Technology in teaching	Distribution of respondents' answers
Technologies of various systems and communicators	15%	Higher Education Online Platform	27%
Active learning methods	22%	Simple synchronous/asynchronous online communication	26%
Technologies with visualization of educational information	24%	Asynchronous online communication	18%
Evolving learning technologies	21%	Direct contact technology in the form of synchronous online communication	29%
Remote educational technologies	18%		

In the category of intensive methods and technologies of learning, technologies with the visualization of educational information (24%) contribute more to effective learning and the activation of imaginative thinking in students.

Respondents concluded that the technology of direct contact was more important for the positive provision of the learning process in the synchronous form of online communication (29%). The use of popular online platforms (Zoom, Skype) promotes direct interaction between the teacher and the student, which helps to clarify the necessary points. Students consider (18%) that asynchronous online communication has the least importance for the educational process, being that email messages can be lost. There is no direct contact between students and teachers.

The dynamic learning model enables an instructor to combine students' feelings, emotions, habits, and experiences during the learning process. Within its framework, Vopel (2003) identified three types of professional knowledge: superficial, technical and dynamic knowledge. Focusing on the presented model, the work determined which knowledge was developed to a greater extent. The results were defined using the Shapiro-Wilk coefficient (Figure 2).
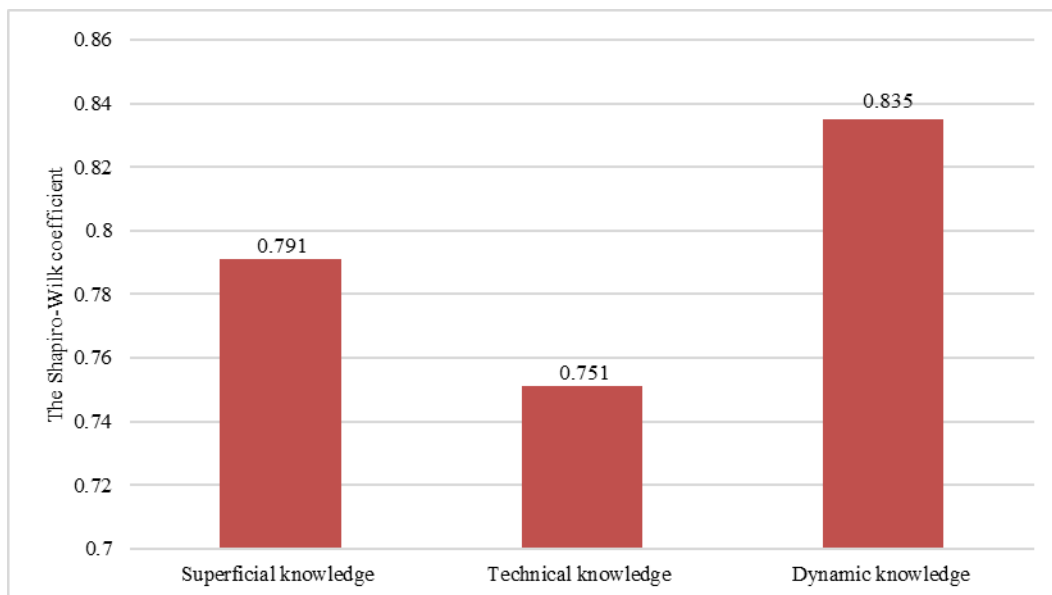
Figure 2. Development of Students' Knowledge in Accordance With the Proposed Model

Dynamic knowledge (0.835) was aimed more at students' independent work, contributed to experimentation, fantasy, and information exchange. Superficial knowledge (0.791) was achieved at a high level, as for as it allowed obtaining information from educational reference books. Technical knowledge (0.751) is aimed at determining specific knowledge of English. In this case, it will contribute to the development of professional skills.

In our study, we propose limiting technical knowledge to professional topics selected based on a survey of master's degree students in the "Construction and Civil Engineering" specialty at the Kyiv National University of Construction and Architecture. These topics have been recognized as relevant and promising for the field of modern civil engineering and are chosen as key areas in the development of the academic course program in the "Construction" discipline (Rubtsova et al., 2018; Rubtsova, 2019). Active reading methods, integrated into the conceptual model of active learning, contribute to the harmonious development of students' dynamic knowledge and subsequent implementation of the acquired knowledge in their activity on the chosen topic. The use of the methods of active reading encourages students to cognitive activity in the learning process supported by intensive student-and-teacher cooperation, whereas a specific sequence of actions and interactions is typical of a teacher's work with a group of students.

V. DISCUSSION

Mayes (2018), Alasmari and Zhang (2019) and Al Kurdi et al. (2020) distinguish between the concepts of "Technology of Learning" and "Technology in Learning". At the same time, "teaching technology" is defined as methods of scientific organization of the teacher's workflow for achieving learning objectives, whereas "technologies in teaching" are considered in the context of the technical teaching aids applied in the academic process by organizational and managerial tools (Figure 3).
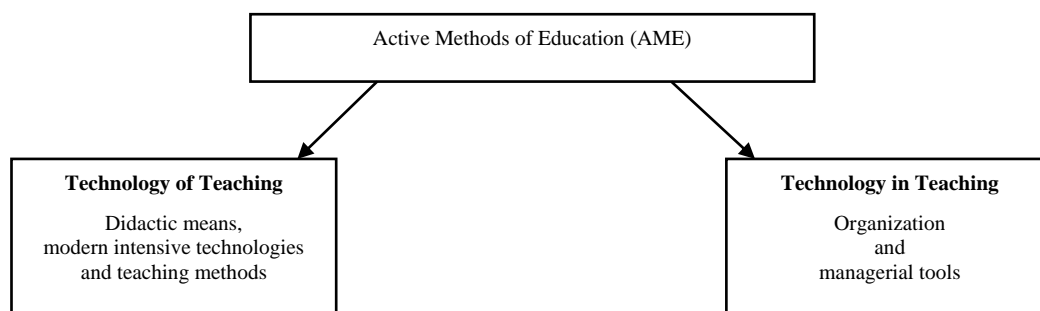
Figure 3. Scheme of Organization of Active Learning Methods

Scholars consider the didactic component to be particularly valuable in the process of integrating "technology of learning" and "technology in learning" (Ertmer & Ottenbereit-Leftwich, 2013). The results of the studies on the comparison of high-tech active classes and low-tech active classes show no differences in scores between the two types of classes (Nicol et al., 2018).

The academic process can be organized both for classroom and extracurricular activities by using a specific learning technology: elements of blended learning, the creation of flexible programs, and relevant educational materials based on the individual approach to trainees. The analytical review of didactic literature shows that there is no unanimous definition of the terms: "technology", "method", or "approach". Pedagogical technology is a system of organizing instruction with certain systemic structural elements for learning purposes. The purpose of educational activity in such a system is ensured by the instruction methods, forms, and techniques taking into account the presentation of the didactic material stage (Rakhimov et al., 2020). Pedagogical technology is considered as a concretization of methodology, or a pedagogical system project that can be put into practice i.e. is considered as a way of application of the personalized approach in the academic process, aimed at encouraging the active creativity of students and fostering the development of their personal qualities (Zakirova & Qarshieva, 2020). Pedagogical technology, therefore, can be explained as instruction methods specifically selected and arranged in a certain sequence, which instructors use in the course of their practical activity (Safarova, 2021). The method of teaching foreign languages is considered in the scientific literature as a general model of learning, which is based on a certain area of study and relies on approaches specific to a certain area. The effectiveness of any innovative or intensive method of teaching English is predetermined by a combination of specific actions and operations made by an instructor to deliver the required knowledge. It is also aimed at developing skills and strengthening students' activities in three areas: personal-didactic, general didactic, and general methodological (Sulaymonova, 2019). The creation of methods for developing foreign language competence in the late 19th and early 20th centuries was caused by the need to train specialists able to adapt to changes in their professional life (Belyaeva et al., 2019). Today, the subjective opinion, given both by students and instructors, refers to such effective methods of teaching English for special purposes as discussions and round tables. The discussion helps students integrate their knowledge from various fields into specific problem-solving, and contributes to the application of the acquired knowledge and development of critical thinking, which improves their understanding of theoretical material of any degree of complexity (Belyaeva et al., 2019).

The current labour market, effective management, and business growth require more knowledge in a short time. Students must be able to plan their learning strategies, independently choosing and combining various educational programs. Thus, this is another reason to make the teaching method flexible in practical terms. Teaching in an academic setting includes many interacting components: instructors, students, subject content, and teaching aids that function in dynamic networks. Therefore, we can consider the quality of learning as being dependent on the components and their interaction (Akhmedov, 2021; Toshtemirova, 2020). Syllabi and programs of academic courses should be justified by the needs of society, and therefore be modern and competitive. The integration of didactic and technical components will be effective and efficient in use. Thus, modern intensive technologies are a critical component of the vocational academic process meeting the needs of most students. The latest trends in the implementation of educational projects are associated with the use of augmented reality technologies, which has a positive impact on learning outcomes and ensure the graduates' competitiveness in the global economic space (Iatsyshyn et al., 2019). Modern intensive educational technologies in the era of digitalization are marked by a high level of learning intensity, goal effectiveness, economy, energy intensity, ergonomics, and motivation, including: the effectiveness of a learning objective described as the ability to achieve a certain level of knowledge; energy and time saving (mastering a large amount of learning material in a short time interval); ergonomics (creating favourable conditions for a student with an emphasis on comfortable learning and cooperation); motivation (increasing students' interest in the subject of study and bringing out the best in their personalities) (Kassymova et al., 2019). Teaching in an academic setting includes many interacting components: instructors, students, subject content, and teaching aids that function in dynamic networks (Frolova et al., 2020). There are modern technologies for intensive learning, which, in our opinion, can be equally effective for use in technical universities for teaching English. These intensive learning technologies include several components, including various systems and communicators, active learning methods, visualization of educational information, developing technologies, distance learning technologies, a European language portfolio, etc.

As our study has shown, several features of intensive learning technologies that can be effectively combined in the learning process are as follows:

1.   Technologies of various systems and communicators for the interaction of participants in the academic process. Two systems of the academic process are possible, in particular, the system of the "student ↔ instructor ↔ group" interaction and the "student ↔ instructor ↔ information space" system of interaction. The possible system communicators are: student, instructor, a group of student's information space. Two systems are included in this process:

●   The collaborative work of communicants, instructors, and students, in the system of the "student ↔ instructor ↔ group" interaction which enables them to exchange their ideas and encourages the cooperation of all students regardless of their level of English proficiency as well as contributes to the enrichment of new knowledge during the learning process (Nikolayeva et al., 2015);

●   The cooperation and interaction in the "student ↔ instructor ↔ information space" communicative system, which is an effective technology when students perform tasks and individual activities (Rubtsova et al., 2018).

2.   Active teaching methods foster critical thinking development and promote the interaction of participants in the academic process, while the term "interactive" is often used to indicate additional interaction.

3.   Visualization of didactic information, enabling students to effectively use the visual leading representational system to memorize new educational material (Rubtsova et al., 2018).

4.   Development of learning technologies that ensure the transmission of knowledge and skills of students in a new situation and encourage both creativity and independent heuristic information search for knowledge. This technology is based on a scientifically based sequence of actions performed both by an instructor and a student (Nikolayeva et al., 2015).

5.   Distance learning technologies supported by organized learning technologies are considered in two ways:

●   The elements of blended learning can be effectively used for students' extracurricular and classroom preparatory activities (Beaver et al., 2014).

●   The implementation of the flexibility principle, in particular, granting free access to ESP training materials. This enables students to choose a convenient time for classes and allows them to catch up and catch up. This cannot be regarded as fully replaced classes, but only the provision of free access for students to class materials for self-study purposes.

6.   The European Language Portfolio provides an opportunity for self-assessment of the results of individual activity during the course and helps to strengthen students' confidence in their knowledge (Kühn & Cavana, 2012). This technology is a powerful stimulus for unlocking the potential and increasing the individual's internal motivation. We consider it necessary to collect and use the material prepared by students during their active learning in their activities (text work, presentations, etc.).

Thus, we consider it possible to combine the abovesaid intensive teaching methods and technologies in the process of active teaching of special-purpose English.

Modern technologies are effective under the conditions of a new educational environment and can open up an advanced opportunity for the academic staff to implement the managerial aspect giving students access to learning material with instructions for every stage of task completion and information search. The experience of using various programs and platforms in a lockdown period shows that an instructor can use multiple modern technologies in teaching: from Viber and Telegram to Zoom, Skype, email, Google Classroom, Google Meet, Moodle, Microsoft Teams, Edmodo, Uztest, iSpring, Mirapolis, etc. Remarkably, the instructors managed to respond to emergencies promptly and flexibly resulting in an effective arrangement of the learning process. The crucial drivers for such an organization are the urgent need and willingness both of students and instructors to take an active part in the academic process. The main purpose of emergency training is to replace the classroom mode of instruction with remote teaching. Direct contact technology gives the possibility to organize learning in the form of synchronous online communication via the programs enabling an instructor to communicate simultaneously with the entire group of students (Zoom, Google Meet, Microsoft Teams, etc.). We have identified some characteristics of intensive learning technologies that can be effectively combined in the learning process. The purpose of integrated technologies is to provide flexible learning with a trajectory of individual academic planning. First of all, for their implementation, it is necessary to provide students with free access to educational materials for classes on the university's online platform. In addition, simple synchronous/asynchronous online communication should be arranged, which will ensure prompt interaction with a group of students. This type of communication is useful for solving organizational issues and is easily accessible from mobile phones due to various messaging and calling applications such as Viber or Telegram, which are common among students and are a part of everyday life. It should be noted that students usually communicate in either application, whereas their instructor, in turn, must decide which application to choose for communication. The crucial moment for successful communication with a group of students is to decide which application is better to learn how to use. Asynchronous communication (e-mail) can be used for individual student work.

VI. Conclusions

As a result of the study, modern methods and technologies for teaching English for special purposes are generalized and suggested for the first time in the form of a conceptual model. We have identified some features of intensive learning technologies and suggested a contemporary interpretation of active learning in English for special purposes. The study proves the hypothesis that developing and applying a conceptual learning model that combines intensive methods and technologies will improve the effectiveness of teaching English for special purposes at technical universities. A combination of intensive teaching methods and technologies can be used to teach English for Special Purposes at technical universities. Active educational-and-cognitive activity, teacher-and-student interaction should be organized and maintained by an instructor, with a focus on the significant thematic issues and professional topics for students of a particular speciality and specialization. The use of the conceptual model of active learning in the academic process will provide an opportunity for the harmonious development of students and instructors in a dynamic learning model that has the key psychological components for better mastering of the course material: lack of fear, perception of knowledge as important; immersion in a set of complex experiences (recognition of familiar patterns); active self-assessment, which enables students to incorporate the gained experience into a larger worldview. Active reading methods, integrated into the conceptual model of active learning, contribute to the harmonious development of students' dynamic knowledge and further implementation of the acquired knowledge in their activity on the chosen topic. We consider it possible to combine intensive teaching methods and technologies in the process of active teaching of special-

purpose English. Prospects for further research are to experimentally test the effectiveness of the proposed model of teaching English for special purposes to students of various basic levels of training in online learning.

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CLIL and Social and Emotional Learning in Early Bilingual Education: Compatible and Mutually Beneficial

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Abstract—This article focuses on a key issue for the holistic education of the young child in the bilingual classroom: the optimal development of social and emotional competence when learning takes place in another language. Social and emotional learning (SEL) has been referred to as "the substance of education itself" by the National Commission on Social, Emotional, and Academic Development (2019, p. 6) and research shows that the beneficial effects on the wellbeing of young children are deep-reaching and long-lasting. The recent growth of bilingual education in early childhood has propelled Content and Integrated Learning (CLIL) to the forefront of teacher training, methodology, and research into the teaching and learning processes of young children in bilingual classrooms. However, there is a dearth of research investigating the development of SEL in early CLIL. In this context, this article reviews and brings together existing literature of SEL and CLIL and argues that the main tenets of both are highly compatible. Examination of research highlights the key role played by classroom climate for the effective implementation of SEL through CLIL, and the challenges faced through an absence of specific legislation and teacher training. Finally, this article proposes how pedagogical strategies might be successfully established within the lower and pre-primary CLIL classroom that are mutually beneficial to both the development of bilingual education and young children's social and emotional wellbeing.

Index Terms—Bilingual education, CLIL, early years pedagogy, social and emotional learning, classroom climate

I. INTRODUCTION

Social and emotional learning (SEL) has been referred to as "the substance of education itself" by the National Commission on Social, Emotional, and Academic Development (2019, p. 6), highlighting the central role it plays, or arguably should play, in educational systems. SEL is the process through which all people acquire and apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to develop healthy identities, manage emotions, achieve goals, feel, and show empathy, establish and maintain supportive relationships, and make responsible and caring decisions (CASEL, 2021). SEL is essential for our mental health and wellbeing, and its early development in children is closely linked to their future wellness. This affects multiple domains such as education, employment, and mental health (Jones et al., 2015), with extensive research highlighting the optimization of benefits when SEL is implemented from a young age (e.g., Denham et al., 2012; Ornaghi et al., 2019).

Similarly, recent years have seen an increased understanding of the opportunities afforded by the learning of a foreign language from a very young age. Combined with the benefits of contextualized language use (e.g., Cross, 2012), increased pupil engagement (e.g., Meyer et al., 2018) and ludic activities (Coyle et al., 2010), the implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has experienced exponential growth over the fifteen years throughout much of Europe. This growth is especially notable within Spain, where various local educational policies (e.g., in Madrid and Andalusia) have frequently made specific reference to the application of CLIL in bilingual classroom methodology. More recently, these educational policies have been extended to include pre-primary, resulting in children starting their formal education within a bilingual classroom.

This widespread implementation of early bilingual education creates the need to consider how teaching methodologies for young children can encompass SEL when much of the teaching takes place in an additional language. In this regard, there is a dearth of empirical studies researching the use of SEL in bilingual contexts, and most especially in the earlier stages of education, when research shows the development of SEL to be crucial (e.g., Zinsser & Dusenbury, 2015).

The present article starts by exploring the importance of SEL and examining the existing literature as to why an early start in SEL is essential for long-term well-being and why it should be developed in all schools. Secondly, recognizing the extensive implementation of bilingual education in infant and primary, the article analyses how SEL can be developed within the reality of an early CLIL classroom. Amongst the many similarities identified between SEL and CLIL, this paper proposes that the teacher's ability to create a supportive class climate is key. An encouraging and

constructive classroom climate is essential in supporting multiple aspects of learning (especially when this takes place in another language), in addition to mental and emotional wellbeing. Subsequently, the article considers the provision for SEL and CLIL in educational legislation and teacher training, and the resulting challenges for the effective implementation of SEL through CLIL. Finally, the article concludes that CLIL is not only highly compatible with SEL, but their simultaneous development may be mutually beneficial for the holistic development of young children in bilingual classrooms.

II. THE MAIN TENETS FOR SEL IN EARLY EDUCATION

SEL refers to acquiring the skills to understand and regulate one's emotions and develop healthy social relationships (e.g., Denham et al., 2012). A growing body of literature evidences the benefits of SEL in young children, recognizing infancy and childhood as periods of greatly accelerated growth, development, and learning. During early childhood, the acquisition of the competences to recognize and manage emotions and develop prosocial behaviors is critical for long term impact on the child's wellbeing and mental health.

A. SEL and Its Effects on Brain Development in Young Children

The early emotional experiences of young children become literally embedded in the architecture of their brains as they develop (National Scientific Council on the Developing Child, 2004, 2011, 2016). The increased neuroplasticity during early childhood renders the brain particularly sensitive to remodeling by environmental factors (Maccari et al., 2014), and it is a time of significant neurological maturation in many areas of the brain, such as the prefrontal cortex (PFC) (Bunge & Wright, 2007; Tsujimoto, 2008), hippocampus, and the amygdala.

The PFC is the region of the brain located just behind the human forehead and is responsible for executive functioning, such as reasoning, emotion regulation, and sustained and selective attention. These are critical functions for successful academic achievement, and the development of prosocial behaviors and supportive and caring relationships (e.g., Werchan et al., 2016). The hippocampus is closely involved in essential memory functions, while the amygdala is often referred to as the emotional center of the brain. A smaller, less reactive amygdala is associated with reduced reactivity and greater emotional stability (e.g., Wu et al., 2016). In contrast, early childhood is associated with a more reactive amygdala and low emotion regulation, as the child has not yet learnt how to manage emotions such as anger (Laible et al., 2014). As the child progressively develops social and emotional competences, their ability to manage their emotions increases.

Conversely, early life stress and emotional adversity can have negative effects lasting into adulthood (Pechtel & Pizzagalli, 2011). As Maccari et al. (2014) state, early negative experiences can affect adult mental health, and alter mechanisms of resilience to stress across the entire lifespan of that person.

B. SEL and School Interventions in Early Education

Social and emotional competence supports the social relationships and school success of the pre-primary child and increased resilience when faced with uncertain and emotionally challenging circumstances (Denham & Basset, 2019). Young children may be more sensitive to stressful environments than older children, and therefore more sensitive to the benefits of positive social engagement and reduced stress (Lin, 2018).

The optimum development of social and emotional competences in children, and especially young children, is closely correlated with increased mental health and wellbeing in later life. Indeed, the Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University (2016) underscores that the capacities developed during childhood are the building blocks of a well-functioning, prosperous, and sustainable society: from positive school achievement and economic self-sufficiency to responsible adult behavior and lifelong health.

In this very real way, exposure to positive environmental stimuli- such as that found in a supportive classroom- is correlated with beneficial brain development. SEL interventions in schools have reported highly beneficial results in the short, mid, and long term. Durlak et al. (2010) analyzed 69 after-school programs and found close correlation with increased school grades and academic performance, and significant improvement in self-perceptions, bonding to school, and positive social behaviors.

Likewise, Durlak et al. (2011) analyzed 213 school-based programs involving 270,000 children, and reported significantly improved social and emotional skills, attitudes, behavior, and academic performance. Similarly, Jones et al. (2015) found statistically significant associations between increased social and emotional skill development in pre-primary with gains in education, employment, mental health, and reduced criminal activity and substance abuse after 13 -19 years.
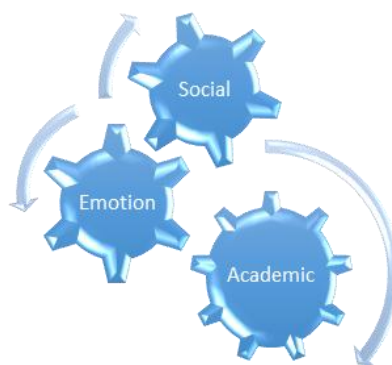
Figure 1. Research (e.g., Durlak et al., 2010, 1011; Jones et al., 2015) Evidences the Close Relationship Between Social and Emotional Skills, and Academic Performance

Given the developmental stage of the young child, SEL interventions need to be designed specifically for this age group. In contrast to later educational stages, children in pre- and early primary are more dependent on external support and adult management to regulate their behaviors and emotions. Hence, adult support and positive classroom management play a particularly central role in promoting social-emotional competencies (Bierman & Motamedi, 2015).

III. WHY DEVELOP SEL THROUGH EARLY CLIL?

Alongside the need to develop SEL is the current educational reality in many parts of Europe, and especially Spain. Early education has been encompassed by the growing trend of bilingual education. Over the last two decades, CLIL has been promoted as the leading approach by the European Commission (Council of Europe, 2005; Eurydice, 2007), and within Spain at a regional level by the local educational authorities.

This exponential growth of CLIL has seen, within the Madrid region alone, over a twenty-fold increase in the number of infant and primary bilingual schools in the seventeen years since the bilingual program was first introduced by the local educational authority. An initial cohort of 26 infant and primary schools in 2004-2005 (BOCM, 2004) has grown to 615 state and charter infant and primary bilingual schools in 2020-2021 (*Consejería de Educación, Universidades, Ciencia y Portavocía de la Comunidad de Madrid,* 2021, p. 35). It is therefore essential to consider how the social and emotional needs of young children are met in a CLIL learning context.

A. The Main Tenets for Developing SEL Through CLIL

CLIL, as an umbrella term, brings together an amalgamation of diverse and effective teaching praxis (Council of Europe, 2005, p. 5). However, the extensive implementation of CLIL is not free of controversy: while very few studies argue against the beneficial effects of incorporating SEL into the classroom, the same cannot be said of CLIL and bilingual education. Having started from a point of high social acceptance -almost CLIL fever-, in recent years CLIL has started to take more of a battering. Pérez Cañado has referred to this as the "pendulum effect", with the "CLIL craze" swinging to the "CLIL conundrum" (2016, p. 21).

Notwithstanding, there is a considerable body of research that coincides with the effectiveness of techniques advocated as part of a successful CLIL approach to bilingual teaching. These include techniques that promote social and emotional competence within CLIL, such as the extensive use of team, cooperative and collaborative work (Sierra, 2011) and pupil interaction (Pavón Vázquez et al., 2015). Research furthermore suggests that CLIL favors dialogic teaching (Li & Zhang, 2022; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2012), increased scaffolding (Carloni, 2018; Mahan, 2022) and motivation (e.g., Doiz et al., 2014), all of which arguably stimulate pupil participation and active learning. The use of mindfulness and experiential learning can be a powerful tool to support SEL in CLIL contexts in pre-primary (Mortimore, in press) and primary (Mortimore, 2017a, 2017b).

With very young children in CLIL, common techniques also include play (Coyle et al., 2010), singing, use of toys, visuals, and manipulatives (Andúgar & Cortina-Pérez, 2018). These can be used alongside activities that promote psychomotor development such as movement, dance, and drama. Physical Education (P.E.) classes can be a powerful tool for both SEL and CLIL: they stimulate the use of team collaboration and goal orientation, and encourage internalization through repeated practice (Kahn et al., 2019). In young children, the development of motor skills is linked to executive functioning and academic achievement such as reading, writing and math skills (McClelland & Cameron, 2019). In older children (average age 13), Fernández-Barrionuevo et al. (2021) propose that CLIL in P.E. supports the growth of autonomy, through the use of teaching techniques such as offering encouragement, informative feedback, being open to answering questions and allowing the pupils freedom in how to express themselves in the additional language.

B. CLIL, SEL and Classroom Climate: A Close Relationship?

A key factor to the successful implementation of SEL and improved wellbeing is the classroom climate that young children are exposed to for a sizeable portion of their waking hours. Definitions of classroom climate largely refer to teacher-pupil and peer relationships (Ingemarson et al., 2019). Diverse factors affect classroom climate, including both teacher-centered and learner-centered issues. The former includes class management and teacher attitude and praise. The latter ranges from pupil motivation to attitude, behavior, and disruption.

While the exact terms used may vary, there is a small but growing body of research highlighting the importance of classroom climate. In this respect, this paper points out that a healthy classroom climate is a key factor in the optimum development of both SEL (e.g., Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Merritt et al., 2012; Schonert-Reichl, 2017; Schonert Reichl et al., 2017) and CLIL (e.g., Gámez Fernández, 2020; Ohlbeger & Wegner, 2019; Sierra 2011). Research underscores that classroom climate can have a significant impact on the socioemotional adjustment of the pupil, their attitude, and their academic performance (Sher-Censor et al., 2019). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) explicitly attest to the beneficial effects of the prosocial classroom, as creating a climate that is both conducive to learning while promoting positive developmental outcomes among students. Similarly, results from a study of 47 pre-primary classrooms emphasized the importance of response and sensitive interactions in promoting prosocial behaviors (Pakarinen et al., 2020).

The classroom, and in particular the language classroom, has frequently been recognized as a high stress-inducing context, the latter being associated with the negative phenomenon of foreign language anxiety (e.g., Simons et al., 2019). It is undeniable that pupils under the age of 16 have not chosen to be at school, nor have they chosen to be in their teachers' classes. They have not chosen their classmates and may have no relationship with their peers outside of this environment. They have not chosen "to do as they are told". Equally, they have no, or very little, voice in the materials they will cover, the books they will read and study, or the activities they will be obliged to participate in. Children, and young children especially, are, to all effects and purposes, rendered powerless within their learning environment. Within a language classroom, they may additionally be required to communicate in a language they do not know or feel comfortable communicating in. In a CLIL learning context, this is extended outside of the EFL classroom and encompasses many other curricular areas.

In this context, it is vital that teachers are aware of the need to create a supportive and constructive atmosphere and employ techniques that stimulate engagement and motivation to promote both learning *and* wellbeing. Teachers can have a dramatic effect on the class "mood", with research reporting a positive correlation between teacher disposition and pupil attitude (Alonso-Tapia & Ruiz-Díaz, 2022). Extensive research suggests that CLIL contexts are less stress-inducing than their non-CLIL counterparts (e.g., De Smet et al., 2018; Simons et al., 2019; among others). Studies furthermore report enhanced pupil autonomy, responsibility, sense of belonging (Halbach & Iwaniec, 2020) and increased motivation (e.g., Pfenninger, 2018). Additionally, student-centered methodologies such as increased project and task-based learning, scaffolding techniques, and formative assessment are particularly capitalized upon in the CLIL classroom (Pérez Cañado, 2021).

One of the major criticisms of bilingual education in this regard is a reduced attention to diversity (e.g., Rumlich, 2014). However, attention to diversity is frequently lacking across educational contexts, and is not limited to bilingual settings (Durán Martinez et al., 2020). Supporting diversity is not easy, and many pre-primary programs do not do it successfully (Sanders & Downer, 2012).

Nevertheless, recent years appear to have seen an increased awareness of the need for attention to diversity in the bilingual classroom. Specifically, the project Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education (ADiBE), a European initiative headed by the team at Universidad de Jaén, was aimed at addressing the need for inclusive CLIL practices. The project produced teacher-friendly materials aimed at creating a more inclusive and supportive bilingual classroom (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2021). Interestingly, it may be that very heterogeneous CLIL classrooms could be doubly beneficial: Ohlerger and Wagner (2019) found that greater diversity in CLIL classrooms also resulted in pupils self-reporting reduced anxiety and increased self-efficacy.

In this line, Durán Martinez et al. (2020) attest to the importance of teachers having both the awareness *and* the necessary knowledge as to how to create an inclusive class that provides a supportive and constructive atmosphere. The close relationship between the successful development of SEL through early CLIL, and a supportive classroom climate is illustrated below in Figure 2:
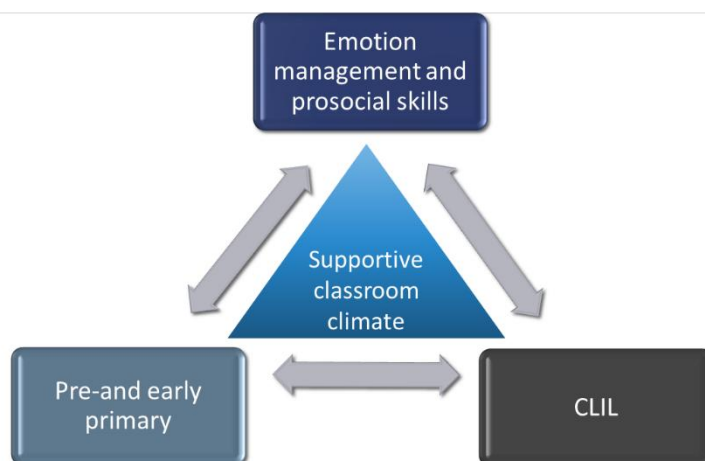
Figure 2. Relationship Between Pre-primary CLIL and the Development of Social and Emotional Skills

As can be seen in the figure above, without a supportive classroom climate, the other elements fail to flourish. Non-supportive classroom climates and conflictive teacher-pupil relationships are correlated with reduced stress regulation and an increase in negative pupil behaviors in early primary classrooms (Ahnert et al., 2012), and are a predicting factor to learning stress and burnout (Yang & Chen, 2016). In addition, learning is adversely affected by increased stress and anxiety levels (Moriceau et al., 2009), which affect critical areas such as attention, engagement, and memory (Schwabe et al., 2008). Indeed, the need to address these issues has become even more pressing with the aftereffects of the Covid-19 pandemic with children suffering an increased risk of negative mood, anxiety, attention difficulties and social challenges (Teal Raffaele et al., 2021). Specific teacher training that helps prepare teachers to deal with emotionally challenging classroom situations is key.

IV. CHALLENGES FOR IMPLEMENTING SEL THROUGH CLIL: THE GAPS IN LEGISLATION AND TEACHER TRAINING

Despite the high compatibility of SEL and CLIL, challenges exist that can impede the development of social and emotional competence within CLIL contexts, and indeed amongst its monolingual counterparts. These include the gap, or at least somewhat haphazard provision of specific legislation and teacher training for SEL and CLIL.

A. SEL: Absence of Specific Legislation and Framework

As with all aspects of education, legislation is key to the development of SEL through CLIL as it lays the foundation to *how* it is implemented and the *extent* of that implementation. In this regard, we need to briefly review existing legislation for both SEL and for CLIL contexts. This has been done within the specific context of Spain, where education is devolved to each autonomous community, though all regional legislation is subject to national law.

Generally, Spanish educational law, such as the 2020 Law of Education, known as the LOMLOE (*Ley Orgánica 3/2020, por la que se modifica la Ley Orgánica 2/2006*), and the earlier Royal Decree of 2006 (*Real Decreto 1630/2006*) which specifically regulates pre-primary education, make reference to the need to develop social and emotional competence. This is done, however, without providing a framework within which it may take place. A similar provision for SEL is echoed in regional laws.

Regarding bilingual education and CLIL, the situation is very different. The aforementioned national laws make scant reference to the development of language and the provision for CLIL learning contexts. In contrast, autonomous communities have each implanted their own bilingual programs, resulting in a mishmash of 17 different models (Andúgar et al., 2019), with significant differences between them (López Rupérez et al., 2019).This lack of national consensus in the implementation of bilingual education, combined with a lack of detailed provision for the development of social and emotional competences has most certainly not facilitated the teaching and learning of SEL through CLIL.

B. Specific Teacher Training in CLIL and SEL

Similarly, teacher training is a central issue for the successful implementation of SEL and CLIL. Standard teacher training often fails to include specific preparation on both SEL (e.g., CASEL, 2021) and bilingual education (e.g., Pavón Vázquez & Ellison, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2018). This was summed up by Greenberg et al., who reported the often "chaotic nature of the field of teacher preparation" (2014, p. 93) in a nationwide survey in the US.

While teachers are pivotal to the success of SEL and are uniquely positioned to develop it, there is a lack of exposure in their training to modules that are specifically related to social, emotional, and behavioral problems (Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University, 2016; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; State et al., 2011).Within bilingual education, a similar problem exists: no specific teacher training is required for teachers to participate in bilingual programs. Standard teacher training only includes a very reduced number of, often optional, modules of CLIL (Vinuesa, 2021). In this regard, Pérez Cañado (2018) encapsulates the solution with four points: i) a need for the modification of

existing degrees in teacher training to guarantee sufficient methodological training; ii) specific CLIL preparation for university teacher trainers; iii) the creation of new degrees in bilingual education; and iv) tailored courses for pre- and in-service teachers.

V. WAYS FORWARD FOR SEL THROUGH CLIL: PEDAGOGICAL STRATEGIES

While challenges to the extensive implementation of SEL through CLIL may exist, there are certain pedagogical strategies that a teacher can incorporate to build a foundation for the effective development of social and emotional competence with young children through CLIL:

- Be S.A.F.E. (CASEL, 2021; Durlak et al., 2010, 2011): an acronym for four different elements that all SEL instruction and activities should include:
  - **Sequenced**- activities are connected and coordinated to foster skills development;
  - **Active**- active forms of learning to help students master new skills;
  - **Focused**- containing activities that clearly emphasize developing personal and social skills;
  - **Explicit**- targeting specific social and emotional skills.

Mortimore (2017a; 2023) reports that these elements are highly compatible with CLIL teaching and learning strategies in pre-primary and primary.

- Build resilience through play: self-directed and active play helps children build core skills to cope with stress and resilience and is one of the most important strategies to help children develop social relationships, test their limits, adapt to new circumstances and cope with adverse circumstances (Center on the Developing Child at Harvard University, 2016). Appropriate play with peers is a singular opportunity to promote the social, emotional, cognitive, language, and self-regulation skills that build executive function and a prosocial brain (Yogman et al., 2018).
- Incorporate CLIL strategies to the maximum: active learner-centered activities such as collaborative, cooperative, and project-based learning. Like play, these are classroom equivalents that help build prosocial brains, engagement, autonomy, and self-regulation.
- Create a supportive and constructive learning environment through dialogic teaching and active and constructive teacher-pupil feedback to develop high levels of pupil-pupil and teacher-pupil interaction (Church et al., 2001). This feedback should include four essential steps, as reported by Swinson and Harrop (2012): i) make instructions clear and specific; ii) look for and explicitly acknowledge pupils who are following those instructions; iii) frequently acknowledge and praise any pupil when he/she is doing whatever they have been requested to do; iv) know how to deal with inappropriate behavior.
- Integrate physical activity and movement into everyday teaching and learning, especially within the classroom as an alternative to sitting at the table or desk. This can be optimized by teaching the subject of Physical Education (primary) and the development of psychomotor skills (pre-primary) through CLIL.

VI. CONCLUSION

With the educational reality of extensive bilingual education for all, there is an obligation to ensure that young children in bilingual classrooms have sufficient opportunities to fully develop social and emotional competences from an early age. The need for social and emotional learning in bilingual pre-primary gains further relevance when we consider that a significant portion of the school day takes place in the children's L2, a language of which they may feasibly have no, or very limited, knowledge.

CLIL pre-primary classrooms, with a focus on contextualized ludic activities (Coyle et al., 2010) and active, learner-centered methodologies appear highly compatible with the development of social and emotional skills. Furthermore, this article suggests that CLIL practices can be adapted to explicitly promote SEL, and specifically recommends that a constructive and supportive classroom atmosphere favors the implementation of CLIL and the development of SEL in pre-primary. In this regard, this paper concludes that all educational systems should, and can, explicitly include SEL modules. All stakeholders share the responsibility to ensure its optimum development for pupils' lasting wellbeing. The responsibility of the development of social and emotional competences should not fall solely on direct caregivers such as parents and teachers.

Nevertheless, there are significant challenges to overcome. Key factors, such as the explicit inclusion of SEL in legislation across educational contexts are noticeably absent. Educational authorities need to make specific provision for the development of SEL in all educational settings, including pre-primary CLIL. Furthermore, in line with existing school-wide programs for the implementation of CLIL, a similar provision for SEL where all pupils can participate in SEL specific activities would be highly beneficial.

Likewise, this article concurs with existing literature for the need for CLIL teacher training programs. In this regard, given the mutual compatibility of SEL and CLIL as proposed in this paper, the author suggests that pre-service and in-service bilingual teacher training programs are ideally positioned to encompass specific SEL modules that specifically deal with teaching SEL in CLIL educational contexts.

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Inadequate Top-Down Information and Vowel Judgement

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Abstract—The current study evaluates the accountability of Native Listeners (NLs). The study recruited speakers from a mixture of Arabic dialects and accents as one group and LAFL as another group where both groups spoke actual Arabic words with long and short vowels in contrast. A main consequence of choosing the present experimental manipulation is the outcome that NLs of Arabic had increasingly slow right recognitions in the follow-on test. The conclusion of the present experimental manipulation supports the claim that the handling of words is delayed if data accessible to NLs is incomplete. Additionally, this experimental manipulation adds to our awareness of the accountability of the NLs themselves towards LAFL. The study is expected to assist in considering the accountability of listeners in the communication barrier as explained by the inadequate top-down processing.

Index Terms—listeners, vowel, Arabic, speakers, processing

I. INTRODUCTION

Recent studies on second language acquisition (Wiertelak, 2021; Borkowska, 2021; Pastushenkov et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2019; Stroud, 2019; Yashima et al., 2017) have managed to provide theoretical prudent accounts for the problem of pedagogical methods profoundly required to improve and boost communication between native and non-native speakers from different levels of language attainment. Such linguistic studies did not thoroughly invest equitable focus on the native listeners (hence NLs) themselves but on the speakers as the initial senders of the linguistic message (Effiong, 2016; Prohorets & Plekhanova, 2015). For example, Arabic language has a critical number of Learners of Arabic as A Foreign Language (hence LAFL) in the aftermath of September 2001. Commonly, the language of LAFL continually fluctuates as indicated by the communicative burden interlanguage puts on the NLs. A number of studies (Wede, 2014; Sincero, 2013; Eriksson et al., 2001) recommend that NLs cannot utilize the top-down data not provided

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by the context of communication if some of such basic information is underprovided. In the current analysis of this study, the researchers attempt to prudently offer a practical experimental linguistic account of why NLs are ineffective in quick and precise understanding of LAFL. Furthermore, they aimed to examine the cost of such comprehension inadequacy. "Comprehensibility" clarifications expect that LAFL are less understandable. Lev-Ari (2015) found out that NLs boosted their dependence on the top-down strategy and shortened the bottom-up techniques. Yet, the linguistic inquiry is to imagine a communicative scenario in which top-down data is unavailable or incomplete. NLs may not utilize extra assets to the top-down measures if deficient data isn't somehow accessible by them when taking care of the language of LAFL. Henceforth, NLs may rely on bottom-up hints only and thus may be inadequate. At this point, this may result in hindering effective communication. NLs realize how to fortify the benefit of extra-phonetic information if and only if such phonetic information exists. NLs start with the general input provided by speakers and then with the phonetic setting and subsequently employ their language expectations only if they are truly available in the context (Lev-Ari, 2015). NLs utilize logical data, albeit sometimes it doesn't uncover adequate language data (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2012). NLs of any naturally spoken language may show an assorted disturbance, disappointment, and some prejudice with unsuitable language outputs since such absence of ability may suggest an odd language, vulnerability, and inconsistency (Munro et al., 2006). Rubin (1992) utilized language tests of American English using a created photo of the subjects. This image belonged to a "White lady" and participants who listened to her voice appraised her discourse as complemented when compared to the "Asian lady". The participants in the above study had an option to remap the special depiction just once they accepted that the abnormality in speaking is brought about by a different speaker. The listener's preparation in Top-down uses all appropriate data originating in circumstance and immediate setting. Perusing complex penmanship is seriously very encouraging if peruses read a linguistic and significant articulation, yet the perusing is requesting once people read detached words. The assistance in perusing happens considering the fundamental piece of proof that the contiguous words are bound to give help given that the relevant data coordinates significance generally (Federmeier & Kutas, 2005). Insights concerning letters or sounds, word recurrence, and sentence development sort showing up input. The higher period of mindfulness in comprehension and linguistic assumptions do impact the bottom-up processing positively. And top-down linguist preparation dominates mindfulness as individuals start handling significant reasoning and incredible appraisal before working with subtle communication, handling starts from the normal to the specific; so, the impressions can oversee what people group by utilizing their different faculties. Previous perspectives control the methodology and the way people survey or assess the nature of dialects. Language listeners can sometimes accept certain language expectations about learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. Top-down handling is a reasonably determined preparation. Along these lines, judgment on speakers is constrained by all accounts once people are unmindful of such norms. Hence, listeners can always work with an opinionated approach due to their immediate understanding of the linguistic context. At that point, they stand as an inclination headed for grasping discourse just by overlooking any remaining outside subtleties. What we see is significantly biased by foundations and mentalities, commonality and assumptions, inspirations, and feelings.

The phonological acknowledgment of contrastive vowel length fluctuates in its consistency. If a LAFL speaker displays a mistaken vowel term, the NLs may misinterpret expressions. The vowel measurements in almost all dialects and accents of Arabic implicate contrastive length (Abu Rabia, 2019). Arabic exhibits differences from long to partners (Al-Ani, 1970; Aissiou, 2020). To describe:

Short	meaning	Long	meaning
/ sal /	ask	/ saːl /	drain forward
/ dʒɪd /	find	/ dʒiːd /	neck
/ ful /	flowers	/ fuːl /	fava beans

A few phonetic and phonological components may decide on the characteristic of imprecise pronunciation of Arabic vowels. In the first place, LAFL can display vowel imprecision, which brings about irregularity in creating precise vowel lengths. Interestingly, NLs who are new to LAFL evaluate LAFL as off-base (Rubin & Smith, 1990). Also, preparing delay sorts unfamiliar sounds to be viewed as problematic segment (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2012). When NLs are informed that LAFL uttered the word, we guess that NLs do call for more opportunity for preparing and showing a more mistaken contrastive rate (Rubin, 1992). The current testing inspects the linguistic notion that NLs is impacted by their language expectation about learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language, which has an easing back tension on their capacity or ability to effectively distinguish a given phonological differentiation when realizing that LAFL delivered a portion of the uttered words. In principle, the current testing examines the comprehension capacity of the NLs without empowering appropriate linguistic or extra linguistic information. All in all, immediate context is totally detached from ongoing communication. For example, non-verbal communication, phonetic setting, sound, and basic setting are all missing. Such signals as often as possible help NLs address a few testing words by utilizing top-down preparation. The fundamental rationale behind the current testing and manipulation is to value the tactical power of the NLs in making Arabic communication more effective or somehow blocked when NLs have inadequate information regarding learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. Moreover, this paper does not discuss consonant variation. For consonant variations see Omari and Van Herk (2016).

II. EXPERIMENT AND DESIGN

The recruited Arab speakers in this study speak Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) along with a spectrum of other regional codes such as Ammani Accent, Iraqi vernacular, Syrian dialect, and Cairene Arabic. The recruited LAFL speak American English. The current analysis in this study relied upon a few Arabic words (minimal pairs). The sets are obviously contrastive in vowel length where a change in length of the vowel results in a change in the meaning of the written and the spoken word. To begin with, the researchers in this study notified all hearers that they were going to listen to participants from different regions, yet the researchers didn't guide the participants that this test incorporated LAFL tokens. By the follow-on testing, the researchers informed all NLs to listen to native participants plus learners of Arabic as foreign Language participants. This control (manipulation) should notice the effect of the listeners ' assumptions regarding the creations of learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. All NLs now know that some tokens are heard from LAFL participants and native participants from different regional dialects.

A. Experiment

The first group of NLs of Arabic underwent a lexical "identification task". All NLs listened to word sets. Only a single expression was used in each test trial. The researchers notified the NLs of Arabic that a number of real and meaningful words would be heard over a headphone. And at the same time, 2 correctly spelled words would instantaneously come into view on the computer screen. The researchers invited subjects to choose accurately which of the 2 visually presented words exhibits a match with the heard lexeme. Those presented lexical items are contrastive pairs (similar in graphemes) but not the single grapheme which alters the contrastive vocalic duration. Minimal pairs from the original production experiment were evaluated two times by (NAL). Initially, NLs were not given information about the participation of LAFL speakers. This convinced the NAL that mixed words from diverse dialects and around the region were used, and the non-native ' stimuli were randomly embedded as well. Then, NLs were overtly notified to listen to minimal pairs from Arabic <u>who are native</u> and to listen to another group of Arabic speakers who are learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. Such an instructional variation enabled the researchers to observe such force of participants' attitude towards length variation in vocalic distinctions. The NLs in the study were 40 students: 20 females and 20 males enrolled at Hashemite University. Their mean age is 20.1 with 1.2 SD.

B. Stimuli

Nine Arabic sets were utilized. Three insignificant sets were unmistakable in the length of the front vowel, and three of the sets were particular in the vowel duration. But the other three sets were different as far as the term of back vowels (see Table one below). By recording, uttered words were taken from discussions during normal classes at the university. The word sets addressed the focal issue of in-class debates in deliberately planned conversation exercises. Furthermore, the research group mentioned subjects to utilize the targeted words in very much shaped and characteristic sentences.

TABLE 1
VOWELS

Type	Length				
	Short		Long		
High front	/ bɪr /	giving	/ biːr /	water will	
	/ʕɪb /	chest	/ ʕiːb /	criticize	
	/ sɪb/	curse	/ siːb/	let go	
Low front	/ dʒad /	worked hard	/ dʒaːd /	generously donated	
	/ dar /	produced milk	/ daːr /	home	
	/ ħad /	Sunday	/ ħaːd /	sharp	
High back	/ dʒud /	be generous	/ dʒuːd /	proper name	
	/ sud /	block	/ suːd /	gloomy	
	/ ful /	flowers	/ fuːl/	fava beans	

All words were obtained from 10 native and 10 LAFL who articulated 18 words (3 words for every vowel) with an amount of 360 target words. The words were monosyllabic, mean is divergent if, and only if, the vowel is adjusted (short versus long). There are extremely minor contrasts across all Arabic regions in the length of vowels.

C. Design and Procedure

As the recorded sets for the judgment experiment were induced from 10 native and 10 externals, who articulated eighteen words (three words from every vowel), 360 objective words were obtained. The words were essentially monosyllabic sets where dissimilarity is attained only if the vowel is adjusted (short versus long). There are minor contrasts across all Arabic varieties in the length of vowels. Diversity in listeners from different scopes controls the listening result (Munro et al., 2006).

III. RESULTS

Models of mixed-effects were used to incorporate response/reaction time (RT), estimated in milliseconds (measure variable) and with 2 treatment variables: native-ness (native versus LAFL speaker) and test package (primary part versus second part). The testing comprised of every single possible variable and cooperation at stage 1 to eliminate

irrelevant ones expecting to accomplish a definitive model. By utilizing the calculated capacity and the binomial variance, the subjects' error rates were examined also. Accordingly, 2% of the measurements were isolated from the testing since they were very odd and not predictable with different reactions.

A mixed-effects model was significant in normal response time (RTs) including NLs' reaction to the insignificant sets for native, mean = 1103, as well as their response to negligible sets for learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language, mean = 1180, as the last fixed impact remained consistent (main testing), p = 0.0001. Furthermore, results revealed that subjects essentially (p = 0.0001) expanded the response time in the primary testing by around 80 ms. Yet, the model showed interactions concerning the trial part and the speaker's native-ness (p = 0.001), entailing that their effects on listeners ' response time wasn't separate. Nevertheless, they relied on levels of former variables. The subjects' normal response time (RT) to the words verbally spoken by LAFL in the follow-on testing, mean = 1239, was less (58 ms) than the normal reaction time to the alike relating stimuli produced by the identical LAFL during the primary testing.

Assessment of right reactions shows that NLs responded precisely to both native and LAFL words through more than [80%] of sets across the primary part and in the follow-on testing strategy. The derivation is that NLs are phenomenal at recognizing LAFL' sets. However, results show that listeners displayed a 2% expansion in the judgment accuracy to the badge of natives during second testing [93%] differentiated from our primary division testing [95%]. Particularly, slight increments were connected with an impact of the acquaintance since NLs heard the same stimuli multiple times. Then again, NLs displayed a 6% decrease in the judgment exactness for the badge of the LAFL in the second part of the testing [78%] differentiated to their near precision for the similar badge of the LAFL in the second part of the testing [84%]. In any case, the analyst group expected it to rise because of the acquaintance. Standing out from native, LAFL submitted less differentiation between words in the pre-test and post-test.

The native Arabic subjects during follow-on testing expanded the log odd of the NLs ' exactness by 0.27, which stood out from the primary testing. Alternately, the analysis showed interaction with LAFL in the following testing was [0.33] which is less than the log odds across the correct reactions towards indistinguishable LAFL during primary testing. As recently demonstrated, such a difference is small in the probabilities since the likelihood size for the right reactions was just boosted (i.e., almost 100%) for testing division and native-ness. The results of RTs and exactness rates imply that consciousness of vowel duration is dependent on the speaker's correct speech as well as on the NLs' tolerance of the LAFL speaker.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The current paper tried to examine listeners' consciousness of the phonemic vowel duration in Arabic as produced by non-native speakers. The language stimuli in the current investigation were produced by both natives and non-natives across detached Arabic words without context-oriented data. The single top-down detail that was determined to listeners was that the words in the second part of the test had some LAFL in the current study. The testing in this study did two pieces of a speech judgment analysis. In the first part, all NLs were not informed that the words were articulated by foreign learners of Arabic which is a lack of information that may or may not hinder their ability to accelerate the speed of identification of the Arabic words. After that, we had to tell listeners that both native and LAFL were included in the study. All listeners in the second manipulation took a more handling timing with the Arabic phonemic words of LAFL when listeners were informed about learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. More Arabic words and thus (vowels) were misidentified by some of the NLs in the follow-on test which suggests that the NLs of Arabic were impacted by the prior anticipations or beliefs about the non-natives (Lev–Ari, 2015). The above testing tried to focus on a single perspective, that is NLs' mindfulness of such inclusion of "outlandish" utterers in the follow-on portion of the research. All Arab Listeners were not presented with other information regarding such learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. At the point, when the native subjects were given one top-down detail (learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language), they did show somehow a less awareness rate, and they required more time for processing contrastive words. The assessment of such contrastive words will be somehow dependent on the prior information which is directly given to Arab listeners; expecting LAFL to be incompetent as indicated by postponed handling by Arab listeners. We believe that such listeners may had no top-down strategies to handle such a subtle situation, which normally smooths the predicted progression of tuning in by furnishing the listeners with insights concerning the anticipated acclimatization to LAFL speech. Also, it seems that vowel length of the LAFL may propose preparing to time if the NLs expect that the LAFL vowel term is uncertain. The isolated speech of Arabic words then may be impacted by the language mode of listeners' assumptions regarding the foreign speaker's linguistic background since we usually anticipate that foreign speakers are usually incompetent speakers and thus we as native listeners tend to underrate their language productions (Grosjean, 2008). Lev-Ari (2015) affirmed that NLs modify the style of handling time once native listeners anticipate a reduced amount of consistent "alien" discourse. In any case, Lev-Ari (2015) grouped those NLs with working memory as extraordinary listeners depending on setting-oriented data to anticipate the circumstance. Albeit some top-down strategies are missing (setting), listeners may not prepare the precise answer for the reason that accessible data wasn't giving satisfactory intricacy to smooth the comprehension of the speech. Listeners' forecasts started this end as the logical data of words was missing and hence listeners were not doing perfectly in the phonological intricacy.

The current inspection can extend the results of the testing to different sorts of people like aphasic and dyslexic individuals. Listeners whether native or non-native should attempt to show some degree of adaptability to imperfect

speakers. However, there could be a few cut-off points to such adaptability (Lev-Ari, 2015). The findings of the current testing give a point of reference commitment to the job of the past expectations about the accuracy of LAFL discourse. Listeners may decide not to conform to mistaken discourse, especially if no decent setting is available. Lev-Ari and Keysar (2012) inferred that if NLs survey natives, they assess them as generally correct, yet they appraised LAFL as less correct. They also maintained that when discourse exists through an unusual emphasis, listeners are not willing to accept it. Then they generate expectations about speech, as opposed to whatever LAFL genuinely say. In their view, there is additional energy that our minds need to process "uncommon" expressions. At that point, we tacitly assume the incorrectness of the LAFL speaker. Lev-Ari and Keysar (2012) claimed that listeners willing to adjust to LAFL discourse are proficient.

Different from most approaches dealing with second-language attainment that do not place any accountability on the NLs, the current testing examines NLs accountability. The central issue here was to identify the power of the NLs to improve or hinder communication. The testing embraced a novel methodology. We tested NLs twice: once without any background details concerning LAFL and another with one detail which is the fact that some LAFL are included in the Arabic stimuli. Such a manipulated test was carefully planned to show the processing situation of NLs. The noteworthy wrap-up is that NLs of Arabic ended the test with a reduced amount of correct acknowledgment of words once listeners realized the fact that some were learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. Such normal consequence confirms the essential presumption that NLs can be very accountable for the consistent impediment of the language communication if they are not given the adequate information from the rich context. From a pedagogical point of view, students from unknown dialects need to attempt to expand their language exactness (phonetic and phonological) by trying to create native-like vowels to try to boost the positive effort of the NLs in trying to minimize the lag in perception. Tests in this "perceptual set" experiment provided undeniable commitments to the psycholinguistic perspective of the accountability of the NLs themselves, and the tests add to the comprehension of the connection between NLs and learners of Arabic as a Foreign Language. This helps us, researchers and educators, to profoundly think about the ignored capacity of NLs in executing effective discourse.

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Stories From the Margin: Theorizing and Historicizing Testimonial Writings in Regional Indian Literature

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Abstract—Testimonio is a new genre that emerged in the 1960s in Latin America and came to be used by liberation and social movements of women, black, Adivasis, and other oppressed people. As the oppressed reasserted themselves publicly, their voices became more audible, and they began to vigorously develop their strategies for effective communication. When the oppressed find the existing genre is not appropriate to express their feelings, they start to introduce new forms of literature; it is because of the existing genre's inadequacy of representing the oppressed in early literary forms like novels, short stories, essays, picaresque novels, lyrics, sonnets, autobiographies, and secular theatres. This paper is an attempt to engage with the ongoing debate of the testimonio literature in post-colonial Writings. Taking some works written in Indian Regional Literature, we pose the question that the marginalized and indigenous people start to reflect on their lives through literature and a new type of genre called 'Testimonio Literature' is slowly emerging from the margin. To extend the scope of the question, we take a few autobiographical anecdotes and narratives on such marginalized lives. We argue that marginalized lives have never been represented as they deserve, and their identity is always hidden in the wider genre of literature.

Index Terms—testimonio literature, biography of a runaway slave, Indian writing in English, post-colonial literature, marginalized literature

I. INTRODUCTION

Social struggle creates new forms of literature (Beverley, 1996, p. 23). Testimonio is a new genre that emerged in the 1960s in Latin America and came to be used by liberation and social movements of women, black, and other oppressed people (Dinegri, 1998, p. 230). These movements empowered people who had been silenced before, and who henceforth would begin to express their will to take control of their lives. As the oppressed reasserted themselves publicly, their voices became more audible, and they began to vigorously develop their strategies for effective communication.

When the oppressed find the existing genre is not appropriate to express their feelings, they start to introduce new forms of literature; it is because of the existing genre's inadequacy of representing the oppressed in early literary forms like novels, short stories, essays, picaresque novels, lyrics, sonnets, autobiographies, and secular theaters. But after years of colonialism, the colonized people developed new forms of literature to represent themselves in their words. Testimonio and testimonial novels are among these new forms which developed an urge to think beyond accepted genres and represent the feelings of exploited people. In this sense, the testimonio is part of the literature of the oppressed that gives voice to people whose voices are not captured by conservative literary genres.

At the same time, the literature of the oppressed should also be treated as their testimonio. Testimonio is polyphonic[1] in nature. It is powerful because it weighs to bear society's words. Testimonio is not fictional, but it is real, it depicts real stories and events as faced by a narrator, a style through which the oppressed speak to society (Anand, 2004). In this sense, the testimonio is a new post-fictional form of literature with significant cultural and political repercussions (Beverley, 1996, p. 13). This is in sharp contrast to the novel which is seen as having a special relationship with humanism and the rise of the European bourgeois class. Novels usually presented some ideal European characters at the beginning. Thus, the testimonio is a new form of narrative literature in which we can at the same time witness and be a

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[1] Polyphonic, here, the word means the sound of the community in which the narrator belongs to (Beverley, 1996). *The Real Thing: Testimonial Discourse and Latin America.* Duke University Press, p. 32.

part of the emerging culture of an international proletarian/ popular/ democratic subject in its period of ascendancy (Gugelberger, 1996, p. 39).

II. OBJECTIVES / RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This paper studies the literature of the marginalized such as Dalits and Adivasis through their self-narratives, autobiographies, and testimonials. The researchers have examined and read Dalit testimonials to understand what and how the narrators visualize their role in society, their relationship with other movements, and their suggestions for the progress of their corresponding castes. Three autobiographies and one Adivasi novel have been taken for the study.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this study, we adopt the comparative methodology. The work focuses on different literary texts such as autobiographies, history texts, and novels are compared to analyze the literature of different writers. We see the difference between the Dalit identity formation through literature in north India and Kerala to examine the relevance of the idea of the Dalit identity and their literature.

IV. SOURCES OF THE STUDY

Primary and secondary sources are used for the study. Primary sources such as autobiographies and texts written by the writers (1. Pokkudan, 2007, *Kandal Kadukalkkidayile Ente Jeevitham*, Kottayam: DC Books., 2. Madayi, 2008, Nagna Jeevithangal (*Naked Lives)*, Kottayam: DC Books., 3. Narayan, 2007, *Kocherathi,* Kottayam: DC Books.), and others form the basis of our study. In addition, Government documents such as the reports of the National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, National Crime Bureau Reports, various surveys, and census reports have also been used to explicate the socio-economic context of the study. Interviews with some subject experts and writers have also been done to get a better understanding of the subject. Secondary sources used in this analysis are books on the subject, newspaper cuttings, periodicals, and articles published in Malayalam periodicals. Analyses of various surveys and censuses were used in the study.

V. DISCUSSION

A. The Testimonio as a Hybrid Genre

Testimonio is a genre that came into existence in Latin America in the 1960s. It was used by movements of national liberation, and social movements of women, the Black, and others to express their collective voices and experiences (Arias, 2001, p. 766). The testimonio is a hybrid genre that incorporates several characteristics from other forms of accepted literature. *The Biography of a Runaway Slave* is the first of its kind in Latin America (Dinegri, 1998, p. 229). The definition of testimonio in the rules of the Casa de las Américas contest is as follows: "Testimonio must document some aspects of Latin American or Caribbean reality from a direct source. A direct source is understood as knowledge of the facts by the author or his or her compilation of narratives or evidence obtained from the individuals involved or qualified witness. In both cases reliable documentation, written or graphic, is indispensable. The form is at the author's discretion, but the literary quality is also indispensable" (Poduval, 2005).

Testimonio can be defined as a text which is told in the first person by a narrator who is also the central character or witness of the events s/he narrates. The unit of narration is usually a 'life' or a significant life experience. Any testimonio, novel, oral history, memoir, confession, diary, interview, eyewitness report, life history, novella-testimonial, non-fictional novel, or 'fractographic-literature' can be considered as a testimonio when it shows these characteristics. In India, Dalit, and woman's life- the narration is an integral part of this life-telling testimonio[2] as it helps them get themselves heard in society. This is significant because the testimonio is the voice of the oppressed and gives them authorized representation in an arena that has otherwise excluded them (Madayi, 2008). In this sense, the testimonio gives the oppressed a language of resistance and expands the boundaries of the accepted literary norms.

It must be borne in mind that the testimonio is an act of testifying or bearing witness to a particular event or the whole life of a person. The connotation is important because testimonio can be distinguished from simply recorded participant narrative as in the case of oral history. Here the narration of an author is supreme. In his/ her narration he/she will cover different problems faced by his/ her community like exploitation by others, poverty, hungry, the problem of repression, poverty, imprisonment, struggle for survival, and so on. So, the testimonio aims to communicate a particular society's affliction and hardship. Here the aesthetic or beauty of the work is avoided (Aston, 2002). The concern is to tell a story of their real-life which is mired with anguish and distress, and which represents an important experience of their community.

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[2] Sharmila Rege has presented Marathi dalit women's self- narratives as testimonios. She suggests that dalit self-narratives 'violate the parameters set by bourgeois autobiography and create testimonios of caste-based oppression, anti- caste struggle and resistance. Rege (2006) *Writing Caste/Writing Gender: Reading Dalit Women's Testimonies*, New Delhi: Zubaan.

The politics of representation is central to the importance of the testimonio since in the new genre oppressed constructed his own story, on his terms and with little mediation from the lettered (Nayar, 2006). In testimonio writing, two cultural groups are dealing with the genre one dominant cultural group is represented by university intelligentsia and other lettered classes, and the second group is the narrator who represents a section of the oppressed people (Dinegri, 1998, p. 231).

Thus, there is a distinct imbalance in the power structure of testimonio writing. The process of writing must come through two processes i.e., the narration of the story by an oppressed person or oppressed to a lettered person and the second step is editing of this narration by an editor. In the first stage, the informant and the narrator articulate their experience to the lettered person. In the second stage, the editor gets more space for a subjective interpretation. S/he can decide what the truth is and how it is to be represented. For instance, Nalini Jameela, a 'sex worker in Kerala rewrote her testimonio in its second edition. She is a less educated woman who told her story to a social activist, I. Gopinath. But when she realized that the text was written according to the editor's discretion she wrote:

> He (the editor) could not professionally write it, because he wrote it in hurry to publish the book immediately. Hence, I decided to rewrite the story again. A group of youth was ready to help me to draft the book using my style. Some ask me whether it is right to rewrite a published work. I do not know whether there is any law to prevent this. But I decided to be the first writer who rewrote her first testimonio (Jameela, 2011).

Jameela's case shows that though the testimonio is a fundamentally democratic and egalitarian narrative form (Anil Kumar, 2004) it too, follows the conventional method of subordinating the power of speech to the might of the written word. The transcriber decides what should be included and what should be excluded (Narayan, 2004). In the process, the text may become hagiographic[3] and romanticize the life of the oppressed.

Testimonio also has some epistemological problems such as the problem of representation. A testimonial narration involves both the political and ethical witnessing of an event (war, oppression, violence, etc.), its aesthetical or literary merits may be ignored. It may be better to see it as an instance of ideologically determined political assertion as in the case of the north Indian Dalit testimonio which is primarily used for asserting Dalit identity. Such an identity often glorifies the romanticizing Dalit background and feeling to represent collective pain (Beth, 2007, p. 550).

B. Reading of the Marginalized Literature (Dalit and Adivasi) as Testimonio

Through the brief description of the testimonio, we have tried to problematize how the marginalized, and the oppressed people are expressing their feelings. Keeping in mind these issues, three autobiographies and one autobiographical novel have been analyzed in this study. Novels, short stories, and other genres in Malayalam which portray Dalit life have been studied by many scholars. But an analysis of the literature on the oppressed has not attracted the attention it deserves. All testimonials, considered here were published after 1995 (Pampirikunnu, 2007, p. 95) and depict the lives of the authors and their communities.

C. My Life Among Mangroves (Kandal Kadukalkkidayile Ente Jeevitham)

The first testimonio is written by Kallen Pokkudan who told his story to Thaha Madayi who is a journalist and writer in Malayalam literature. He has published several interviews and testimonies of oppressed and marginalized people. This is a book based on a Dalit's experiences and worldview. Kallan Pokkudan is a Dalit who was working for the Communist party. Later he became a passive member of the party, because of his desperation for the younger generation of the party and his involvement in environmental activities. This book has two parts, in the first part he explains his experiences as a Dalit and in the rest, he narrates how and why he plants mangroves.

In his view, he expresses caste and caste discrimination are not permanent. He raises a firm stand against those who argue that caste is a permanent entity and should unite on caste identity. He got this notion because he moved along with the Communist party in his childhood. He formed a world view though he gave up his party in his later years. Pokkudan was born in 1937 to a Dalit family. He dropped his education when he was in second class. He became an active member of the communist party when he was 18. When the party split into two in 1964, he continued with CPI (M). He participated in and was in jail several times for his involvement in the farmer's struggle. Later he became a passive member of the party and gave full attention to planting and sustaining mangroves.

Lower caste people manage language not to entertain others, but they deal with language as a tool of expression. Their text is differentiated from the aesthetic sense of upper-caste people. To understand the language of the oppressed the reader needs to give up the stereotypical language of the mainstream which reflects only the lifestyles of the upper caste aestheticism.

Kallan Pokkudan's experience is not a uniform one. It mingled with some experiences as a part of the *pulaya* community and as a member of the communist party. His worldview and ideology reflect in his testimonio. Pokkudan challenges the accepted notions of the autobiographical style. According to our traditional concept of testimonio, an autobiographer should be a famous person who is active in the political or social, or religious arena. It should follow the aesthetic tradition of the *savarna* style romantically or emotionally and should not touch the realities of society. Here Pokkudan wrote against all these ideas. Each experience is the story of the society in which he lives. He became an example to encourage other oppressed people like old medical practitioners in the village, village artists, social activists,

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[3] Hagiographic means a book about the life of a person that praises them too much. (Oxford Advance Learners Dictionary.)

chiefs of tribes, and women folk who suffer a lot from society, to draft their own stories. He said that this would enrich the literature. Pokkudan writes that if the marginalized people start it will change the whole accepted norms of the literature. The day-to-day life of ordinary people is more experienced than that of famous autobiography writers like political and religious leaders, journalists, etc. (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 26).

D. Bellu

The second testimonio is that of Bellu written by Venu Kallar. Bellu is the oldest person in the Koragar[4] community and is a story of men who used to eat the dead body of cattle and other animals. This community now resides only in the Kazaracode district of Kerala and in southern Karnataka. They have been considered an engendered community like the Orang in Andaman Nicobar (Kallar, 2009, pp. 10-11). In 1971, their number was 3460, but this has reduced to 1882 in 2008. Most of them died of TB in middle age and many of them are drug addicts and alcoholics. They believe that they are punished by their deities for not living properly and for not listening to their deities. If they go to the hospital, they believe, their deity *Kallurutti,* will get angry with them. To avoid her anger, they do not go to the hospital even if they are ill (Kallar, 2009, p. 11). The Koraga community was displaced into colonies from forests and because of this their social status has not improved. They depend upon mainstream society for their food and earnings. They even contested in local body elections on reserved seats. The government has spent crores on the development of this society. In this testimonio, he talks about Adivasis being exploited by *sudras, patters,*[5] and brahmin who inhumanly treat them. In short, *Bellu* is about the lifestyle of Adivasis in contemporary Kerala.

E. Kuppuswami, the Cobbler

Thirdly we have selected the story of Kuppuswami. He is a cobbler who belongs to the Chakliya caste. He hailed from Tamil Nadu and moved to Kerala. In his testimonio, he tells his life story. He sees caste discrimination in Tamil Nadu but in Kerala, he faces not much discrimination based on caste (Madayi, 2008, p. 16). His first strike was to protest the municipal chairman's decision to evacuate them from the town. He remembers comrade Krishnan who came into his life and though he does not know anything about the philosophy of the communist party he likes it.

F. Kocherathi

Lastly, we have chosen an Adivasi novel, *Kocherathi,* which has been written by Narayan. It shows the characteristics of a testimonial work rather than a novel. The author received the Kerala Sahitya Academy award for this work. After completing matriculation, he joined the postal department as a clerk. His sole aim is to change the stereotypical notions of Adivasi which are rooted in ordinary people's psyche (Narayan, 2007, p. 14). He does not say about the untouchability among Adivasi but talks about their exploitation by outsiders. He argues that education is the only way to progress. In *Kocherathi* Narayan portrays real events and his own experiences. For the same reason, we treat it as a testimonio rather than a novel. Through this process, we understand the varieties of voices of the oppressed people who must tell their life experiences to the entire world. They get access to the literature writing testimonies.

G. Entry of the Oppressed Into the Literary World

All the writers who are analyzed here welcome their entry into the literary world. They express their hope for this new entry, for instance, Bellu, the Adivasi narrator says, 'Everyone should know the truth, our children should know the truth, so nobody should suffer these bitter experiences again' (Kallar, 2009, p. 49). Similarly, Pokkudan says:

> Unlike the usual autobiography writers, fishermen, farmers, and others have a unique experience that would be a valuable contribution to society if they write it. But none is ready to come forward because of social and cultural suppression. Their muddied, fishy smelled experience can surely be differentiated from the iron-pressed experiences of the autobiographers (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 26).

In the introduction of the novel, Narayan, author of *Kocherathi* says, 'the Adivasi-related stories have no relationship with the truth. Television channels and other media write non-factual things about Adivasi. My work is to show what an Adivasi is and what their life is (Narayan, 2007, p. 14). The new literary genre is welcomed by these oppressed groups. They express the concerns of their society through these writings. In this sense, they speak about the community to which they belong.

Pokkudan and Narayan start their narratives by criticizing the accepted genre of literature. Pokkudan does not know many letters in English and Malayalam, yet he started writing. He begins the testimonio in a jest but later his friends encouraged him to complete it. He asks in the beginning, 'does a Dalit have an autobiography? Has a Dalit been allowed a space in the literature of mainstream? He says that the oppressor's testimonio is worth more than other autobiographies of politicians, leaders, scientists, and high personalities because the oppressor's testimonio is about a particular society's day-to-day life. Like Pokkudan, Narayan at the beginning hesitated to write a novel. He stated that the circumstances compelled him to do so. The new genre gives oppressed people the possibility to express their inner sense to the entire world.

H. Hunger, Poverty, and Helplessness

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[4] Koragar is a tribal community which is an endangering tribal community.
[5] A regional name of sub caste of upper caste Hindu.

What kinds of issues do they write about in these testimonies? Firstly, they write about their hunger, poverty, helplessness, and other miseries. Hunger and poverty are their key problems. Caste and all others are seen as secondary problems. In *Kandal Kadukalkkidayile Ente Jeevitham* Pokkudan writes of their hunger as:

> Our food was very pathetic and insufficient. Our master would allow us a coconut for eight days, we would cut it into eight pieces and would eat it every day; *Pulaya*s had no right to pluck the coconut from the tree near them. No *Pulaya* possessed coconut trees. Whenever our masters bestowed us permission, we would get coconut. The delicious food items, we have nowadays, like *biriyani, and ghee rise* were never tasted at that time. We used to catch fish. My mother would go fishing with other pulaya women, and they shared it in the evening (Pokkudan, 2007, pp. 28-30).

In Bellu, the chief of Adivasis marks their pathetic life as:

> I ate dead cattle, leftovers, and food that were supplied for dead persons in funeral practices of higher castes. Higher castes, *pattars,* and Sudras practiced a ritual where they supplied food for the dead after three days after the death of their relatives. Rice, curry, soft coconuts, *malar, vellam, and* other items would be supplied for the corpse by the relatives. When they returned from the spot we would collect it, even though it was mixed with the tears of the bereaved and the ashes they put on the dead bodies. We collected this and supplied it to our children and women. We cannot suffer hunger. So, we eat dead cattle and leftovers. When cattle died, we were called "here dead cattle take it and go." They will never say how it died. And we will never ask. It may be bitten by a mad dog or poisoned, or it might have eaten poisoned grass and died, or it died because of diseases. But we suffer hungrily, so we care nothing. When we hear cattle are buried, we rush there and pull out it in the night and start to eat it (Kallar, 2009, p. 13).

In *Kuppuswami Enna Cheruppukuthi*, the narrator draws up the problems of hunger. Once they were banished from the town like cats when Nehru came there. They were offered food. When Kuppuswami and other beggars heard about the food, they got ready to go with them (Madayi, 2008, p. 18). This denotes the depth of the hungry and poverty.

The north Indian testimonio narrators give more importance to their caste identity than class issues (Dangle, 1992). Poverty is comparatively less focused in their works. For instance, while class-based issues certainly arise in their autobiographies, especially in which pain is commonly experienced as hunger, the narrative is driven forward and given meaning by issues of caste. The prominent autobiographical work, Om Prash Valmiki termed his testimonio as *Joothan*, (leftover scraps of food). The acceptance of the word, *leftover,* scraps of food, is interpreted in the context of his caste rather than class identity, i.e., as 'Dalits' rather than 'poor' (Narang, 2002). In these selected testimonies the narrators explain that they give importance to their hunger, poverty, and other factors.

Pokkudan and Bellu realize the real reason for the caste discrimination. They say that higher castes have no problem taking their money, but they hesitate to touch them. Bellu remembers that 'Brahmans never liked us. Even the wind which touches us is untouchable to them! But if we offer attributions to the temples and insert coins in the *bhandar*, they take the money, even though they never allow us to enter the temple (Kallar, 2009, p. 48). Here he understands the economic interest laying under the caste barriers.

I. Lack of Education and Illiteracy

Lack of education, illiteracy, and historical backwardness is the prominent problems faced by them. All these authors strongly urge for an educated society. Getting an education is their prime motive. Some of the authors are either illiterate or less educated; they argue that education is the only way to go forward. Unlike north Indian autobiographers who secure their position in society by acquiring education and shifting from the village to the city, the (selected) oppressed writers in Kerala look towards their coming generation for bringing about progress. In *Kandal Kadukalkkidayile Ente Jeevitham*, Pokkudan describes his first school education and the changes it made to his life:

> While I was a tenant of my master, the British government ordered compulsory education for all students. The government created a post whose job is to bring children to school. At my place, this person was C.H Choyi. I remember the picture of the person who carries children on both his shoulders. In school, the first lesson was to practice students how to brush their teeth, and later it became a routine of our life at home (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 32.).
>
> …...After going to school, our dress habits started to change. Though our life was a suppressed one, we felt that we started to get human feelings (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 33).

In *Bellu* the chief talks about education, while he says:

> Our men die due to disease. We never bring them to the hospital. We are afraid of them (caste Hindus), they may kill us. If we go there, the doctor will send us back to the forest and they will tell us 'You do serve your medicine.' Doctors are from their castes, pattars, pulithora, and nairs. They cannot touch us so how can they treat us? Our caste has no doctors, now and then. We do not have education for it. That time we were the tenants of sudra, the landed class sudra did not touch us, and we could not them, but we touched their cattle (Kallar, 2009, p. 52).

In *Kocherathi*, Narayan portrays a society that welcomes a teacher who comes to educate their children. After starting my studies, the routines changed. He describes Adivasis children's reaction to education as 'the students change their lifestyle, start to utter prayer morning and dusk, to cut their nail, hair, to take bath regularly' (Narayan, 2007, p.

120). In Kuppuswami he remembers comrade Krishnan as an ideal person. Kuppuswami describes that the 'Communist party saved my life; comrade Krishnan educated my sons' (Madayi, 2008, p. 16).

In short, all these above-mentioned writers look at education as their means of progress and prosperity.

J. Untouchability and Caste Discrimination

For the north Indian and Tamil Nadu Dalit authors, writing testimonio is a way of hardening individual connection with the larger imagined Dalit community (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 34) and at the same time contributing to the political assertion by presenting 'facts' of one's life to contest casteism (Madayi, 2008, p. 22). In their autobiographies in north India, they constitute a socio-cultural record of the Dalit community. They give a detailed description of events in the political history of the Dalit movement. The writers in North India consider the dalithood, not a temporary one or a historically created one, but it is a permanent entity.

But the writings of the oppressed in Kerala say that untouchability, caste discrimination, and exploitation from higher castes are some main social evils they write about. Instead of glorifying or theorizing about casteism, they consider caste as a social evil and should be wiped out from there. All realize the economic interest of the upper castes. In the foreword of *Kandal Kadukalkkidayile Ente Jeevitham*, the editor, Thaha Madayi asserts that:

> Pokkudan keeps a hateful past in his mind as an unhealed wound, but when he writes about this, he never becomes talkative or becomes an agent of casteism as some Dalit activists do. Pokkudan argues that the progressive change in society is overturned by some caste organizations (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 111).

Pokkudan sees that the hateful past should be forgotten. Here he does not like to project the caste identity as a permanent entity. This is the main difference between Pokkudan and North Indian autography writers. He remembers:

> Pulaya were considered untouchables, so the higher caste people kept their distance from us. They used to spit on our faces. Insulting and harassing were their common practices. For instance, our headmaster would take bath while he was returning home from school to purify himself from untouchability. Was this the mentality of an educated headmaster, the widespread practice was so insufferable to us (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 34).

He says untouchability is less practiced by higher castes now. He hates to remember his past when they were treated as slaves and untouchables. In *Bellu*, the narrator remembers that his community is considered untouchable. His land is in on the boundary of Kerala and Karnataka; the reformation movements have come there rarely. So, the same practice is going on nowadays. He recollects:

> Barbars (hairdressers) are not cutting our hair. They keep their distance from us saying we are dirty and unclean. So, we cut hair using our working sickles. All castes such as *tiyya*, *pulaya, mugar,* and others practice untouchability. Muslims do not practice it. We do not like to be born into this caste, but we wish we were born into the higher caste. 'Nobody will give us rise soup in plate, but in a coconut shell, or areca nut leaf plate. We need to make a dig in there and put it in the dig' (Kallar, 2009, p. 48).

Kuppuswami also faces untouchability in Tamil Nadu. So, he left there and came to Kerala. He says, 'In Tamil Nadu, I was considered as an untouchable, but when I came to Kerala, I became free from untouchability' (Madayi, 2008, p. 17). In *Kocherathi*, the author does not mention the problem of untouchability, because untouchability is not a customary practice in tribal communities in Kerala.

Here the author recalls untouchability but does not glorify it nor consider it a permanent entity (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 111). Brahmins and *nairs* are common in all cases, but in *Bellu*, it is sudra who practice untouchability to the Koraga community. Even they never call them to their wedding. Bellu considers these higher castes as Hindus. His words, 'the Hindus like *pattars*, *sudras* and *nairs* will never allow us to come to their weddings' (Kallar, 2009, p. 51). He asserts that he is being exploited by other 'polluted' caste which is widely known as polluted caste in India. But here the same caste exploits Koraga and practices untouchability. Bellu writes about inter and intra-caste discrimination in his society. At a certain point, he becomes proud to impose untouchability on his fellow community. He says:

> We have several divisions among us. *Chappu koraga, kaattu koraga, kattige koraga. Chappu koraga* wears only leaves on their waist. *Kandige korage* hailed from Kandige. Their assigned labor is different, they are unclean. Though their assigned work is bamboo collection and weaving, they are considered a lower caste than us. We never add them to our community (Kallar, 2009, p. 52).

These words show the importance of an alternative way to lead them to improve their living conditions. Caste should not be a solution to unite them. As we see in this analysis, the complex caste system will ruin them once again if they raise a slogan to uphold their caste identity and the 'higher castes' among lower castes will get all benefits of this caste unity.

What solution did these writers put forward to overcome caste discrimination? Bellu wishes to be a member of a higher caste rather than a lower caste. He says,

'We don't like to be born in this caste, but we wish we were born in the higher caste' (Kallar, 2009, p. 52).

When he realizes it is not possible, he seeks education to overcome the discrimination, due to untouchability. When upper caste doctors are not ready to treat them, Bellu says that they need doctors in their community. He notes that 'Our caste has no doctors, now and then. We do not have the education for it' (Kallar, 2009, p. 14). Pokkudan sees economic interest in caste discrimination and if the gap between the two is removed, the suffering may be stopped (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 46).

K. Protest Caste Discrimination

Bellu and Pokkudan remember resistance against caste discrimination. Pokkudan participated in a strike for temple entry but also asks whether the untouchability will be eradicated if they get entrance into temples. He does not believe in the temple, but he participated in a protest after independence when he understood that it was a matter of all humanity. The strike was defeated. But it gave them courage and free thought. He explains it as:

> This was my doubt since my childhood, even if the doors of temples open before the pulaya will it stop untouchability? I do not visit the temple. After independence, Harijan Welfare (an organization formed in Kerala to protest uneven practice against the then harijans) led a march to the nearest temple, I participated in it, and three teachers, all belonged to pulaya were in front of the rally. Next year we refused the seed which was used to supply outside of the temple courtyard, and we demanded to enter the temple. The upper castes denied us to enter, but the pulaya dared to go forward. Caste Hindus attacked pulaya, injured several, lost their teeth, and some escaped dressing as women. Pulaya leaders lodged a charge; police wrote in their F.I.R that pulaya trespassed the temple so the problem occurred. If pulaya were not coming inside the temple nothing would happen. They went without any arrest' (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 52).

Bellu's agitation was not a direct one, but along with a Swami, who occasionally used to visit him. Bellu mentions a Swami. He does not know what his name is. But from his dress, he calls him a Swami. Once he was having tea in a coconut shell instead of a glass. Police came and arrested the tea shopper. He explains this incident:

> A Swami regularly visited us; he discouraged them to have tea in a coconut shell. Once we were having tea police suddenly appeared and arrested the tea shopkeeper, Madivala. Then they stopped giving tea in the shell. But later they killed the Swami (Kallar, 2009, p. 49).

The younger generation starts to complain about those who call *koraga* to eat the carcass of animals. It tells us that the younger generation of *koraga* becomes aware of the inhuman practice of others. Bellu is, in fact, angry with his younger generation who are not ready to eat the dead cattle. It shows the gap between older and younger generations. The third narrator, Kuppuswami, escaped from Tamil Nadu, the place where untouchability is practiced, and reached Kerala, a safer place where untouchability does not practice. So, the pilgrimage from a place, in a sense, can be seen as his protest[6]. All these writers urge people to escape the caste barrier. So, they look at a society where caste is not an important one. Pokkudan remembers they get the right to name their children after many years of struggles (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 44).

L. Government and Administrative System

What is their approach to the government system that is meant to lead them to progress? They strongly criticize the bureaucracy and police intervention. In each case, they remember the police harassment. According to them, police behave badly with them. Police are like a part of the ruling class. In *Kocherathi*, most of the story gives an account of administrative exploitation and harassment. For example, Narayan portrays a story of harassment as:

> Once, Pareeth, a local trader cheats Kochumunda, when he goes to complain to the police about his son, the police treat him as a culprit. A police officer addresses them as
> 'Who are you? In which case you were brought here?'
> Police start to treat them. Nobody understands them.
> 'Dear Sir, don't beat my child?'
> 'No, I will tear his legs, where did you get pocketful money? You, fraud dogs! S.I. will come here soon; you must say the truth when you get four kicks at your throat with his boated legs. Sit there.' Hearing this they run from the police station (Narayan, 2007, p. 89).

Pokkudan explains police harassment along with his temple-entry agitation. Police here behave partially. When violence erupted in the rally, police lodged F.I.R as, 'as pulaya trespassed the temple so the problem occurred. If pulaya were not coming inside the temple nothing would happen. They went without arresting anybody' (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 52).

In Kuppuswami, he starts his story by remembering police harassment. He says Police harass me whenever they see me. Even at night, they harass me' (Madayi, 2008, p. 17).

Government interventions, according to them, are not working properly. Bellu says that the forest office is far from the forest. So, they cannot avail of its service. If they go there to apply for any assistance, most of the time the employees are absent. This means they must go repeatedly. So, they drop their idea to come to get the government's assistance (Kallar, 2009, p. 51). They identify the government systems' dysfunction as one of the reasons for lagging in progress.

M. Conversion and Its Politics

Conversion to Christianity and Islam is another narrated theme in these testimonios. Though all write about the benefit of conversion, their approach to the conversion is different. Pokkudan has an ambivalent stand on conversion. He asks:

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[6] He escaped from Tamil Nadu to Kerala, the real motive was the inhuman practice of untouchability done by the native. In this sense his travel from Tamil Nadu to Kerala was a silent protest untouchability.

> When *Chirakkal Pulaya Mission* was formed in our place Christianity began to spread among Pulaya. They enjoyed the fresh breath and sweets of freedom that they were denied for centuries. I did not convert because man's problem was not so simple that it will never end if the yoke of one religion is replaced by other. I do not like to catch my fish at other expenses. I teach this lesson to my children (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 46).

Here he explains the reason for and the benefit of conversion. They go from a more exploited religion to another less exploited one. But he writes that difference between 'haves' and 'have nots' continue. So, the concern should be to eradicate the difference between the two (Pokkudan, 2007, p. 47). Bellu only knows, 'Conversion brings us education, good food, clothes....' (Kallar, 2009, p. 50). In *Kocherathi*, the opinion against conversion is said a bit strongly. According to Asan, the teacher appointed to teach them:

> God is one for everyone. Krishnan, Muhammed, Christhu- different names he has. Men made religion and caste, this is only a belief that those who do virtues go to heaven and rest in hell, heaven is not a reserved place for Christians, we should do good deeds and help others, which is all enough' (Narayan, 2007, p. 124).

VI. Conclusion

The testimonies are not a substitute for history, but a work occupying a separate distinct from the latter in terms of its foregrounding of hitherto silenced voices and of establishing a collective identity and consciousness. Testimonial literature plays out a unique generic role not by substantiating factual truth claims, as does the court testimonio (Arias, 2001, p. 766) for example, but about the insists it yields into how events are experienced by a collective and how the reception of events in truth turn mobilizes future possibilities. In many testimonies, the narrator is illiterate or not a professional writer. Narrators speak their life stories to a translator who is most cases a researcher or a university intelligentsia. S/he collects it on tape or in a notebook. The interpreter edits the oral account and publishes it. Because of this, the testimonio has been subjected to scrutiny on issues of authenticity and truth. The relationship between the testifier and the transcriber and the role of memory, orality, and writing have also been of concern to many scholars. At a different level question has been raised about the cooption of the 'subaltern' into the mainstream (Dinegri, 1998, p. 234).

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Investigating Grade Five Teachers' Integration of Technology in Teaching Reading Comprehension Using the TPACK Framework

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Abstract—Integrating technology effectively in the classroom is essential to ensure a beneficial learning experience for students. This study aimed to investigate teachers' integration of technology when teaching reading comprehension and the factors influencing their integration. The teachers' technology integration was assessed using the TPACK framework's lens. The research method used was a qualitative approach. In this study, two fifth-grade teachers in Barru Regency, South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia, became the research subjects. The data was collected by class observation, interview, and document analysis. The study found that teachers in this study mostly used PowerPoint presentations using a laptop and LCD when teaching reading comprehension. It was used primarily to show the lesson's objectives to be studied and reading texts to be read by students. This study indicated that their technology integration was influenced by how they view technology as a means to make teaching easier, combined with their limited strategies for teaching reading comprehension. The findings suggest teachers need support in understanding and implementing the TPACK framework to assist them in integrating technology into their lessons to provide learning experiences for students, particularly in reading comprehension.

Index Terms—competence, fifth grade teacher, reading comprehension, TPACK

I. INTRODUCTION

The challenges faced in the 21st century are complex, unknown, and unpredictable. One of the efforts teachers can make to prepare students to face the challenges of the 21st century is through learning that utilizes technology. The use of technology in teaching has many benefits. Technology encourages teachers to develop creative and interactive classrooms and gives them access to innovative resources. The use of technology in teaching also helps teachers teach effectively, makes students' learning experiences more enjoyable, designs exciting materials, and encourages teachers to upgrade their computer knowledge and skills.

Teachers must be able to choose the right technology with learning materials and strategies to promote students' learning. The integration of these three aspects is known as the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge framework, abbreviated as TPACK (Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Lin et al., 2013; Ariani, 2015; Taopan et al., 2020).

One of the most important ways to support technology integration in learning is to use the TPACK framework (Angeli & Valanides, 2005; Ariani, 2015; Taopan et al., 2020). The TPACK framework is a framework that integrates technological knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and content knowledge in a learning context. In this case, technological knowledge refers to teachers using technology as a teaching and learning tool. Pedagogical knowledge is related to how teachers teach learning materials using appropriate and effective models and methods to promote effective learning. Knowledge content is the material to be taught (Schmidt et al., 2009; Koehler et al., 2014; Taopan et al., 2020).

Using the TPACK framework in education can improve the conditions of learning activities (Malik et al., 2019; Oyanagi & Satake, 2019; Salas, 2019). The TPACK framework guides teachers to develop innovation in learning (Malik et al., 2019; Salas, 2019) and makes learning more effective and efficient. It shows that TPACK is an essential element that can be used as a reference for improving learning and for evaluating the quality of education.

The TPACK framework is considered a relatively new thing in the world of education in Indonesia, especially related to teaching reading comprehension in elementary schools. The literature review and empirical studies show that few studies review the TPACK framework concerning the reading subject, which is one of the core subjects in elementary school. Therefore, research is needed on integrating TPACK into reading comprehension in elementary schools. In

particular, this study aims to describe how teachers integrate pedagogical and content knowledge using technology when teaching reading comprehension and analyzes the influencing factors.

The research results are expected to provide input to stakeholders regarding teachers' TPACK knowledge, which impacts policy review regarding teachers' professional development. It is an effort to improve Indonesian students' reading comprehension skills, which still need to be optimal based on the results of the PISA Test and other evaluations (Basuki, 2011; Ambarita et al., 2021).

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. TPACK History

TPACK is a combination of content, pedagogy, and technology knowledge. Teachers should have this knowledge in order to integrate technology effectively (Harris et al., 2014; Schmidt et al., 2009; Koehler et al., 2014; Malik et al., 2019). These three types of knowledge interact in a dynamic transactional relationship to produce effective teaching (Harris et al, 2014; Schmidt et al., 2009; Koehler et al., 2014).

The idea of TPACK first appeared in educational journals around 2003 and began to be publicly discussed around 2005. At first, TPACK was written TPCK, then it was changed to TPACK to make it easier to pronounce (tee-pack) (Chai et al., 2013). The TPACK framework was developed by Mishra and Koehler based on Lee Shulman's 1986 Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) concept by adding technology knowledge. The TPACK framework is formed from 7 (seven) elements of knowledge. They are:

1) Content Knowledge (CK). It is an understanding of the actual subject matter that must be taught, including key facts, concepts, theories, and procedures;
2) Pedagogical Knowledge refers to an understanding of the process and practice of teaching methods, classroom management, development and implementation of lesson plans, understanding of learning theory, and cognitive development;
3) Pedagogical Content Knowledge. It is an understanding of content-appropriate teaching approaches and how elements of content can be styled for better teaching;
4) Technology Knowledge refers to an understanding of standard technology and more advanced technologies such as digital technology;
5) Technological Content Knowledge. It is an understanding of how technology and content are intertwined. Besides mastering the material being taught, the teacher also teaches how to apply technology;
6) Technological Pedagogical Knowledge. It is an understanding of the existence, components, and capabilities of various technologies used in learning settings, of how learning can turn into a result of technology utilization;
7) Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge. It is an understanding that arises from complex interactions between the three components of basic Knowledge (content, pedagogy, and technology) and is integrated effectively into teaching and learning activities (Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Schmidt et al., 2009).

B. The Benefits of TPACK in Reading Classroom

Reading comprehension is a person's ability to reconstruct the message in the text read by connecting the knowledge possessed to understand the main idea and important details and all understanding and remembering the material read (Kucukoglu, 2013; Sulikhah et al., 2020). Reading comprehension is a continuation of silent reading, where these activities begin to be given in grade 3 in the Indonesian context (Sulikhah et al., 2020). Reading comprehension primarily starts in grade 3 with standardized competence in understanding texts, essential competencies in intensive reading of texts (100-150 words), and retelling the contents (Sulikhah et al., 2020). The higher the class level, the more complex the child's understanding is required in reading (Basuki, 2011; Sulikhah et al., 2020). Reading in upper grades is not just about voicing the sounds of language or difficult words in a reading text but also involves understanding what one reads, what it means, and what the implications are (Basuki, 2011; Sulikhah et al., 2020).

The ability of teachers to integrate information and communication technology (ICT) in 21st-century learning is crucial. Using the TPACK framework opens up opportunities for teachers to develop innovation in learning (Chai et al., 2013; Oyanagi & Satake, 2019; Taopan et al., 2020). Integrating ICT and appropriate pedagogy for certain content can increase effectiveness while overcoming student learning problems, especially in reading comprehension.

Using TPACK in learning reading comprehension can improve the conditions of learning reading comprehension activities (Salas, 2019). TPACK makes learning more effective and efficient because of the integration of technology into learning. It shows that TPACK can be used as a reference to improve learning to read and as a material for evaluating the quality of education (Shulman, 1986).

Using technology in the learning process increases students' attention, concentration, motivation, and independence. While for teachers, using technology reduces the use of time for delivering material, makes student learning experiences more enjoyable, designs material more interesting, and encourages teachers to improve their knowledge and skills about computers (Nasution, 2018).

III. METHODS

This study aimed to describe teachers' integration of technology when teaching reading comprehension and the factors influencing their integration. This study used a qualitative research design to describe the technology integration of fifth-grade teachers in reading comprehension using the TPACK Framework. The subjects of the qualitative data research were two fifth-grade teachers from two schools in Barru District, South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. The teachers were selected from 50 fifth-grade teachers who had previously participated in the quantitative research that preceded this qualitative study. The two teachers were selected using purposive sampling based on questionnaire responses in the initial study. The researcher chose one subject with TPACK knowledge in the top category at the top margin and one in the medium category at the bottom margin because there were no subjects in the low category. The two teachers are women aged 32 and 35 years. Both have taught for 12 and 7 years in elementary schools.

Qualitative data collection was carried out through class observations and semi-structured interviews. In addition, the observed class lesson plans were also analyzed to obtain additional evidence regarding the teacher's technology integration. Class observations were carried out three times for each teacher in which the researcher acted as a non-participant observer. Each observation was carried out for 80 minutes using an observation protocol modified based on the TPACK categories (Valtonen, 2005; Schmidt et al., 2009; Muhaimin et al., 2019) to meet the aims of this study. After the observation was completed, further data collection was carried out through semi-structured interviews. This interview aimed to confirm the observations' results and explore teachers' TPACK. The results of the interview were transcribed before being analyzed. To obtain additional data related to the implementation of the teacher's TPACK, the researcher also analyzed the teachers' lesson plans for the practical lessons.

All the qualitative data collected was organized and analyzed using interactive model techniques, including data reduction, data presentation, and data verification to identify general categories and themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researchers used a triangulation technique and member checking to ensure the validity and accuracy of the data obtained (Cresswell, 2012). The researchers did the triangulation by comparing observational data with interview data, reinforced by a document analysis of the teachers' lesson plans. Member checking was conducted by asking the teachers to check a summary of the findings to see if the findings echoed their opinions and whether the interpretation was just and representative. All reported that both the findings and interpretation were appropriate to their situation.

IV. FINDINGS

As explained earlier in the methods section, the researcher selected two out of 50 grade 5 teachers who participated in the quantitative study that preceded this qualitative study. The researcher chose one subject with high-category TPACK knowledge at the top margin (named ST in this study) and one in the medium category at the bottom margin because there were no subjects in the low category (SR). Observations and the interviews were conducted in the second and third week of April 2022. The following is a presentation of the research findings.

A. Types of Technology Used by Teachers in Teaching Reading Comprehension Lessons

The study found that the dominant type of technology used by the teacher when teaching reading comprehension was the LCD to display the PPT prepared by the teacher. The results of observations three times in each class showed the use of PPT using a laptop connected to the LCD.

Besides the use of PPT and LCD, ST also used learning videos in one of her lessons, as conveyed by ST during the interview below:

> Besides using PowerPoint, I also use video in learning… I also use other technologies,
> but the one I often use is PowerPoint.

When asked why she mainly used PowerPoint, LCD, and video, she explained that they were available, easy to use, and did not depend on the internet connection. SR explained:

> We do not have an internet connection in our school. So, at home, I download materials
> or videos, save them on my laptop, and show the materials to students using the LCD at school.

In the interview, the two teachers also stated that they used other technologies such as WhatsApp, google classroom, zoom, and google meet. However, they only used these platforms for online classes when schools were closed due to the pandemic, during which the internet was made available in school. ST stated:

> I still use WA at the moment when I have something to convey to students who are at home through the WA
> Group…I only use Google Classroom, Zoom, and Google Meet during online classes.

B. The Integration of Technology in Reading Comprehension Lessons

Regarding integrating technology in the classroom, the study found that teachers had similarities in practice. The observation results, supported by document analysis results, showed that teachers used PPT to explain learning objectives and to present reading material taken from a textbook for grade five. Next, the teacher asked students to read the material displayed on the LCD. When finished, the teacher asked students to answer comprehension questions according to the content of the reading. In the interview, ST stated:

> I use PPT to show the reading material...
> ..I make the PPT by myself. I take a reading text from a textbook for grade five.

Likewise, SR used technology in learning by displaying reading text or reading comprehension materials downloaded from home using PPT with LCD media and then asked students to read the material silently and repeatedly. SR stated:

> Through PPT, I explain to students that to understand the contents of the reading, students must
> focus on what is read, and read the reading silently over and over again.

ST also displayed learning videos pre-saved from YouTube using LCD in one of her observed lesson to show content related to the learning objectives. She played a video that showed students how to determine the main ideas of a paragraph and make a mind mapping.

> ST explained:
> I also used video in my lessons. I download it from YouTube and use LCD in the class.

C. Factors Influencing the Teachers' Technology Integration in Reading Comprehension Lessons

As stated in points a and b above, both teachers mainly used PPT and LCD-using laptops during observations. The teachers used the PPT and LCD to display learning objectives and reading materials and then asked students to read the materials. The teachers also used learning videos from YouTube about reading materials.

Based on the classroom observations and interviews, this study suggested that factors that influenced how teachers integrate technology into reading comprehension lessons are 1) Availability and utility of PPT and LCD in schools; 2) Teachers' perceptions of the use of technology in the class; and 3) Teachers' teaching methods in reading comprehension. Here is the explanation:

(a). Availability and Utility of PPT and LCD

Teachers used PPT and LCD because these media do not require an internet network, so they considered these practical and easier for teachers. SR, for example, explained:

> In our school, we do not have an internet network. Therefore, most teachers
> download learning resources at home and then at school use the LCD to display the reading material.
> With the laptop, I look for learning materials online and display them to students via LCD.
> Teachers were also capable of using PPT to some extent. ST stated:
> I design the PPT, and for the videos, I download them from YouTube.
> Similarly, SR said:
> Teachers could use PPT and LCD and prepare their materials through PPT.

(b). Teacher's Perception of the Use of Technology in the Classroom

This study indicated that another factor that affected the integration of teachers' technology in this study was the teacher's perception of the use of technology in learning. Teachers thought that the primary use of technology was to facilitate their tasks in teaching and preparing administration. SR, for example, stated:

> Using PowerPoint makes teaching easier; teachers do not have to rewrite the material.

ST stated the same thing:

> PPT makes it easier for me in learning activities…
> When giving the material, you need to show the PPT or videos; you don't need to write on the blackboard
> anymore.

The use of technology was also considered to facilitate the administrative tasks of teachers. ST stated:

> Using a laptop makes it easy for me to input student grades; I no longer write the report manually,
> but type them on a laptop and then print them out.

The teachers' statements above showed that the use of technology seems to be more on making it easier for teachers to teach, not to help achieve learning objectives.

(c). The Way Teachers Teach Reading Comprehension

The way teachers taught reading comprehension lessons also appeared to affect their technology integration. Teachers' methods and activities given to students were deemed compatible with PPT and LCD. The results of observations, which were supported by analysis of lesson plans, showed that in teaching reading comprehension, the teachers used PPT to present the material to be learned. For example, SR taught reading comprehension lessons by giving reading texts through PPT media, directing students to read, and answering comprehension questions. Last, she asked students to retell the contents of the reading that had been read.

ST did things that seemed similar. ST taught reading comprehension material by providing reading text through PPT media, then directing students to read and training students according to the indicators of reading comprehension being taught, for example, by asking questions. When using videos, ST asked students to watch, and after that, students answered reading comprehension questions.

In teaching students with different reading abilities, both teachers used learning strategies such as implementing cooperative learning or group work so that students with higher abilities could communicate their abilities to students with lower abilities. The role of technology, namely PPT and LCD, in these strategies was to become a medium to display the learning objectives and reading material.

V. Discussion

The teachers involved in this study had completed a questionnaire that assessed their TPACK knowledge prior to this study. The questionnaire analysis showed that their TPACK knowledge fell into a good category. However, little evidence was found in this study through the observation, interview, and document analysis that suggest teachers had a good understanding of TPACK. The study found that the teachers' integration of technology when teaching reading comprehension was inconsistent with the TPACK framework. The types of technology teachers primarily used in their class were PowerPoint presentations using a laptop and LCD. The teachers used these to introduce the outcomes of the lesson and to show the reading text that students were about to read.

Some factors were identified that seemingly influenced teachers' integration of technology, such as using the available technology, like a laptop, PowerPoint, and LCD. Another factor was such as teachers' perception of the integration of technology. The teachers in this study considered that using technology makes teaching less difficult regarding physical aspects. They spent less time writing the material on the board as they showed them through the PPT application. Little evidence shows that teachers use technology to provide meaningful learning experiences or make teaching effective to help students achieve learning outcomes.

In addition, teachers' strategies in reading comprehension also seemed to influence teachers' lack of ideas to create meaningful activities or tasks using technology. The teachings appeared to lack variety. Students were mostly asked to read a reading text either silently or loudly. The finding was in line with previous studies that showed various issues related to teachers' integration of technology in their classrooms, such as IT competence, internet connection availability, and lack of ideas to produce meaningful tasks using technology (Taopan et al., 2020).

Integrating technology in the classroom requires teachers to have specific knowledge, such as technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge, to effectively provide learning experiences for students (Angeli & Valanides, 2005; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Lin et al., 2013; Taopan et al., 2020). However, this did not seem to be the case in this study. Therefore, providing training based on the TPACK framework would assist teachers in integrating technologies into their lessons to promote students' learning (Angeli & Valanides, 2005; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Lin et al., 2013; Taopan et al., 2020).

VI. Conclusions

Despite teachers' self-assessment to have a good understanding of TPACK, the study suggested that the teachers' integration of technology when teaching reading comprehension was inconsistent with the TPACK framework. Teachers' use of technology was primarily to present learning objectives and materials. Teachers' view of technology as a means to make teaching more manageable and their limited strategies for teaching reading comprehension were among the factors that seemed to influence their technology integration when teaching. The findings revealed the need for teachers to have support in understanding and implementing the TPACK framework effectively, as it could assist teachers in using technologies to effectively provide learning experiences for students, particularly in reading comprehension lessons. However, this study has limitations regarding fieldwork, the number of participants, and different viewpoints. Therefore, future research may involve more participants and exploration to present various stories better to depict and understand teachers' technology integration in their classrooms.

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Parallelism in the Poetry of Shawqi Bzaie: A Stylistic Study

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Abstract—this research discusses parallelism in Marthiyatul Ghubar (Arabic for Mourning of Dust) a poem by the Lebanese poet Shawqi Bazie. It also links between the structure and the repetition contained therein, as well as the intended rhetorical relationship resulting from that parallel, i.e. an attempt to link poetic formation with poetic vision. The research highlights that the Mourning of Dust contains many forms of parallelism that are not just a filler to complete the speech, but rather serve the poet's vision, ideas, and beliefs. The research also concludes that the phonetic and syntactic parallels are the most present in the poem. The poet focuses on parallelism, in particular, to say what he wants leaving the areas of interpretation open to the reader, and he thus wants a critical thinking reader, not a neutral one who does not dig into the text or interact with it. The poet wants his idea to last and for other people to believe in it.

Index Terms—Shawqi Bazie, Mourning of Dust, parallelism, modern Arabic poetry

I. INTRODUCTION

This study deals with parallelism in Marthiyatul Ghubar (Arabic for Mourning of Dust) a poem by the Lebanese poet Shawqi Bazie .It also links between the structure and the repetition contained therein, as well as the intended rhetorical relationship resulting from that parallel, i.e. an attempt to link poetic formation with poetic vision. I chose this study for several reasons, the most important of which is the lack of studies that have been written about parallelism in Shawqi Bazie's poetry. The researcher observed, when reading the poem, that it contains much such parallelism and wanted to come up with a research value through the study of the poet Shawqi Bazie.

As for the previous studies, there is not an independent study that deals with this subject concerning the poet Shawqi Bazie, however, there are some studies that dealt with the subject of parallelism in Arabic poetry in general, such as Roman Jakobson's book, Poetics Function, Sameh Al-Rawashdeh's book, Maghani al-Nass, Fadel Thamer's book, Critical Matters On the Problems of Criticism, Modernity and Creativity, Muhammad Muftah's book, Poetic Discourse Analysis "Intertextuality Strategy"), and other references. The research followed the descriptive and analytical study method; however, the study has benefited from some other critical approaches that serve the ideas, and intersect with the logic of its analysis and description. Accordingly, the research was divided into the concept of parallelism and its theoretical framing, and the modern forms of parallelism, which were identified in the research in three forms: phonetic, morphological, and syntactic, relying on the poems in interpreting those forms. Ultimately, the study ends with a conclusion in which the most important findings of the study were mentioned, as well as a list of sources and references.

II. PARALLELISM

Parallelism is one of the most important rhythmic features of poetry that distinguishes it from other prose texts and captured the attention of ancient and modern critics. In modern Western criticism, It seems that parallelism was first associated with Jakobson (1988, p. 103), who saw parallelism based on his interpretation of Hopkins' principle, summed up in "observing linguistic structures that are connected through the principle of linguistic distribution based on binary composition. It creates a kind of geometric parallel between the elements of the structure that show patterns of duality and contrast. Jakobson (1988, pp. 105-106) considered parallelism as one of the basics of poetry, as he believes that "the basic issue of poetry is possible in parallelism". He also noted, more than a hundred years ago, "the aesthetic aspect of poetry is summed up in the principle of parallelism. The structure of poetry is continuous parallelism that extends from the so-called technical parallelism of Hebrew poetry and the responsive chants of sacred music to the complexity of Greek, Italian or English poetry". Jakobson (1988, p. 106) has expanded his vision of parallelism's ability to control the linguistic components until it includes all the components and systems of the textual work, where he says: "There is a system of continuous proportions at multiple levels: organization and arrangement of syntactic structures, organization and arrangement of grammatical forms and categories, organization and arrangement of lexical synonyms and complete lexical matches, and finally organization and arrangement of sounds and structures.

This arrangement gives the verses connected by parallelism a clear harmony and great diversity at the same time". Some Arab critics have been influenced by parallelism, and among them is the critic Muftah (1994, p. 149), who believes that parallelism is "particularly found in all international literature; ancient and modern, and that Arabic poetry is the poetry of parallelism". He (1985, p. 25) sees that parallelism is nothing but "the development of a specific nucleus

by a forced or optional factor of phonetic, lexical, moral and pragmatic elements to ensure the consistency of the message". Muftah focuses on the nucleus as the basic material that forms the basis of parallel structures. He thinks that this happens intentionally or unintentionally by the poet intending to keep the harmony of the message and the consistency of its two parts. Parallelism was also defined in Modern Arabic Criticism (1999, p. 78) that it is two or more successive sequences of the same morphological-grammatical system accompanied by repetitions or differences in the rhythm, phones, or lexical semantics. Whereas Thamer (1987, p. 237) defines parallelism as "the coordination of experimentation and contrast between two contents or two narrations to demonstrate their similarity or difference, where the emphasis is placed on the congruence or opposition of the two parties through rhythmic or structural repetition". Yaqtin (1992, p. 37) sees that it is a demolition and construction of the previous texts. He defines it as "the production of a new text that presents to us as a reading and deconstruction of a previous text, and we find that we are facing a process of demolition and construction at the same time of the previous text".

Al-Rawashdah (2006, p. 137) goes to the fact that "parallelism is a rhythmic feature that hardly any poetry is devoid of, and poetry transcends many other forms of discourse, such as prose, rhetoric, and religious texts". This is because parallelism is a "musical and moral phenomenon at the same time"(Abu-Asba', 2009, p. 410).

III. Parallelism in Ancient Criticism:

It can be said that Arab criticism uses parallelism in vertical Arabic poetry, and has paid special attention even though it was given different titles. In the past, critics were interested in (balancing, repetition and antonyms); however, these terms are connected to the vocal poetic structure and its impact on the meaning. I will mention these terms briefly and link them with parallelism. Balancing "means that the sentence of the speech or the verse of the poetry is balanced in words, equivalent in rhyme and parts in most cases"(Al-Odwani). Ibn al-Atheer (1420AH, p. 272), defines balancing as; "When the words of the verse are equal in number and rhyme".

As for repetition, it was used in ancient Arabic poetry, where critics studied it. Ibn Masoum (1969, pp. 345-352) defined it as; the repetition of a word or more to emphasize, exaggerate or highlight the repetitive word. The use of Repetition comes at the letter level and extends to word, phrase, and poetic verse level. It should be noted here that the rhythmic aspect of poetry is based on repetition as well. The stanzas of Arabic poetry consist of equal sounds due to the sound devices and their repetition in the verses.

As for the antonyms, it is when the poet comes up with two or more compatible meanings, then he comes up with the antonyms of those meanings in order. Al-Qazwini cited the words of God in Surat Al-Tawbah:5, "Falyadhakoo qaleelan walyabkoo katheeran" which means Let them laugh a little and weep a lot. Antonyms in the Holy Qur'an and Arabic poetry are many. If we observe the previous terms, we find that they are associated with the acoustic rhythmic structure of complex speech to give a rhythmic meaning that is reflected in the verbal meaning. This confirms the fact that words are the meaning holders and that the meaning has to be honorable, according to Al-Jahiz; therefore, the poet must pay attention to the selection of vocabulary, and employ rhetoric to serve the message in his poem, and this is what we will find in the research of the poet Shawqi Bazi'.

Here we will come across three types of parallelism: phonetic, morphological, and syntactic. This does not mean that it includes all forms of parallelism, or surrounds parallelism in its modernist concepts, but it is an attempt to understand it, even in part.

IV. Phonetic Parallelism

The study of morphological parallelism "reveals the role of the acoustic-rhythmic dimension- in the achievement of the semantic dimension" (Al-Malaika, 1978, pp. 263-291); that is because "the essence of poetry is the sound" (Al-Zaidi, 1987, p. 61), and that poetry as a first idea is a "repeated sound form" (Fadl, 1987, p. 390). In the poem of Mourning of Dust by Shawqi Bazie, this parallelism is almost clearly visible, and spreads throughout the pages of the poem, where the poet says in the Deir Qanun al-Nahr poem (Shawqi, p. 373):

When the earth was a nebula and there was no time	في زمنٍ كانتْ فيهِ الأرضُ سديماً والسَّاعةَ صفْر
Other than fish there was nothing	لم يكنْ النَّاسُ سوى أسماكٍ
Reproduce in Swarm	تتضاعفُ
In the ocean and its surrounding	في مرآةِ الدَّهر

In the Arabic version, we can notice a repetition of the letter "س" five times, "ر"four times, and "ت" five times. We also do not miss the phonetic significance of these letters that serve the value of parallelism. The poet focuses on the letter س, which is equivalent in the number of repetitions. They are two letters that carry a sequence of phonetic pattern represented by alternating friction and explosion; the ت which is an explosive sound and the س; a fricative sound (Ateeq, 2012, p. 8). Here, the س touches the poet's vision of the beginning of the universe, to explode the ت in the process of the completion of creation, and the maturation of experience. This is the law of life that transcends it and revolts against it, the law of Deir al-Nahr, which flies outside the cosmic law and makes its law that is biased towards nature and man. In another example, the poet says, in his poem The Women's Representations (Shawqi, p. 379):

The roots all around him burnt	الجذورُ احترقتْ من حولهِ

Of walls, the sky remained without	وسماءٌ دون جدرانٍ
Above his confusedhand	تجاري يدَهُ المرتبكَهْ
Suddenly	فجأةً
On the white sheet, the sapphire of her arms shine	.. يلمعُ فوقَ الصَّفحةِ البيضاءِ ياقوتُ ذراعيها
His black blood into nothingness is thrown	فيلقي دمه الأسود في اللّاشيءَ
His present and past hit	يضربُهُ الحاضرُ بالماضي
And he runs like a storm of dust	ويجري مثل نوح من غبارٍ
Behind the kingdom	خلف ميم المملكه

He repeats the letter "ج" in the previous syllable five times, the "ض" four times, the "ت"nine times, and the "د" five times. The sound of ج is consistent with the sound د, so they are from the same phonetic system in terms of articulation and vocal features. The ج and the are two loud explosive sounds (Abdel-Hadeeq, p. 10). This vocal feature leads us to the poet's obsession with the woman and her manifestations that bore the title of the poem. He sees her disturbing his life and his dream, and she is the one who fills his life with all that is beautiful, and he is openly and publicly aware of that, rather he is not ashamed of that, and he declares his bias towards the woman. The two letters (ج and د) parallel in number with the voiceless letter ت, which reflects his disobedience to silence that does not serve love or promote it, and he came with the opposite of the ostentatious letter. The poet uses the letter "ض" the ostentatious letter, in order to exalt his declaration of disobedience in favor of the woman and to confirm his complete bias towards her.

V. MORPHOLOGICAL PARALLELISM

Jakobson (p. 106) found that "synonyms and similarities of vocabulary are included in the structure of parallelism", which means that the repetition of vocabulary or its morphological derivatives in the folds of the poetic syllable, whether at the beginning or within it, is based on the repetition of the derivation that highlights a main point in the phrase and reveals the speaker's interest in it. In this sense, it has a valuable psychological significance that benefits the critic who studies the effect (Al-Malbaika, 1983, pp. 276-277) and deals with the poetic text. An example of this is when Bazie' says in the poem "Al-Gha'ib" (Shawqi, p. 401):

White are September's night	أبيضٌ ليلُ أيلول،
These hills on the horizon are also White	بيضاءُ هذي الهضابُ على صفحة الأفقِ،
White is also the universe	والكون أبيض،
Tasteless	لا طعمَ،
Colorless	لا لونَ،
Voiceless	لا صوتَ،
There is only smoke hitting the floor	غير ارتطام الدُّخان بنافذة الأرض،
It must come then, my lord,	لا بُدَّ من أن يجيء إذنْ سيِّدي،
It's the proper time	إنَّهُ وقتهُ الآن

Here he repeats the word (white), once by derivation (Abyad), and once by (Baydaa). This whiteness is not required in the poetic syllable, but rather it is the whiteness that the poet sees while waiting for the long-awaited person and makes things tasteless, colorless, and voiceless to give us a sign that everything seems the same in nostalgia and to tell us that the death of loved ones does not hurt the dead, but rather hurts the living.

Parallelism of antonyms: It is when the second poetic line contrasts with the first line (2000, p. 95). This is evident in Shawqi's words in the poem al-Kharoub:

Until the war ended with the victorious and the defeated	حتى انجلت الحرب عن الغالب والمغلوب
In the sky	ذات سماء ما
A crescent whiten like a white horse	كان هلال يبيضّ ككفل المهر
As soon as the sun sets and it hides like a hero who won his trophy	بعيد غروب الشمس ويصبح مذ فاز بنجمته
Then it gets a Full moon	بدرا مكتمل الطلعة
Carried above a sky of aroused passion	محمولا فوق سماء من شغف مشبوب

The previous stanza employs the antonym in the poet's saying (the victor and the defeated) to draw a scene of contradictions that result from war, and express the duality of life and death, war and peace, and the victor and the defeated as if that were part of the composition of life. The previous stanza ends with drawing a scene that speaks to life. After the war ended, then she draws the scene of the crescent that turns white as a white horse. Then it grows slowly until it becomes a full moon. We note that the previous antonym served the meaning and from it, the poet was able to deliver the meaning that he wants; which is the completion of the full moon and then its ascension to heaven. We note that the parallelism of antonym served the meaning and affected the parallel poetic rhythm and helped the poet to deliver the meaning he wanted.

<div align="center">VI. STRUCTURAL PARALLELISM</div>

Some critics have included the rhetorical level in one of the structural parallelism levels, so Fadel (1987, p. 243), in this regard, said: "On the rhetorical level: noticing many aesthetic such as simile, metaphor, equality, contrast, inlay, etc.". He (p. 242) alluded to the possibility of benefiting from the ancient rhetorical and critical effort in this field and said: "we can study many parallel forms by consciously benefiting from the data of the Arab rhetorical and critical heritage on more than one level", and here it is worth referring to the poem The Apple of Absence, where Shawqi (p. 387) says:

Thirsty, I squeeze what's left of her fingertips on my chest	ظمآنُ،أعصرُ ما تبقَّى من أناملها على صدري
Hugging the walls I feel her warmth	وأقطف عشب نهديها عن الجدران
To stay alive	كي أبقى على قيدِ العناق
One minute later	دقيقةً أخرى..
Thirsty I am oh God	ظمآن يا الله !

Here we find the poet repeating the word (thirst), twice, which is an exaggeration of the intensity of thirst, and despite this thirst, he squeezes the fingers of his beloved without drinking, and is satisfied with the pleasure of holding her finger, and in the moment of supplication to God, asking for watering that people despair of. Then we find him changing the significance in the story of prophet Yusuf so he turns picking into a means of survival and permanence, although it was a means of death and annihilation in the original story, and he resorts to the era and picking to stay near his beloved even for a minute, that he leaves a lot in order to get a little, but it is the little that is possible, available and desired. Then he expresses his action and his ability to survive and keep the beloved by verbs: (pick, squeeze, and keep), which are verbs that indicate the present moment that the poet wishes and dreams of, as he expresses the present, to express the past and the future, with his dream of possession, and his ability to keep the one he loves.

In the third example from (Little Ali) poem, Shawqi (p. 366) says:

A thousand years ago, his name was Little Ali	قبلَ ألفِ عامٍ كانَ اسمهُ عليّاً الصَّغيرْ
And after a thousand years his name remained Little Ali	وبعدَ ألفَ عامٍ ظلَّ اسمهُ عليّاً الصَّغيرْ
As if he throws up what the years feed him.	كأنه يقيءُ ما ترضعُهُ السُّنونُ

We note that the poet repeats the same line in the stanza, with a slight change in the words. This repetition, in which the first line is synonymous with the second line, is intended to confirm the idea of the poet who insisted that (Little Ali) did not change his position and his steadfastness in what he saw and what he believed. Neither the thousand years, nor the many years, their pressures, or even their temptations were able to change his attitude towards life and ideas, but rather he remained steadfast, strong, and resilient to everything.

Therefore, Little Ali practiced all types of rejection and methods of resistance. Life tried to extend his unruly and arrogant self, but could not because he revolted against all that and he set out for himself on the path of struggle and resistance; although he was young, his actions were great. It is not in vain that he is called Ali, which is a reference to Ali the companion of the prophet, and the rejection of injustice, sacrifice, redemption, and honor that his personality bears. It is assumed that he represents small Lebanon in its size and capabilities, the great in its ability to stand in the face of the enemy, even with will and determination, and with a little patience and faith, even if the neighbors abandoned it, leaving it in the pit of fear and siege alone.

Peak parallelism: It is the parallel in which the poetic lines following the first line are complementary and supplementary to it (1989). This appears in the poem of Bazi'" (p. 387) in the poem "Apple of Absence:

I am the strange wave and my shores in chaos	أنا الموج الغريب وساحلي فوضاي
Touch me to be absolved of all my sins	مسّيني لأبرأ من ذنوبي كلِّها
And cover my water	وتغمّدي مائي
With what you have	بما أوتيتِ
Received from the agony of absence	من قصب الغياب
o love	يا حبُّ
O, my heartbreaks with bells and drowning?	يا سيق انكساراتي بالأجراس والغرقى؟

It seems that the peak parallelism here appears in the connection of the poetic lines to each other; the second line completes the first and can be the answer to it. In his saying, I am the strange wave and my shores in chaos, "touch me" is associated with the line that precedes it, and also in his saying and cover my water with what you have received from the agony of absence.

This parallelism was reflected in the message that the poet wants to convey to the reader, as he is like a strange wave and the chaos is like shores and needs the beloved to recover from that chaos and return to his awaited coast. We also note that the poet employs structural parallelism to emphasize his need for that beloved and that without her he is scattered, for she is the one who unites his parts, organizes and brings him back to life. The poet also employs the "Ya= O" used to call someone and repeats it in his saying, "O love, my heartbreaks." Undoubtedly, the "O" here indicates the extent to which the poet needs that woman who takes him away from his loneliness and heartbreaks. In the second stanza of the poem, the poet says:

Isn't it the time	أما آن الأوان

For the child to sleep over his pale agony,	لكي ينام الطفل فوق خريفه المصفّر،
How long will this soul pass over the fire	كم ستمر هذي الروح فوق النار
To regain its lost splendor?	كيما تستعيد بهاءها المفقود؟
How many streams of tears I will shed before the fire	كم نهراً سأذرف قبل ان يصل الحريق
Happily extinguishes	إلى نهايته السعيدة

The poet eagerly asks, isn't it the time, for the child to sleep over his pale agony? The first part alone does not give meaning without the second line and this indicates the poet's loneliness, fear, surprise, and the extent of his need for rest, which is associated here with sleep. The poet likened himself to a child who lies in his agony, which he placed instead of his bed, and these two lines can stand together to give a complete meaning. As for the second line, which he started by asking how long this soul will pass over the fire, it was the continuation of that question, inaugurated by the repetition of the sound "kaf", which gave a percussive musical sound that serves to complement the question.

The initial reading of the stanza reveals the parallelism of this syllable at various levels. On the stylistic level, we find that the first line parallels the second and third lines (interrogation) (interrogation) (interrogation). The repetition of the interrogation led to astonishment and wonderment, especially in the last line; how many streams of tears I will shed before the fire happily extinguishes. It is clear that syntactic parallelism is the relationships between the lines; It serves as a linking tool between poetic lines, as the reader cannot understand the poem if he relies on the first two lines. Parallelism of vanishing: in which the second line is less than the first line, that is, the poetic lines begin to decrease as we move away from the first line (Saleh, p. 368). An example of this is in Shawqi's poem "Marthiyatul Ghubar" as he says:

For the rocks whose feet the heart washed in vain	للصخور التي غسل القلب أقدامها دون جدوى
For a peach tree that closed its eyelid on the bench of the house	لدراقة أغمضت جفنها عند مصطبة البيت
For friends who have become frothy froth	للأصدقاء الذين غدوا زبدا طافيا
Above the water of time	فوق ماء الزمان
Good-bye	وداعاً

The previous section constituted a state of formal and essence vanishing, and the parallelism of vanishing helped give a sad dimension and a state of refraction, sadness and distance. In the first line, he bids farewell to the rocks that he found no use in washing, then he also bids farewell to the peach tree that closed its eyelid, as if it had become dead and lifeless, and is still standing at the threshold of the house. He also bids farewell to his friends who have become useless as if they are foam that floats on the water. He uses an expression above the water of time, and then the stanza ends with "Goodbye." We note that the more the poet approaches the farewell, the words become fewer and the lines fade away. In the first line, the number of words reached seven, and in the second line it faded to six words, and in the third line it faded to five words, and in the fourth, it became three words, and in the end, it became one word (Wadaan). This gave the text of the poem the state of despair, sadness, and diminishment that the poet lives in light of the refractions and the state of uselessness that he sees, and they live. Perhaps it is appropriate to call this kind of parallelism a poem that vanishes, so its words keep decreasing until they reach one word. This is a message from the poet who baptizes this kind of parallelism that he lives in a state of vanishing and absence to reach the farewell word, which is the main word and the axis around which the line of the poem revolves.

Parallelism of accumulation: It is the opposite of parallelism of vanishing, and the poetic lines increases, as Bazi says:

O child	أيها الطفل
Oh boy who I was thirty years ago	يا ولدا كنته قبل الثلاثين عاماً
Wasn't there room on earth for you and me?	أما كان في الأرض متسع لي ولك؟
Am I not the one getting muddy in your arms?	ألستُ انا من تعفّر بالوحل بين ذراعيك؟

The poetic lines started with two words (Ayuha Atifl), then the second line increased to six, then the third seven, the fourth was seven words. The poet here asks the child using "O child", then he returns to repeat, Oh boy who I was thirty years ago as if the completion of the poetic line corresponds to the completion of the growth of that child who was thirty years old. Then he returns to employ the exception, the hamza (Ama kana) as if they were inspired by the poet Shanfari:

And on earth, there is protection for the generous from harm, and therein for those who fear, the heart is isolated	وفيها لمن خاف وفي الأرض منأى للكريم عن الأذى القلا متعزل

This influence aims at the resemblance between his condition and that of Shanfari, who left his tribe and traveled, but he asks whether he could have traveled to a land other than the one in which he is a stranger, which strengthens the validity of the analysis of his exile and his search for another land, his saying in the next line:

Am I not the one getting muddy in your arms?	ألستُ أنا من تعفّر بالوحل بين ذراعيك.

It is clear that the cumulative parallel here helped the poet to reach the main idea of showing his rejection and rebellion to the state he reached, so he blamed himself for spending his youth in a place, and that he did not leave for another land in which he finds himself.

VII. CONCLUSION

This research discusses parallelism in Marthiyatul Ghubar (Arabic for Mourning of Dust) a poem by the Lebanese poet Shawqi Bazie. It contains many forms of parallelism, and this parallel was not just a filler to complete the speech, but rather it is intended by itself to serve the poet's vision, ideas and beliefs.

The research also concludes that the phonetic and syntactic parallel is the most present in the poem, as the researcher focuses on them, in particular, to say what he wants leavening the fields of interpretation wide open, and he thus wants a critical thinking reader, not a neutral one who does not dig into the text or interact with it. He wants to spread his idea and wants other people to believe in it.

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Objectification: Examples of Female Characters in Selected Traditional Fairy Tales

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Abstract—No one can deny the vital role that fairy tales played in forming the personalities of successive generations across various regions worldwide. All adults should have pleasant memories with these books during their early childhood. These memories make these tales enjoyable for children and adults, as all adults consider reading these books a part of the nostalgia for these past peaceful and cheerful days. On the other hand, many studies proved the passive and hazardous impacts of fairy tales' implicit themes and hidden messages. For instance, these themes heavily influenced the stereotyping of feminine roles in society.
Furthermore, these books enhanced the gender roles with the advantage of the masculine, active role. Throughout the wide range of these books, the readers can quickly identify male characters as saviors, supporters, and always positioned in the center of the women's life. Moreover, the traditional happy ending should be associated with the marriage of the rich and handsome prince/ gentleman. The author will examine the portrayal of the prominent female characters in selected traditional fairy tales to shed light on the concept of "objectification" as a central concept in structuring these characters by making them passive, helpless, and naïve. Accordingly, these portrayals served to present these female characters as mere objects to satisfy the sexual and psychological fantasies of men.

Index Terms—objectification, fairy tales, passive girls, Snow White, Sleeping Beauty, Cinderella

I. INTRODUCTION

Undoubtedly, fairy tales and their long-extended history have delightful memories in the minds of most people taken from their childhood. These stories mostly end happily and are written in a simplistic writing style. One of the main features of fairy tales is that they usually include stereotypical characters like a simple or innocent princess, a brave prince, wicked witches, and evil stepmothers. No one can deny the importance of the lessons learned from these tales as they represent most of the cultural heritage of specific cultures. Nevertheless, no one can deny the harmful impacts of the usual and frequent passive portrayals of female characters. These stories have usually enhanced certain stereotypes like male characters should be brave and available to support and save beautiful young girls at the last minute. On the other hand, female characters are presented as helpless objects and wait for assistance from the male characters in the story.

The vital question is, what message can these stories convey to young girls? The answer to this question has attracted many critical commentaries, and many critics throughout history have examined the content of these fairy tales to identify the possible portrayals and stereotypes of the female characters in most popular stories. The outcome of many critical studies is that there is a feeling that those fairy tales have confirmed the "passivity" and "nonactionable" character of those girls. Also, these tales always portray heroines as forceful objects to male desires or fantasies. In other words, these stories have intensified the objectification of the female characters to the extent of considering them as "unable to act self assertively, with total reliance on external rescues, willing bondage to father and prince, and her restriction to hearth and nursery" (Panttaja, 1988, p. 186). Unfortunately, many fairy tales have praised this passivity and considered it the key to being accepted in society and being loved by the prince can be the ultimate gift for the girl in this life.

Moreover, many readers usually associate this social acceptance with physical attractiveness and beauty. They learned from these tales that the heroine should be passive and beautiful enough to be rewarded at the end for her patience. This paper will examine the link between the concept of objectification and the female characters in selected fairy tales. Throughout the discussion, the paper will draw attention to fairy tales' important messages that affect young girls' personal development long after.

II. OBJECTIFICATION: MEANING AND FEATURES

Fairy tales camouflage beneath their bright and pleasing surface many of the gender stereotypes and unpleasant images of women. Due to this reason, most of the traditional fairy tales have received harsh criticism for opposing these traditional gender roles and standing to support gender equality and other women's rights. Throughout centuries, these fairy tales have taught young boys and girls how to behave according to gender (Brackett, 2009, p. 116). For instance,

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these tales presented most male characters as saviors and robust supporters of weak women who needed assistance. On the other hand, the tales portrayed female characters as the lower or weaker gender and dependent naïve creatures with limited mental and physical abilities. Accordingly, they must behave as good (unquestioningly obedient) girls or devoted homemakers who should care for their families and revolve around the centrality of men's power. In addition, they should act as helpless objects to satisfy the males' sexual or psychological desires. In short, the traditional versions of fairy tales enhanced the concept of objectification linked to the female characters, whether young girls or older women.

The concept of objectification is hard to be defined as it is "slippery" and "multiple" precisely (NUSSBAUM, 1995, p. 251). However, the readers can generally point out objectification as considering or treating a woman as a (helpless) object. In most literary texts, the reader can find that the focus of women's objectification is mainly on sexual objectification and referring to the sexual traits of the woman's body to satisfy men's desires. According to some feminist thinkers, patriarchal contexts usually value and appreciate women for their physical looks and appearance (Bordo, 2004, p. 143). In other words, those women must conform to the standards of feminine appearance for their time and culture to be accepted, appreciated, and, more importantly, required.

These standards may differ from one person to another, and a woman should try her best to satisfy these standards and fight vigorously to maintain her look as per the ideals. Saul refers to these standards as "the criteria of appearance women feel they should be living up to" (Saul, 2012, p. 144). After some time, this objectification can be turned into self-objectification as women can treat themselves as commodities and things that should be decorated to enjoy or satisfy others.

Undoubtedly, the notion of objectification can be strongly enhanced in patriarchal societies (where many privileges are given to men and all authority and control are collected in the hand of men), women are "identified with their body … a thing which … has been regarded as less inherently human than the mind of personality" (Bartky, 1990, p. 130). So, within these societies, the males look at women according to their bodies regardless of their minds or personalities. In other words, this degrading view of women excludes dealing with her as a body to meet the sexual desires of men, like what can be found in the animal realm.

In literature, the reader can find many disruptive images of female characters that match the features of the concept of objectification. Moreover, these "objectifying" images of female characters can frequently exist in many fairy tales in different cultures and generations. To learn more about the features of "objectification" and be able to examine the selected fairy tales in this paper, the reader may check three features mentioned by Rae Langton; "reduction to the body, reduction to appearance, and silencing" (Langton, 1993, pp. 228-229). In this regard, it is important to reassure that objectification can result from the dominating notion within the community and can be enhanced through different media tools and various literary texts to stabilize the idea and become a fact. Unfortunately, fairy tales contributed enormously to ingraining the passive images of women over many years.

III. FAIRY TALES: A HISTORY OF OBJECTIFICATION

To understand the intentions behind the passive images presented in the fairy tales about women, the reader may need to dig deeper into the history of fairy tales. This history can be linked to folk tales that started as a part of the oral storytelling tradition and approached adults and used them as entertainment tools in the early days. Another purpose of these folk tales was to maintain specific communities' and cultures' traditions and values. Many of these folk tales have transferred to fairy tales with specific changes in writing style, way of telling, and purposes. Also, these fairy tales were written and rewritten many times to fit the current audience and the changing ideals in the surrounding society. Jack Zipes states, "folk tales were to be shared and exchanged, used and modified according to the needs of the tellers and listeners" (Fenglin, 2020, p. 25). Subsequently, the readers may find many different versions of the same fairy tale with slight changes to match the standards and traditions of society.

However, no one can deny that fairy tales are rooted deeply in western and other cultures and have played a significant role in forming the coming generations for a long time. So, the reader can understand that the images presented in many fairy tales were taken from the background culture or the dominating traditions. These fairy tales, with their images, messages, and lessons, have become an indispensable part of the community's value system and, to some extent, may reflect or at least "conform" to features of the patriarchal society and enhance the actual status of women. In this regard, Marcia Lieberman clarifies that fairy tales "serve to acculturate women to traditional social roles" (Lieberman, 1972, p. 383).

The clearest example in this history is what has been done by the Brothers Grimm, Jacob, and Wilhelm, as they modified and purified all of the oral tales collected to fit the German culture and middle-class values. They deliberately tried to "weaken once-strong female characters, demonize female power, and emphasize specific role models for male and female protagonists according to the dominant patriarchal code of that time" (Haase, 2004, p. 12). Accordingly, as per the norms of the patriarchal society, the female characters in most of Grimm's collection presented as "beauties slept in their woods … in their beds, in their glass coffins, in their childhood forests like dead women" (Cixous & Clément, 1986, p. 5). The reader can find those figures in most of the well-known and familiar fairy tales like *Snow White*, *Cinderella*, and *Sleeping Beauty*, which have affected the mentality of millions of children worldwide. According to these tales, the child "boy or girl" grew up according to the demeaning status of the woman and her profound need and

longing to find a suitable male to support her or rescue her from a difficult situation, and then they can live their life "happily ever after." Unfortunately, most traditional versions of fairy tales have ingrained the disruptive image for many years in boys' and girls' minds, and this is the real "threat" that can be taken from these sweet children's stories.

In other words, these stories focus on restricting the status of women in this submissive beauty and helpless "naïve" personality to be rewarded at the end of their patience with the firm and wise man to afford this happy life they dreamed of a long time ago. To validate this idea, according to Sperry Baker, a study has been done to examine the development of many tales from the 19th century and found that most of them presented the leading female character according to attractive beauty. Moreover, the reproduced versions of these tales followed the same notion of attractive beauty (Baker-Sperry & Grauerholz, 2003, p. 712).

In many fairy tales, the reader can find that the leading characters are beautiful young girls. However, the most important attribute that should be considered in most of these female characters is "attractiveness." According to this attribute, the young girl can pursue her life successfully through the expected support she will find from men. According to the many examples in these fairy tales, the best example of those girls is the submissive and silent one who must wait patiently for male help and support. The authors of these stories tried to expose that women should pay more attention to their physical beauty and "the emphasizing message that a women's youthful appearance, especially when paired with the appropriately meek demeanor" (Lieberman, 1972, p. 385). In this respect, the reader can find a tremendous amount of attention paid to stereotyping gender roles through giving the privilege of saving and managing the world to the males, and this life should be revolved around their needs and desires to reach a happy end safely.

On the other hand, females should be obedient enough to be granted this precious support from the males. Additionally, her physical appearance and submissive character can give her the advantage to achieve the status of being "agreeable" and can determine her destiny in the end. By examining many of these fairy tales, the reader can find that the beautiful, submissive, "naïve" and young heroines should be contested by the ugly, wicked, and old women who try to cause many problems for her as a result of their envy of the heroin's beauty and youthful appearance. The message is that females cannot trust each other and that envious feelings are essential in forming relationships. Again, the reader may ask the critical question: What lesson do these fairy tales convey? The critics found these fairy tales were manipulated as "a source and vehicle of powerful self-mirroring images affirming the existing value system" (Deszcz, 2002, p. 85).

Accordingly, the threat of these fairy tales is tremendous and profoundly affects the lives of those children. In other words, fairy tales have played an important role in normalizing these submissive figures and the demeaning status of women, and society deals with them as normal and acceptable. The stereotypes and gender roles have become standard as children learn about them early on and then move to their older ages. All people look at these themes, characters, and ideas with minimal disappointment or guilt as they are familiar with them from an early age and can find them everywhere in society. So, fairy tales mirrored these figures as per the context of telling or writing these stories, enabling society to maintain the patriarchal notion. It is an endless circle, and the victim is still suffering. In this regard, Fine refers to this severe threat as children, even before they reach preschool, are categorized according to gender, affecting their behaviors and attitudes towards the other gender in their future life (Fine, 2011, p. 8).

Comparing the advantages and significance of these fairy tales to the imminent threats of the implicit messages about gender roles, the reader may find a potential to avoid these threats and maximize the benefits by changing these submissive figures of females and trying to offer equalized gender roles to achieve a healthier and more stable male-female relationship. The parents and teachers can inform children that there is no issue of being helpless in some situations, and everyone may ask for help or support. Nevertheless, there is another situation where the woman can help the other gender (father, brother, husband). Through these fairy tales, parents and teachers must teach children that life consists of concessive days and moments, and we may need each other one day. Life will move on through integration and completing each other, not competing and proving the supremacy of one gender over the other.

IV. EXAMPLES OF FEMALE CHARACTERS

To examine the most frequent submissive and helpless figures in fairy tales, the reader needs to check three examples; *Snow White*, *Sleeping Beauty,* and *Cinderella*. In *Snow White*, the leading character is a young girl who is depicted as a naïve and passive girl and depends on male characters (the hunter, the seven dwarfs, and finally the prince) to be saved in every single dangerous situation from the beginning of the story till the end (Garabedian, 2014, p. 23). The main lesson of this fairy tale is that young girls should wait, and they will be rewarded and saved by the handsome prince. This promise has been passed down from one generation to another and from one culture to another. In other words, the girl must be silent, passive, and submissive to be rewarded by a wealthy young gentleman to support her. On the other hand, male characters are depicted as destined to seek out adventure and take as their reward passive, silent, industrious females" (Erum, 2009, p. 3).

So, the features of good girls are; being submissive, passive, and waiting patiently to fulfill their dreams and hopes, and most probably, this can happen only through the support of a man. Additionally, getting married is the most precious reward the "good" girl can receive for her patience. From another perspective, the young girl is depicted perfectly according to the criteria of physical beauty. The girl is featured with red lips like a rose, black hair like ebony, and white skin like snow (Worell, 2001). So, physical beauty is an essential asset that young girls should work hard to

get and maintain throughout their life. Girls are always obsessed with beauty; attention should be paid to physical appearance regardless of personality and mentality. *Snow White* enhances the stereotypical image of the hero with his extraordinary skills and handsome appearance. This story's classical and expected message is that the passive, patient, silent, and beautiful young lady should wait for the handsome hero to save her and marry her to live happily ever after.

In *Sleeping Beauty*, the depiction of the princess as extraordinarily beautiful has an essential emphasis on pushing the actions of the tale forward and plays a decisive role in shaping the destiny of this young princess. She is exposed as the fairest girl who can ever see with her tall and slender body, long blond hair, and fair flawless skin. Again, the main focus is the physical appearance of this female figure as a gift from the fairy godmother upon her birth. In this regard, the reader can find that the first gift that may be given to the girl is beauty rather than anything else, like intelligence or a powerful personality. It is a clear message that a woman should be gifted with her physical appearance to be considered lucky. Without this beauty, she may face hard times in her future life. It also emphasizes maintaining gender roles and the obsession with physical appearance. Accordingly, the outcomes of these fairy tales with these messages are persons who focus on the women's body and their physical traits than any other characteristics related to her personality, mentality, or even cultural ideas.

On the other hand, the prince never met the princess but heard some stories about her and her extraordinary beauty. He is introduced at the end to save the princess and get married after beating all evils in this story. It is clear from the story that he has the decision to support this helpless princess as a part of his leadership in this world. At the same time, the girl is rewarded for her patient waiting. It is clearly stated that "little girls could not help but imitate" (Harries, 2003, p. 10), and giving a clear direction to achieve the status of being a princess, girls have to wait for support from the prince who can change your life and destiny as well.

The exact depiction of the female figure can also be found in *Cinderella*. Special attention is given to the little girl's beauty and how she can expose this beauty to conquer the heart of someone (the prince). Additionally, the girl tries to show her attractive physical appearance through the dance performed among many other girls. In this situation, the tale has a serious message regarding the association between love and the beauty of the woman's physical appearance. As a result of her attractive appearance and dance, the prince is attracted to her directly. So, the reader can find Cinderella's character is an example of the judgment that can be made according to superficial physical traits regardless of any other factors. In addition to this profound message, the reader can find that the other two sisters of Cinderella are so jealous of her beauty. So, her beauty causes many problems for her. In other words, the competition between women is over physical appearance and who is prettier than the other, and this competition can make many conflicts and personal clashes.

Additionally, the young girls who usually read this tale should think about the prince who may come to rescue them from their miserable situations and save them and get married to live happily ever after. This scenario can be difficult or (impossible) in real life, and the result can bear tremendous disappointment for those dreaming girls. In conclusion, *Cinderella* is the ideal example of simple messages and the passive idealization of dreams or wishes. So, it should be read with extensive adult supervision to modify some of its learned lessons and avoid future hazardous impacts.

V. CONCLUSION

As mentioned before, fairy tales place a significant position in the heart of children's literature in a specific and childhood stage in general. These stories have a kind of important part in the mind of every single child through one tale he/she reads, watches, or listens. Moreover, the impacts of these stories still remarkably influence their lives and personal development in general. Fairy tales succeeded in conveying many values, beliefs, and standards of morality. These messages are transmitted from one generation to another and from one culture to another. The readers may understand the tremendous effect on millions of young readers.

However, readers may examine many hazardous impacts and implicit messages about maintaining patriarchal beliefs and unequal gender roles. The reader can identify the most severe threat in these fairy tales by portraying the female characters as submissive, naïve, helpless, and obsessive with their physical appearance. They rarely have an active role in the social life or even in pushing the story's actions except waiting for the gentleman's support. These fairy tales perpetuate the stereotypical patriarchal notion about women's image.

Objectification in traditional versions of fairy tales has been a topic of discussion for many years. The portrayal of women as passive objects to be won, rescued, or punished is a common theme in these stories. Women are often depicted as beautiful, helpless, and in need of a man to save them. This depiction reinforces harmful gender stereotypes and perpetuates a culture of objectification.

For example, in the story of *Cinderella*, the protagonist is mistreated by her stepmother and stepsisters and can only escape her situation with the help of a prince. The prince falls in love with her based on her appearance alone, without knowing her personality or character. This reinforces the idea that a woman's worth is based solely on her appearance. Similarly, in the story of *Sleeping Beauty*, an evil witch puts the princess into a deep sleep and can only be awakened by a prince's kiss. This reinforces the idea that a woman's worth is tied to her ability to be desired and desired by a man.

The readers can find a deliberate intention to expose the female figures in dependent and subordinate roles. Additionally, her future life or destiny may be decided according to the existence of this prince (powerful male) to get married at the end of the story. The theme of marriage is exposed as the final and precious reward for the girl's passivity,

obedience, and waiting for this young man. Finally, the female figures in these stories are always presented as very superficial, with no worries about their personal development. All conflicts are revolved around being prettier than others. These traditional fairy tales have been passed down through generations and are popular today. However, it is essential to acknowledge their harmful message and work towards creating more inclusive and empowering stories. It is time to move away from the objectification of women in literature and strive for more diverse and representative storytelling.

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Conducting Undergraduate Research: EFL Students' Perceptions and Practices

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Abstract—**Undergraduate research has received increasing attention for its potential applications in different domains of EFL contexts, including English language teaching and learning. The purposes of this mixed-methods study were to explore EFL students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research at the undergraduate level and the challenges faced by students when conducting research. The population of the study was EFL undergraduate students studying at a university of foreign languages in central Vietnam. The sample consisted of 200 third-year and fourth-year students majoring in English Language Studies and English Language Teaching. The data were collected through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results show that EFL students were aware of the importance of doing research at the undergraduate level and held positive attitudes towards participating in research as student researchers. In terms of the EFL students' perceived practices of conducting undergraduate research, the findings reveal that the studied EFL students, with or without research experience, were prepared in a variety of ways to conduct research at the university level. However, the findings suggest that the reality of conducting undergraduate research did pose some considerable challenges for these students. The most frequently encountered difficulties included choosing an interesting research topic, developing a theoretical framework relevant to the research objectives, and identifying research gaps after reviewing prior studies. Recommendations are then put forward for EFL students, teachers, and institutions.**

Index Terms—**undergraduate research, EFL students, benefits, challenges, process**

I. INTRODUCTION

In educational contexts, research is not only a subject matter only for educators or teachers, but also a business for students themselves, especially those at higher education levels. Healey and Jenkins (2009) claimed that all undergraduate students in all higher education institutions should experience learning through, and about, research and inquiry. Numerous study results revealed the benefits of undergraduate research, including increased critical thinking, refined communication skills, clearer organizational skills, a healthy sense of self-efficacy and competence, and collaborative learning (Badura et al., 2000; Laursen et al., 2006; Lopatto, 2006; Seymour et al., 2004).

Nevertheless, undergraduate research is not a straightforward task for every student, as several studies point out the barriers and challenges that students encounter when they do research. Papanastasiou (2005) stated that undergraduate students generally tend to think about research methods courses negatively. This negative attitude stems from the difficulties in conducting research, namely the problems of research, the number of given workloads, and students' concerns towards the area under discussion (Hussain et al., 2016). Therefore, there is an urgent need to investigate how undergraduate students think about research and their practices of conducting research to seek effective solutions to students' problems in doing research and foster students' engagement in research in the future.

In the EFL contexts, undergraduate research has received increasing attention for its potential applications in different domains, including English language teaching and learning, second language acquisition, and linguistics. Conducting research on current issues in the EFL fields has been introduced and encouraged among undergraduate students. Despite a large volume of studies investigating EFL students' perceptions of doing research in various contexts (e.g., Elmabruk & Bishti, 2020; Qasem & Zayid, 2019; Yeh, 2009), there has been a dearth of research focusing on this topic in the Vietnamese setting until recently. Even though there have been significant contributions of findings from previous studies in this research strand, it has been long overdue for an in-depth study of the EFL students' perspectives on the necessity of undergraduate research together with their practices. The present study aims to answer the following questions:

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1. What are EFL students' perceptions of conducting undergraduate research?
2. What are EFL students' perceived practices of conducting undergraduate research at their university?
3. What are the challenges faced by EFL students when conducting research at their university?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Research and Undergraduate Research

Research is a term that has been defined in a variety of ways; however, they all share certain similarities. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) defined research as "a systematic process of collecting and logically analyzing information (data) for some purposes" (p. 8). Creswell (2008) defined research in a similar but more detailed manner, stating that "research is a process of steps used to collect and analyze information to increase our understanding of a topic or issue" (p. 3). When researchers conduct a study, they follow a certain procedure which primarily consists of six steps (Creswell, 2008; McMillan & Schumacher, 1993) namely, identifying a research problem; reviewing the literature; specifying a purpose and research questions or hypotheses; collecting either quantitative or qualitative data; analyzing and interpreting either quantitative or qualitative data; and reporting and evaluating the research. Conducting research is therefore an important way to improve students' ability to think critically and solve problems, both of which are essential throughout their career (Adebisi, 2022).

The term undergraduate research and its incorporation into the curriculum evolved from US practice, most notably the innovative work of Margaret MacVicar, who founded the groundbreaking Undergraduate Research Opportunities Program in 1969 while serving as dean of undergraduate education at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Cohen & MacVicar, 1976; as cited in Healey & Jenkins, 2010). However, Healey and Jenkins (2009) argued that one of the finest definitions of undergraduate research was offered by the University of Gloucestershire as student engagement from induction to graduation, individually and in groups, in research and inquiry into disciplinary, professional, and community-based problems and issues, including involvement in knowledge exchange activities (Childs et al., 2007; as cited in Healey & Jenkins, 2009).

Engaging students in scientific research early in their training programs has been a policy in many higher education institutions (Seymour et al., 2004; Lopatto, 2007). By integrating research into their academic courses, students can strengthen their autonomous critical thinking abilities as well as their oral and written communication skills (Adebisi, 2022).

The development of research skills in undergraduates has therefore been an issue of interest in higher education pedagogy and curriculum. Munthe and Rogne (2015) highlighted that research competence in educators must be acquired in the initial university training. Indeed, university students must understand the discipline in which they are becoming professionals and initiate scientific inquiry as a way of acquiring knowledge and innovation in their disciplinary field (Visser-Wijnveen et al., 2015; Gess et al., 2018).

In the Vietnamese context, scientific research activities, especially at colleges and universities, are emphasized and encouraged for development. Paragraph 1-Article 39: Objectives of Higher Education – Law on Education of Vietnam (2019) prescribes one of the objectives of Higher Education is training a workforce of high qualifications, improving people's knowledge, fostering talents; conducting scientific and technological research to invent new knowledge and products. Therefore, many universities, colleges, and institutions in Vietnam have made efforts to disseminate undergraduate research and encourage students in undertaking research in different disciplines. Research methodology courses are included in many undergraduate curricula to help students develop their research skills. Moreover, there are a few final-year students who satisfy specific requirements could be offered a chance to conduct graduation research projects.

In the context of this research, the targeted participants had offered opportunities to develop their research skills at the university through a course called Research Methodology. Some even had opportunities to engage in research through graduation research projects or university-level research projects in science and technology.

B. Benefits of Research Experiences for Undergraduate Students

On the evidence of results from numerous studies, participating in research projects would considerably benefit undergraduate students in many aspects. Kuh (2003) noted that students involved in their learning process were more capable of having richer, evocative, educational experiences. Therefore, students' engagement in meaningful and practical research not only familiarizes themselves with scientific concepts and techniques, but may also have a substantial impact on students' educational and career paths. Lopatto (2010) claimed that "a good research experience helps one to be a better student" (p. 3). In his research, the reported advantages of research experiences covered increases in a range of discipline skills, study design, information or data gathering and analysis, and information literacy. Additionally, student responses rate their professional growth options, which include academic publishing, joining a learning community, and developing relationships with mentors and peers. It is also worth mentioning that undergraduate students who participated in the research, compared to students without research experience, were discovered to have a greater likelihood of completing their undergraduate studies (Ishiyama, 2002), and proceeding to postgraduate programs (Alexander et al., 2000; Bauer & Bennett, 2003).

Numerous studies have demonstrated that the benefits of undergraduate research extended well beyond academics. These advantages included enhanced critical thinking, improved communication skills, improved organizational abilities, a healthy sense of self-efficacy and competence, and collaborative learning (Seymour et al., 2004; Alderton & Manzi, 2017). Lei and Chuang (2009) also added that things such as "self-confidence, self-efficacy, teamwork, leadership, time-management, and social relation skills" result from the research process, and that these skills are imperative in any future career choice of undergraduate students (p. 4). Healey and Jenkins (2009) pointed out that the learning of research skills relates to cognitive gain and also has the potential to add value to the degree experience by enhancing employability prospects.

These findings lead to the conclusion that students who take part in research at the undergraduate level could gain enormous benefits from research experience when it comes to educational experience, academic achievement, professional development, career path, and other personal skills.

C. Challenges Faced by Students When Conducting Research

Several studies point out the barriers and challenges that students as researchers encounter when doing research. Papanastasiou (2005) stated that undergraduate students generally tend to think about research methods courses negatively. This negative attitude stems from the difficulties in conducting research, namely the problems of research, the number of given workloads and students' concerns towards the area under discussion (Hussain et al., 2016; Sachitra, 2016; Al-Qaderi, 2016). Mapolisa and Mafa (2012) classified 3 main categories of challenges that influence how successful a student's research experience is. They include mentor-student challenges, for example, the engagement between the instructor and student or advisor's availability; student-related challenges such as students' motivation or commitment, and lack of knowledge; and institution-related challenges, namely lack of research materials and workshops to help foster a student's computer literacy or research skills.

These challenges may hinder undergraduate students from engaging in research as well as conducting their research.

In general, despite the benefits that students gain from research experience, there are considerable challenges and difficulties that student researchers might face when conducting research. These challenges would likely demotivate students in the research process and partly influence the quality of their research works if they are not solved timely and effectively.

D. Related Studies

To explore students' perceptions and attitudes towards conducting research, several studies have been conducted with students in different fields of study, including business, medicine, education and TESOL (Alderton & Manzi, 2017; Alghamdi et al., 2014; Imafuku et al., 2015; Jiang & Roberts, 2011; Popovic et al., 2021). For example, in the field of business, Jiang and Roberts (2011) conducted a study to examine the effect of two research-led education methods on students' learning and understanding of research in the context of two university courses in International Business with the participation of 27 third-year undergraduate and graduate students. Through a questionnaire survey, they found that students expressed positive perceptions towards both research-led education approaches. However, many students said they lacked an understanding of the stages needed in conducting research and had difficulty controlling the process, particularly their time management. In the field of medicine, a research study was done by Alghamdi et al. (2014) regarding senior medical students' perceptions, attitudes, and practices toward research at a Saudi Arabian university. This quantitative research involved 172 fourth and fifth-year medical majors in a questionnaire survey. The obtained results revealed that the majority of students considered research crucial in the medical sector, and they found that it helped them improve research skills, get a positive achievement on their resume, and reinforce a teamwork spirit. The underlying reason that prevented the students from undertaking research was mainly due to a lack of professional supervisors, training courses, time, and funds.

In the TESOL field, Elmabruk and Bishti (2020) conducted a study to explore the attitudes and perceived challenges of 52 EFL students at a Libyan EFL Department concerning doing a graduation research project through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. They found that more than half of the students showed a positive attitude toward their graduation research project, whereas the rest adopted a kind of ambivalent attitude. They also identified the causes of this uncertainty were due to both realistic difficulties, including a lack of resources, insufficient research skills, and supervisory issues; and unrealistic difficulties, namely time limits, fear of public speaking, and difficulties identifying research topics. In a Vietnamese context, Duy (2017) investigated the problems encountered by EFL students throughout the preparatory stage of doing research, together with the reasons and origins of the problems. The research study was carried out at a university of foreign languages in Central Vietnam through questionnaires and interviews. 70 third- and fourth-year students majoring in English were chosen to take part in the study. From the findings, four categories of problems were reported by the students, including problems with selecting topics, difficulties in doing a literature review, challenges in formulating research questions, and lacking the research resources. The difficulties discovered were caused by both students' lack of research skills and research resources.

To summarize, the studies reviewed above yield a range of findings on students' perceptions of and attitudes toward doing research, as well as the practices of undergraduate students performing research in a variety of contexts. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that although many studies focus on exploring the benefits and challenges of research, little research has been done on exploring participants' perceptions and attitudes. Another noteworthy point in these

studies is that the target participants are students with research experience, but little is known about those without research experience. Although there are some studies regarding students' perceptions of research, attitudes towards doing research or challenges in doing research, the scopes of these studies are rather limited with small sample sizes ranging from 7 to 70 participants. Last but not least, the breadth of these studies in EFL contexts is somewhat limited to the preparatory stage of doing research; there is still a need for further research into the problems Vietnamese students might confront in the whole process of doing undergraduate research. The current research study is, therefore, conducted so as to fill the research gaps mentioned above.

III. METHODOLOGY

This research study is of descriptive design, employing a combined quantitative and qualitative approach to data collection and analysis. A structured questionnaire and in-depth interviews were used as the research instruments.

A. Participants

The target population investigated in this research was 200 EFL students majoring in the English language at a faculty of English of a university of foreign languages in central Vietnam. In this study, the chosen participants were third- and fourth-year EFL undergraduate students who majored in English Language Studies and English Language Teaching at a university of foreign languages in central Vietnam. This study targeted these EFL students as they became acquainted with scientific research through a compulsory course called "Research Methodology" as a part of their curriculum in their second year; therefore, they might have a basic understanding of research. Regarding mini-research projects as course assignments and graduation research projects, as they are part of their undergraduate curriculum, students have to submit their projects for marking. When it comes to graduation research projects, however, only students who satisfy two conditions can carry out research projects. The first condition is that the cumulative grade point average of their third year must be good (from 7.0 to 8.4) or above, and the number of retake courses is no more than one course. The second condition is that the grade of the 3rd-year Reading and Writing modules must be at least seven points. Students are offered opportunities to conduct studies within their disciplines, individually or in groups, under the guidance of a mentor.

B. Research Instruments

(a). The Questionnaire

The first tool used in this study is a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed based on previous findings on students' perceptions, attitudes, and practices toward undergraduate research by Alghamdi et al. (2014), Alderton and Manzi (2017), and the challenges and problems faced by students in doing undergraduate research by Mapolisa and Mafa (2012), Duy (2017), and Qasem and Zayid (2019). The questionnaire included 46 five-point Likert scale items arranged into five categories, namely (1) EFL students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research, (2) attitudes towards conducting research, (3) perceived practices of preparation, (4) institutional support for conducting research, and (5) challenges that students faced when conducting research.

TABLE 1
ITEMS CATEGORIZED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Categories	Items
A. Students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
B. Students' attitudes towards conducting research	6, 7, 8, 9, 10
C. Students' perceived practices of preparation for undergraduate research	11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18
D. Students' perceived practices of institutional support for conducting research	19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25
E. Student-related challenges of conducting research	• Time: 26, 27 • Motivation & Confidence: 28, 29 • Choosing research topic: 30, 31 • Doing literature: 32, 33, 34 • Formulating research questions: 35 • Finding related materials: 36 • Choosing research method: 37, 38 • Dealing with data collection & analysis: 39, 40 • Dealing with research results: 41, 42 • Other challenges: 43, 44, 45, 46

(b). The Interview

To gain more detailed insights into the participants' perceptions of the importance of conducting research and challenges in the process of conducting research, 10 in-depth interviews were conducted after the researcher analyzed the data collected from the questionnaires. The interview questions were developed after the researcher collected and analyzed data from the questionnaires. Ten open-ended questions regarding their perceptions of the importance of doing research within their disciplines, their attitudes towards conducting research, and their practices of doing research were

constructed to elicit their best responses. The interview participants included 10 EFL students who had filled the questionnaire survey. However, only students who had experience in graduation research projects and university-level research projects were selected and invited for the interviews because they could provide a more insightful understanding of research and fully share their research experiences with the researcher.

B. Data Collection Procedure

After piloting the questionnaires, the researchers distributed the revised ones to the English-majored students. Due to the outbreak of COVID-19, the researchers couldn't meet the students in person and deliver the questionnaires to students directly. As a consequence, the researcher had to create an online questionnaire survey using Google Forms and send it to the target students from 8 different classes. The students completed the questionnaires, and the system saved their answers automatically.

A couple of weeks after the questionnaires were analyzed, the researchers deliberately contacted 10 students participating in the survey to invite them to attend the interviews. The researchers arranged both online and offline meetings with them. The interview lasted about 20 minutes for each participant, both in English and Vietnamese. During the interviews, the researchers took notes carefully and used a cell phone to record the answers with the permission of the participants. The interview procedure took place in a week.

C. Data Analysis

The quantitative data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 26.0. The Cronbach's Alpha (α) was .865. Three types of tests were then applied to analyze the data, including the Reliability Coefficient Test, the Descriptive Statistics Test, and the One–sample T-test. To define whether the analyzed data was high or low from the range from 1 to 5, the researcher based on Moidunny's (2009) scale (Table 2).

TABLE 2
MEAN SCORE INTERPRETATION

Mean Score	Interpretation
1.00 – 1.80	Very low
1.81 – 2.60	Low
2.61 – 3.20	Medium
3.21 – 4.20	High
4.21 – 5.0	Very high

The qualitative data were analyzed from the recordings and the notes obtained from the interviews. This study followed seven steps of data analysis introduced by Sjöström and Dahlgren (2002) as follows: (1) "familiarization" in which the researchers must read transcripts to become acquainted with empirical facts and gain a perspective of the larger picture; (2) "compilation" of responses to a specific question from all respondents; (3) "condensation" of the individual responses to identify the core component of longer responses; (4) "grouping", in which the researchers classify responses that indicate comparable ways of perceiving the issue; (5) "comparison" of categories in terms of similarities and differences; (6) "labeling" the category to convey its core meanings; and (7) "contrastive comparison" of categories by contrastively comparing the categories, the unique characteristics of the categories and their relationship. Following these steps above, the data were carefully reviewed several times by the researchers, and salient categories were inductively generated.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Participants' Profile

Of the 200 EFL students participating in the survey, most of the participants (80.5%) were in their third year of university, while only 19.5% were in their final year. The proportion of females to males was about eight (85%) to one (15%). Regarding their major, it was found that most of the students (84%) majored in English Language Study, while the rest (16%) were English Language Teaching majors.

Besides, it is noteworthy to mention participants' experience in conducting research. Approximately two-thirds of the students (68%) responded that they had engaged in doing research, while only 64 students had no research experience. Regarding 136 students who had experience in doing research, they were required to specify the types of research that they had engaged in. Among 136 students having experience in doing research, the majority of them responded that they did a mini-research project as a course assignment. A small proportion of students conducted other types of research, namely graduation research projects and university-level research projects in science and technology.

B. Overall Mean Scores of the Five Categories

As highlighted in the methodology sector, the questionnaire consisted of 5 categories. A *Descriptive Statistics Test* was run to check the total mean scores of all items in each category to explore how these different issues were perceived by EFL students. The results of the *Descriptive Statistics Test* were presented in Table 3 below.

Categories	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
A. EFL students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research	200	3.95	.593	.0419
B. EFL students' attitudes towards conducting research	200	3.67	.677	.0479
C. EFL students' perceived practices of preparation for undergraduate research	200	3.72	.595	.0421
D. EFL students' perceived practices of institutional support for conducting research	136	3.92	.636	.0545
E. EFL students' challenges of conducting research	136	3.38	.682	.0585

The analysis from the One-Sample T-test indicated that the Sig. (2-tailed) (*p*) values of the T-test of the five categories were all less than .005 (with *t* and *df* of 17.828 and 199; 9.835 and 199; 12.261 and 199; 13.263 and 135; and 3.155 and 135, respectively). It follows that most of the participants (n =200) who got involved in the study showed positive perceptions and offered the strongest support for the first three categories, with the highest mean score of 3.95 (students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research); the second-highest mean score of 3.72 (students' perceived practices of preparation for undergraduate research) and the lowest one of 3.67 (students' attitudes towards conducting research). In addition, the results show that they seemed to be prepared to do research and received support from their institution. However, the challenges faced by students when conducting research in practice should also be taken into consideration.

C. EFL Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Conducting Research

The responses to 5 statements in the first category of the questionnaire provided the data on EFL students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research in their professional education. The results are presented in Table 4 below.

Statements	Min	Max	Mean	SD
1. Doing research is indispensable in my professional training at university.	2	5	3.94	.822
2. Research is essential for my professional development at university.	2	5	4.11	.765
3. Research is important for enriching my professional knowledge of the English language.	2	5	4.18	.746
4. Doing research is an undergraduate students' responsibility.	1	5	3.53	.940
5. Research methodology should be a part of the English language curriculum.	1	5	3.97	.879

The results from the first category show that the mean values of the statements "Research is important for enriching my professional knowledge of the English language" and "Research is essential for my professional development at university" were the highest (M = 4.18 and M = 4.11, respectively). It is interesting to emphasize that the mean value of the item "Doing research is an undergraduate student's responsibility" was the lowest in this group (M = 3.53).

The data from the interviews revealed more profound insights into EFL students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research at the undergraduate level, and it also supports the results obtained from the questionnaires. For instance, a student stated:

"I think university research is essential for students, whether or not they have an intention to pursue further studies in their discipline. For those who intend to study at the postgraduate level, this is essential to help them familiarize themselves with basic research steps, and prepare well for conducting their research in the postgraduate program. On the other hand, for those who do not intend to study at a higher level, scientific research contributes to helping students practice necessary skills for their future jobs, such as information searching and filtering skills, or data processing and analysis" (Student 8).

Eight out of ten students in the interviews strongly believed that after doing research, they seemed to explore issues in their learning and profession from a critical thinking perspective as they had opportunities to develop their analytical skills such as collecting and analyzing information, problem-solving, and decision-making.

D. EFL Students' Attitudes Towards Conducting Research

To explore their attitudes towards research, the second category was developed with 5 items regarding this matter. The results of the Descriptive Statistics Test were summarized in the following table.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON EFL STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD CONDUCTING RESEARCH

Statements	Min	Max	Mean	SD
6. Research is interesting.	1	5	3.58	.984
7. I am interested in participating in research as a student researcher.	1	5	3.63	.999
8. I am confident of conducting my own research.	1	5	3.21	.927
9. Ability to do research is a part of a good university student.	1	5	3.92	.870
10. Undergraduate research experience influences my self-perception as a graduate student in the future.	1	5	4.02	.833

The results indicate that the students showed the highest level of attitude toward the influence of undergraduate research on their self-perceptions as graduate students in the future (M = 4.02). It is worth noting that a considerable number of participants held the opinion that the ability to conduct research was an important aspect of being a good university student (M = 3.92). However, when it comes to their confidence in conducting their research, this item got the lowest mean score of 3.21.

From the results of the interview, it should be emphasized that the students who had done research at the undergraduate level asserted that there was a change in their attitude after they did their research. More importantly, half of them even decided to continue with postgraduate studies in their chosen professional field after conducting their undergraduate research.

E. EFL Students' Perceived Practices of Conducting Research

(a). EFL Students' Perceived Practices of Preparation for Undergraduate Research

Table 6 below indicates information about the preparation for student undergraduate research.

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON EFL STUDENTS' PERCEIVED PRACTICES OF PREPARATION FOR CONDUCTING UNDERGRADUATE RESEARCH

Statements	Min	Max	Mean	SD
11. My institution offers courses in doing research for undergraduate students.	2	5	3.82	.794
12. I know from the first to the final steps in the research process.	1	5	3.48	.945
13. I am taught to differentiate between qualitative and quantitative research types.	1	5	3.62	.960
14. I know how to write a research proposal.	1	5	3.64	.972
15. I am provided with research skills training from my institution.	1	5	3.88	.832
16. I am trained for academic writing in English.	1	5	4.05	.759
17. My institution often holds practical workshops, conferences, and seminars on research for undergraduate students.	1	5	3.68	.868
18. I am provided with opportunities to discuss scientific research topics with experienced researchers.	1	5	3.59	.963

The results show that the participants reported to be trained in conducting research at the university level. The most common types of training students received were academic writing in English (M = 4.05), followed by research skills (M = 3.88), and offered courses in doing research (M = 3.82). More than half of those students agreed that practical workshops, conferences, and seminars on doing research were held for undergraduate students by their institution (M = 3.68). When it comes to the research process, the mean score of this item is the lowest in this category (M = 3.48).

When being asked about the preparation for conducting research, the participants in the interviews offered similar answers in response to a course offered by the institution as a guide for doing research. One student stated, *"After finishing the course, students in my class had an opportunity to do a mini-research project instead of taking the final examination. However, in some classes, students are required to write a research proposal only" (Student 3).*

More importantly, they were taught how to analyze and evaluate the collected information that is relevant to the subject being studied. Besides, half of the students said that they had learned some research skills through conferences, seminars, or workshops on research taking place at their university.

(b). EFL Students' Perceived Practices of Institutional Support for Doing Research

The question items in the fourth category of the questionnaires give information about institutional support for doing undergraduate research at the institution. However, this part was exclusive to the group of students with research experience (N=136). The quantitative results show that those students did certainly receive support from their institution in conducting research. The students appeared to get assistance from their supervisors as they gave them detailed guidance (M = 4.10) and practical support (M = 3.87) in conducting research. In addition, they also obtained benefits from the research methodology course offered by their institution in conducting research, as the mean score of this item is relatively high (M = 3.84).

The interview results were in line with the findings obtained from the questionnaires that the participants received considerable support from their institution when they conducted research, especially from their supervisors, the teachers of the faculty of English, and the staff at the institution.

F. EFL Student-Related Challenges of Conducting Research

The last category, which consisted of 21 items, focuses on students' challenges in conducting undergraduate research. From the results, the mean score of the item regarding time management was relatively high (M = 3.15; SD = 1.017). The results from the interviews also revealed that two-thirds of the students had real trouble with time management, which became their biggest challenge in conducting research.

In terms of the lack of motivation and confidence in doing research, approximately more than one-third of students joining the survey considered these challenges (M = 3.23; SD = 1.102 and M = 3.46; M = 3.46; SD = 1.154, respectively). In addition, the lack of knowledge of the chosen topic was likely a matter of concern, with a mean score of 3.36 (SD = 1.023).

Especially noteworthy was the finding concerning the students' challenges in doing literature reviews. Two out of three items concerning this matter got the highest mean scores in the category, with M = 3,65 (SD =.891) for the item "I struggle with building a theoretical framework in relation to my research questions" and M = 3.69 (SD =.915) for the item "I struggle with identifying gaps of research after reviewing previous studies".

The interview results suggest that doing the literature review was a real challenge mentioned by half of the participants. A student claimed, *"My biggest challenge was writing a coherent and logical literature review because I had to think of a reasonable and logical outline to establish a comprehensive theoretical framework for my research. And the problem is that my way of thinking follows a circular pattern, making the literature review illogical. As a result, I spent days reading and fixing it again and again" (Student 9).*

In terms of dealing with the research findings, some students in the interview expressed that they found it difficult to report and discuss their findings as they had inadequate training for writing these parts.

V. Discussion

A. EFL Students' Perceptions of the Importance of Conducting Research

The obtained results regarding EFL students' perceptions of the importance of conducting research are tentatively positive. The quantitative findings suggest that most of the investigated students with or without undergraduate research experience were inclined to agree on the necessity of research in enriching their professional knowledge in their chosen field and fostering their professional development at the university level. These findings are well-matched with those found by AlGhamdi et al. (2014). This result suggests that conducting research should be one essential element in developing students' profession.

The qualitative data indicate that students who had conducted research seemed to show greater appreciation towards research experiences, as they likely obtained substantial benefits from doing undergraduate research projects. This finding concurred with previous studies which showed that research experience was beneficial for students (Alderton & Manzi, 2017; AlGhamdi et al., 2014; Imafuku et al., 2015; Jiang & Palmela, 2011; Popovic et al., 2021; Yeh, 2009). Similar to previous findings on the additional benefits of doing research, this study found that many students mentioned gains in critical thinking (Alderton & Manzi, 2017; Falconer & Holcomb, 2008), improvement in research skills such as synthesizing and analyzing information (Jiang & Palmela, 2011; Lopatto, 2010; Popovic et al., 2021), and scientific writing skills (Seymour et al., 2004).

B. EFL Students' Attitudes towards Conducting Research

The findings in this study show that Vietnamese EFL students did not hold negative attitudes toward research. Instead, many of the students thought that research was interesting and showed very moderate interest in engaging in research as a student researcher. This finding is similar to that found by Elmabruk and Bishti (2020). In addition, most of the students agreed that undergraduate research experience influences their self-perception as graduate students in the future. These findings also concur with those of Alderton and Manzi (2017) which showed students majoring in education also took a moderate to strong interest in doing research and their research experience affected their decision to continue graduate studies.

Another striking finding that should be mentioned was the shift in the attitudes of students after doing research. The qualitative data revealed that engaging in and conducting research considerably changed their attitudes as they became more confident and found doing research interesting and useful, which prompted them to consider conducting future research. This result of the study is in line with that of Alderton and Manzi (2017).

C. EFL Students' Perceived Practices of Conducting Research

(a). EFL Students' Perceived Practices of Preparation for Undergraduate Research

It is believed that one of the most fundamental aspects of successfully engaging in or doing undergraduate research as a student researcher is to be adequately prepared for it. According to the obtained data, the majority of students agreed that their institution offered courses in doing research for all undergraduate students as parts of the curriculum, which equipped them with research skills. This finding is not compatible with that of AlGhamdi et al. (2014), Elmabruk and Bishti (2020), and Mapolisa and Mafa (2012). However, it is worth mentioning that the effectiveness of these courses in providing necessary knowledge and skills for students was still in question as the students were not in full

agreement with issues such as knowing steps in the research process, research types, and how to write a research proposal.

(b). EFL Students' Perceived Practices of Institutional Support for Doing Research

It is assumed that novice undergraduate researchers could not progress smoothly through every stage of the research process without the support of the institution where they conduct research projects. In this study, the majority of researcher students reported receiving detailed guidance on doing research and practical support from their supervisors, which enabled them to overcome the tough challenges of doing research. This finding contrasts with the result of Mapolisa and Mafa (2012) who found that students faced challenges from the absence of supervisors from their work, which exerted certain negative impacts on the students' capacities to conduct research. It is also crucial to mention the support from the teachers and staff at their university who would provide real help for them as novice researcher students. Another noteworthy issue found in this study was that during the COVID-19 pandemic, the students could not go to the university to find the necessary materials. This raises a big concern about the accessibility of research resources for students in unusual conditions when they had to study and do research online.

D. EFL Students' Challenges of Conducting Research

It seemed that the EFL students in this study encountered different challenges; however, the most common challenges were identifying gaps of research after reviewing previous studies, building a theoretical framework in relation to the research question, and choosing a topic of interest to do research. These challenges were comparable to the results of some previous studies conducted in EFL settings by Elmabruk and Bishti (2020), Qasem and Zayid (2019), Duy (2017), and Yeh (2009).

Another finding obtained from the qualitative data was that writing a research report in an English academic style would likely become a challenge for some EFL students. Although the students in this study were English language majors, it did not mean that they could write or do research in English efficiently.

More importantly, it is necessary to note that the extent to which the studied EFL students faced the challenges suggested in the questionnaires was not very strong, as the means of all items just ranged from 2.76 to 3.69 on the five-point scale. This difference might result from the variation in the background knowledge of the students. Among the participants, the fourth-year students might have more opportunities to engage in or do research, while the third year might have their first experience with research.

VI. IMPLICATIONS

The data gained from the research about the importance of doing research suggest that EFL students should first actively seek and take up any opportunity to engage in or do research related to their major when they are in university. Secondly, they should make meticulous preparation for doing research by determining their research interests and discussing the topics with experienced researchers to get suitable directions before doing research. Third, they should familiarize themselves with the academic environment and build up research skills by taking research methodology courses, attending workshops, seminars, or conferences regarding research or doing research in their chosen disciplines. Fourth, from the challenges of the study, it is necessary for EFL students to acquire a substantial level of English language proficiency, particularly in reading and academic writing. In terms of time management, it is essential for students to acquire a clear understanding of all the steps in the research process to allocate time for each research stage properly and better balance their research, studies, and personal lives.

The findings put forward some recommendations for teachers. First, teachers should find ways to encourage students to get involved in doing research. Secondly, teachers should teach the course of research methodology in a practical and effective way. Finally, teachers should advise and assist students in developing their research abilities during this course by demonstrating the skills or offering practice assignments.

Because undergraduate research is important and beneficial to EFL students, institutions should make greater efforts to disseminate undergraduate research. First, the management staff and faculty members of the institution should pay attention to students who are doing research or have the intention of conducting research. Secondly, seminars and workshops should focus on students' real needs for doing research. Thirdly, the university library should have a greater number of books on research methods and other current materials organized by study area to facilitate students' use of the library when conducting research. Fourthly, because students cannot visit the university library to hunt for resources in the context of online teaching and learning, the institution should digitize existing materials and establish an online database accessible to all university students.

VII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the study results reveal that the EFL students were aware of the importance of doing research at the undergraduate level because of several reasons. The strongest reason was that doing research is an important way to enrich their professional knowledge of the English language, which is their major at university. In terms of the participants' attitudes towards doing research, approximately more than half of the EFL students thought that doing research was interesting, so they showed a positive attitude towards participating in research as student researchers.

When dealing with their perceived practices of conducting undergraduate research, it can be concluded that all the investigated EFL students, with or without research experience, were prepared in a variety of ways to conduct research at the university level. Furthermore, it can be seen that they received support from their institution while doing their research, particularly from their supervisors, faculty, school staff, and library. As regards challenges, the most frequently encountered difficulties included selecting an interesting research topic, developing a theoretical framework in relation to the research objectives, and discovering research gaps after examining prior studies. All of these results make significant contributions to the reality of doing research, particularly perceptions, attitudes, and practices by undergraduate students in EFL contexts.

The study has a number of limitations. Firstly, the scope of this study is still limited to a rather small sample of 200 EFL third- and fourth-year students at only one university; therefore, it could not be generalized for all the EFL contexts where there are practices of undergraduate research. Secondly, there is an imbalance in the number of third-year and fourth-year students, which might have resulted in slight difference in the perception of conducting research because fourth-year students might have more experience. Thirdly, as the questionnaire was written in English and delivered online, it might result in participants' misunderstanding or giving answers that did not express their real viewpoints regarding investigated issues.

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More Than an Information Source: A Bibliometric Review of Evidential Studies (1992–2021)

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Abstract—As a linguistic phenomenon with information sources as its core semantic content, evidentiality has received much academic attention. Based on data from Web of Science (WOS) from 1992 to 2021, this study performed a bibliometric analysis to track the changes and characteristics of evidential studies, focusing on the number of published papers, prolific authors, journals and institutions, and highly cited literature. Our findings indicated that (1) the last 40 years have seen a significant increase in interest in evidential studies; (2) prolific authors exhibit strong connections with high-yield institutions; (3) the United States and Spain are the top two most influential contributors in evidential studies; and (4) research has mostly centred on theoretical, typological, semantic, and pragmatic studies of evidentiality. Finally, this study traced the changes in topics over the past 30 years and proposed future directions for evidential studies. This study suggested that future studies should investigate evidentiality in various languages to establish a more inclusive typology and further enrich the semantics of evidentiality as well as focus on more diversified genres and broader social contexts.

Index Terms—information source, evidentiality, evidential study, bibliometrics

I. INTRODUCTION

Evidentiality is a semantic category that primarily refers to the speaker's account of the source of the information stated. Evidential studies began when the American anthropologist Boas (1911) discovered that in some Indian languages, a linguistic phenomenon exists that expresses the source of information. This was later termed *evidentiality*, while the linguistic expressions of evidentiality were termed *evidentials*. Recently, evidentiality has become a hot research topic, with many scholars discussing its definition, linguistic realizations, and functions. Notably, there appears to be a growing trend of research in this field.

In this study, we performed a bibliometric review to track the changes and characteristics of evidential studies from 1991 to 2021. We focused on the number of published papers, prolific authors, research articles, research institutions, international collaborations, highly cited literature, and hot topics. Specifically, we aimed to address the following research questions:

(1)   What are the stage characteristics of evidential publications from 1991 to 2021?
(2)   Who are the most influential contributors in evidential studies?
(3)   What are the most prolific journals and institutions in evidential studies?
(4)   What are the most influential publications in evidential studies?
(5)   What are the most explored topics in evidential studies?
(6)   How has evidential research changed over the past 30 years? What are the future trends?

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section II presents the methodology of this paper by introducing the data source and research methods. Section III displays the main part of this paper: results and discussion. Section IV excavates the topic changes and future trends of evidential studies. The final section summarizes our research findings and draws our conclusion.

II. METHODOLOGY

This section presents the methods that we employed to conduct the study. First, the data source is described, followed by a detailed description of the research methods.

A. Data Source

This study adopted the Web of Science (WOS) core collection in the Web of Science database as its data source. We used the following search terms: 'evidentiality', 'evidential', and 'evidentials'. The document type was articles, excluding book reviews, book chapters, and conference brochures, among others. The retrieval period was set from

January 1st, 1991 to December 31st, 2021. After manually excluding irrelevant documents, we obtained a total of 474 valid results. The data were saved in plain text format for the bibliometric analysis.

B. Research Methods

The bibliometric methodology is an essential means of conducting a quantitative analysis of academic publications. It is often used in library and information science to describe publication patterns within a given field or body of literature. It substantially increases the quality of a literature review by allowing for the mapping of study domains and influential work without subjectivity, which is critical for providing holistic support to the literature review process (Ellegaard & Wallin, 2015).

The Bibliometrix software package, developed by Professor Massimo Aria in 2017 based on R, is used for whole-process bibliometric analysis and the visual display of documents from the Scopus and Web of Science databases, with which statistical analysis, data pre-processing, co-occurrence matrix construction, co-citation analysis, coupling analysis, co-word analysis, and cluster analysis are also available and achievable (Aria & Cuccurullo, 2017). *Biblioshiny* is a web-based app included in the Bibliometrix 3.0 package of R-studio that is designed for noncoders, providing means for complete scientometric and bibliometric analysis. It includes the analysis of sources, documents, authors, conceptual structure, social structure, and intellectual structure, and displays multiple results in the form of tables and graphs, which are not common in other software (Moral-Muñoz et al., 2020).

To explore the number of published papers, the most prolific authors, the most cited research articles, research institutions, international collaboration, and hot research topics in evidential studies, this study used *Biblioshiny* to conduct a spectral analysis of the research articles concerning evidentiality from the Web of Science database from 1991 to 2021. Furthermore, it tracked the research trends and core issues found in evidential studies.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the result of evidential studies abroad by analyzing the following aspects in evidential studies: 1) stage characteristics of evidential publications from 1991 to 2021; 2) most influential contributors; 3) prolific journals; 4) main affiliations/institutions and research countries/regions; 5) highly cited papers; 6) hot research topics.

A. Stage Characteristics of Evidential Publications From 1991 to 2021

We explored the characteristics of evidential publications by tracking the annual distribution of publications, which reflects the overall situation by describing different stages of development.
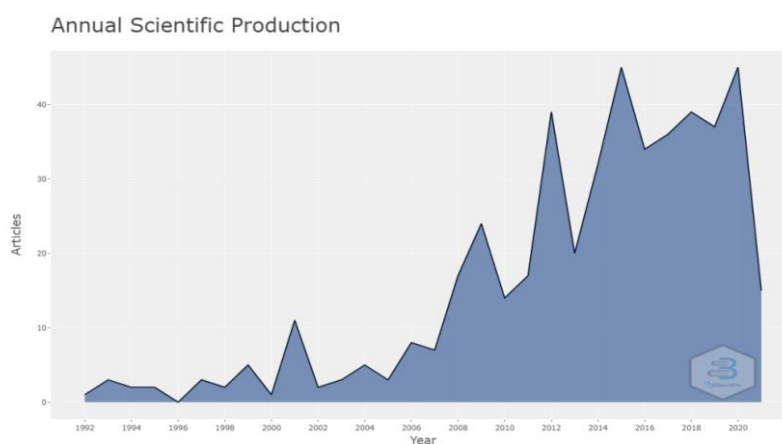

Figure 1. Annual Publications of Evidential Studies

As Figure 1 indicates, despite occasional fluctuations in the number of publications on evidentiality, the overall trend has generally grown with an annual growth rate of 10.15%. The growth can be roughly divided into the following three stages: (1) The first is the sprout stage (1991–2000), during which evidential publications were relatively sporadic, and there were no more than five papers published a year. Therefore, the study of evidentiality was in its infancy, indicating that evidentiality had not caught many scholars' attention. (2) The second stage was the exploration stage (2001–2007). In 2001, the *Journal of Pragmatics* published a series of articles on evidentiality, which confirmed the academic value of evidentiality research and stimulated the interest of linguists. From then on, research on evidentiality abroad began to heat up gradually. The overall number of documents published in this stage exhibited a slow growth trend, which represented a significant increase compared with the first stage. (3) The third stage was the rapid-development period (2008–2021). In 2008, evidentiality research entered a stage of rapid development, and the annual number of publications has remained above 30 since 2012, even reaching 45 in 2015 and 2020. The number of papers published in less than half a year in 2021 was 15, which indicates that evidentiality has remained a hot topic of foreign research in the last decade.

B. Most Influential Contributors in Evidential Studies

The main researchers do not only represent the development direction of a research field – they are also a key force in actively promoting it. Figure 2 presents the top 10 most influential contributors in evidential research:
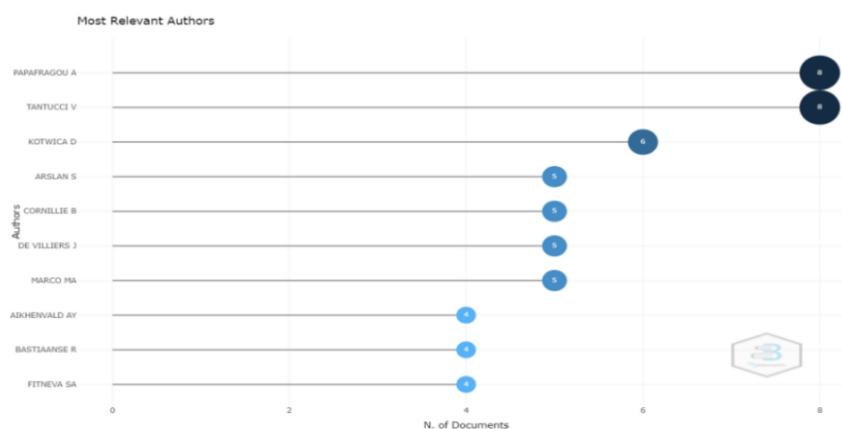

Figure 2. Top 10 Contributors in Evidential Studies

Anna Papafragou (Rank 1), a professor at the University of Delaware (America), focuses on the acquisition and development of Turkish children's evidentiality from a cognitive perspective. In 2002, in exploring the relationship between mindreading and verbal communication, she highlighted that mindreading is heavily involved in vocabulary acquisition, including the learning of the meaning of evidentials (Papafragou, 2002). Papafragou et al. (2016) found that the semantics and pragmatics of evidential morphology in Turkish are not acquired until age 6 or 7, and that the conceptual understanding of information access develops before the corresponding concepts are linked to evidential morphemes in Turkish. In collaboration with Ünal (2016a, 2016b, 2018), she explored children's learning process of evidentials and found that speaking a language that includes evidential resources 'does not increase sensitivity to the distinction between perception and inference in event memory', nor does it ease the difficulty in reasoning others' evidentials. They also found that evidentiality is tightly relevant to, builds on, and reflects conceptual representations of sources of knowledge that are shared across speakers of different languages.

Vittorio Tantucci (Rank 2) is a senior lecturer in Linguistics and Chinese Linguistics at Lancaster University. His research on evidentiality began in 2013 and he proposed 'interpersonal evidentiality' based on the concept of 'intersubjectivity'. By analysing the 'V一过' structure in Chinese, he highlighted that evidentiality is a nonmodal domain that primarily marks different types of 'acquired knowledge' rather than a 'particular source of information' (Tantucci, 2013). His subsequent research was based on this new concept; he discussed the relationships among epistemic modality, evidentiality, and factuality and developed a typology of constative speech acts (Tantucci, 2016).

Kotwica Dorota (Rank 3) is an important figure in evidential research from the past 10 years. She works as postdoctoral researcher at the University of Valencia (Spain), mainly discussing evidentiality and its role in the Spanish language. Dorota has investigated the evidential particles in Spanish scientific prose of the 18th, 19th, and early 20th centuries; evidential perception verbs in 19th-century scientific papers; as well as the expression of reportative evidentiality in Spanish scientific articles published between 1799 and 1920 (Kotwica, 2015, 2018a, 2018b). Moreover, she probed the relationship between evidentiality and mitigation (Kotwica, 2020).

Arslan and Bastiaanse are professors at the University of Groningen (Netherlands), who focus on how bilingual and monolingual Turkish speakers process grammatical evidentiality (Arslan et al., 2015, 2016, 2017; Arslan, 2020). Cornillie (2009) examined the relationship between evidentiality and epistemic modality, as well as the semantic and discourse functions of Spanish evidentials. De Villers and Garfield (2009) have focused on evidentiality and language acquisition, specifically describing the nature of the evidential system in Tibetan and presenting the challenges that the system imposes on language acquisition. Marco is a professor at the University of Valencia, whose main lines of research are the pragmatic categories of mitigation and intensification as well as evidentiality (Marco, 2016, 2018, 2019). Regarding her study of evidentiality, she has mainly discussed Spanish evidentials as a mark of genre, as a mitigation of speaker commitment. Aikhenvald has investigated interactions and dependencies between evidentiality and other grammatical categories, such as mirativity, tense, and aspect. The studies of Fitneva concern evidentials in Bulgarian and their contribution to cognitive development.

C. Prolific Journals in Evidential Studies

Figure 3 presents the top 10 journals in which evidentiality research articles have been published. These are as follows: the *Journal of Pragmatics, Lingua, Discourse Studies, Pragmatics and Society, Linguistics, Circulo De Linguistica Aplicada a la Comunicacion, Functions of Language, Intercultural Pragmatics, Linguistic Typology,* and *Studies in Language*. These journals are the core journals of linguistic research, which indicates that evidentiality is of high research value.

Figure 3. Top 10 Relevant Journals in the Field of Evidentiality

The *Journal of Pragmatics* is one of the core journals of linguistic research. In 2001, it published a series of evidentiality research articles, and since then it has been the main journal for evidential publications. *Lingua* and *Discourse Studies* are also the main journals that publish evidential studies. The first three journals alone account for one-third of the total number of publications, which represents a relatively concentrated territory of evidential research. In addition, it is worth mentioning that *Pragmatic and Society* published a special issue concerning evidentiality in 2013, thus becoming a main publication source of evidential research.

D. Main Affiliations/Institutions and Research Countries/Regions in Evidential Studies

Figure 4 presents the main affiliations and institutions of evidential studies. The University of Valencia ranks in first place and has provided a strong basis for research on evidentiality. This is because Kotwica (2015, 2018, 2020, 2021) and Marco (2016, 2018, 2019) are the main contributors of evidential studies, both of whom are prolific authors with an interest in Spanish evidentials.

The University of Groningen ranks second on the list of the most relevant affiliations. Arslan is the major researcher and has published five articles on evidentiality since 2011 focusing on grammatical evidentiality in Turkish. The other main affiliations include the University of Lancaster and the University of Delaware.

Figure 4. Top 10 Relevant Affiliations in the Field of Evidentiality
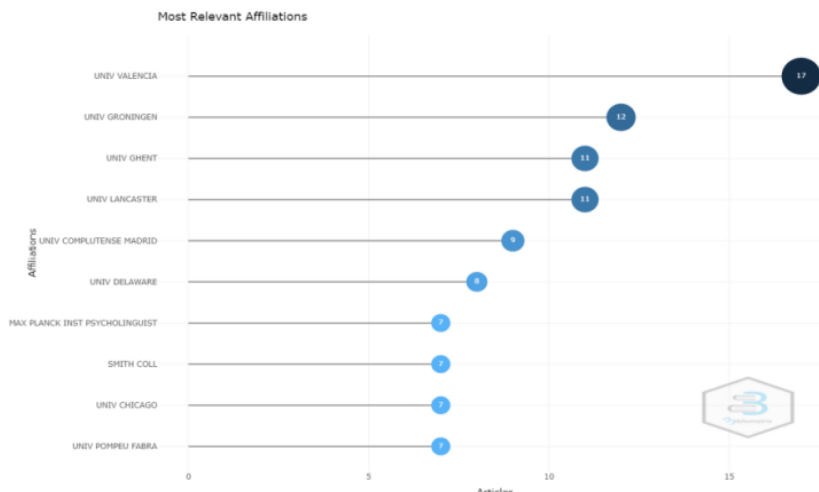
The number of publications from a country represents not only the amount of investment there in the particular subject but also the importance and influence of the country in this area to some extent. Figure 5 presents the top 10 most relevant countries in the field of evidentiality and Figure 6 shows us the collaboration network of countries in evidential studies.
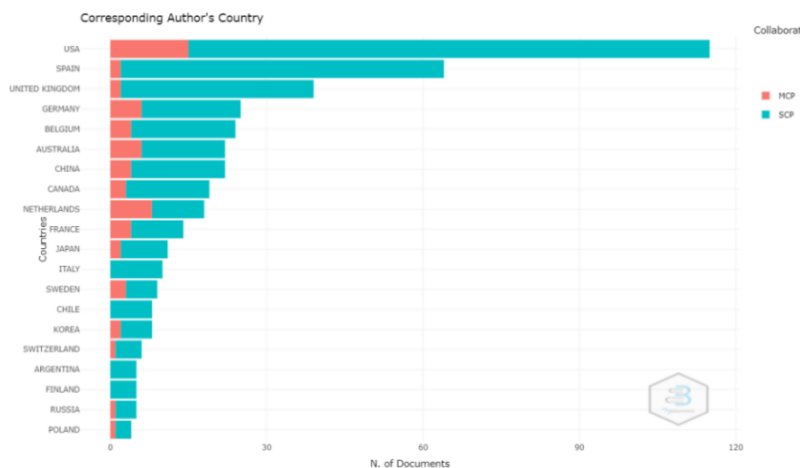
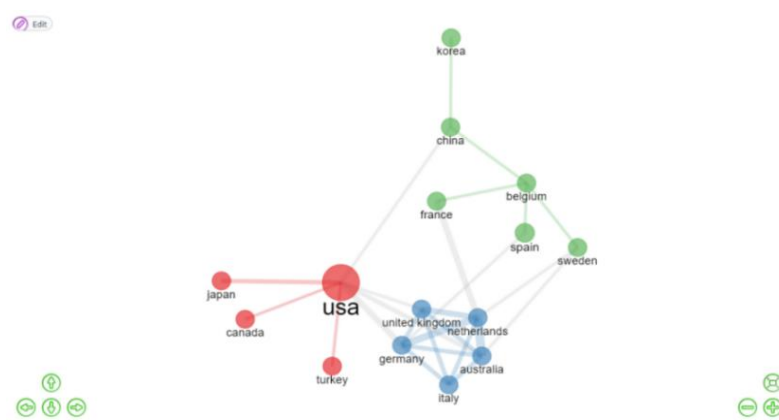Figure 5. Top 10 Relevant Countries in the Field of Evidentiality

Figure 6. Collaboration Network of Countries

Figures 5 and 6 indicate that the United States and Spain are the two countries that have contributed the most to evidential research, with 115 and 64 publications, respectively, followed by the United Kingdom, Germany, Belgium, Australia, and China. From the node size and line thickness in the collaboration network map, one can intuitively see that three large national cooperation networks have been formed. Among them, scholars from Germany, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Italy, and Australia have cooperated closely, while the remaining countries have certain cooperative relations. For example, the United States has cooperative relations with Japan, Canada, and Turkey, but there is no cooperation among the three.

E. Highly Cited Papers

TABLE 1
TOP 10 MOST CITED ARTICLES

Paper title	Author	Journal	Publication year	Citations
The Mirative and Evidentiality	DeLancey, S	*Journal of Pragmatics*	2001	188
Toward a Pragmatics of Emotive Communication	Caffi, C Janney, RW	*Journal of Pragmatics*	1994	181
Subjectivity as an Evidential Dimension in Epistemic Modal Expressions	Nuyts, J	*Journal of Pragmatics*	2001	176
The Interface of Language and Theory of Mind	De Villiers, J	*Lingua*	2007	164
Introduction: Evidentiality and Related Notions	Dendale, P Tasmowski, L	*Journal of Pragmatics*	2001	157
Evidentiality and Epistemic modality: On the Close Relationship Between Two Different Categories	Cornillie, B	*Functions of Language*	2009	140
The Place of Evidentiality within the Universal Grammatical Space	Plungian, VA	*Journal of Pragmatics*	2001	138
Indexing stance: Reported Speech as an Interactional Evidential	Clift, R	*Journal of Sociolinguistics*	2006	119
Must ... Stay... Strong!	Von Fintel, K, Gillies, A S.	*Natural Language Semantics*	2010	115
Observations on Embedding Verbs, Evidentiality, and Presupposition	Simons M	*Lingua*	2007	111

As Table 1 indicates, the paper titled *The mirative and evidentiality* is the most cited, in which DeLancey (2001)

discussed the relationship between evidentiality and mirativity, a concept he proposed in 1997. He concluded that mirativity must be recognized as a distinct semantic and grammatical category rather than part of the larger category of evidentiality based on evidence from Tibetan, Hare, and other languages. The study by Caffi and Janney (1994) is the second on the list of most highly cited articles, in which the authors proposed a brief analysis framework for studying emotive communication. They regarded evidentiality devices as one of the most ideationally oriented emotive categories. Nuyts (2001) analysed the role of subjectivity in epistemic modal expressions, interpreted it as a separate evidential qualification, and discussed its connections with some other notions of evidentiality. De Villiers (2007) explored the interface of language and Theory of Mind and held that evidential markers are one of the representations. Dendale and Tasmowski (2001) reviewed some major topics on evidentiality and its related notions – notably the semantic domain of evidentiality and its various subdomains as well as the relationship between the domain of evidentiality and the domain of modality, including their linguistic marking.

F. Hot Research Topics

Keywords represent a high generalisation of an author's article. By tracking the changes in keywords, one can grasp the main research issues in a certain research field. Table 2 lists the most frequent keywords in evidentiality studies. In addition to 'evidentiality' and 'evidential(s)', the keywords with the highest frequency include epistemic modality, modality, mirativity, grammaticalization, pragmatics, English, discourse, knowledge, and acquisition.

TABLE 2
MOST RELEVANT KEYWORDS IN THE FIELD OF EVIDENTIALITY

Words	Occurrences
Evidentiality	194
Epistemic modality	39
English	36
Discourse	31
Modality	28
Language	27
Evidential	24
Evidentials	23
Mirativity	18
Grammaticalization	17
Knowledge	15
Pragmatics	15
Semantics	14
Subjectivity	13
Acquisition	13
Information	12

Figure 7 presents a co-occurrence network of the keywords in evidential studies:

Figure 7. Co-Occurrence Network of Keywords

Based on Table 2 and Figure 7, we summarized the hot topics in evidential research as follows:

(a). Theoretical Discussions on the Relations of Evidentiality and Other Linguistic Categories

Since evidentiality emerged, it has been intertwined with other semantic notions, such as epistemic modality and mirativity. Many scholars have attempted to explain the terminological and conceptual confusion of evidentiality and some other notions.

The first notion is epistemic modality, which refers to the 'evaluation of the chances that a certain hypothetical state of affairs under consideration (or some aspect of it) will occur, is occurring or has occurred in a possible world' (Nuyts, 2001b, p. 21). As for the interaction of evidentiality and epistemic modality, attention has been focused on the question of whether one is part of the other, or whether the two are wholly separated domains. Some scholars such as Palmer and Franjzyngier have reckoned that evidentiality belongs to the category of epistemic modality. Palmer (2001) highlighted that epistemic qualification can be derived from the evidential marking by investigating evidentials in Tuyuca. Franjzyngier (1985, p. 250) believed that different methods of obtaining information will affect the degree of truth of the propositions, and that evidentiality and epistemic modality have a direct correspondence. For example, direct evidence is more credible than indirect evidence, and the degree of truth of propositions is higher. However, more scholars believe that evidentiality and epistemic modality belong to different language categories. De Haan (1999) believed that there are semantic differences between evidentiality and epistemic modality: evidentiality is the encoding of information sources from the perspective of the speaker, whereas epistemic modality is the commitment of the speaker to the information that he or she stated and the understanding of the listener. Cornelle (2009) also believed that the two notions are conceptually different because 'evidentiality refers to the reasoning processes that lead to a proposition and epistemic modality evaluates the likelihood that this proposition is true'.

Subsequently, many scholars have also explored the relationship between evidentiality and epistemic modality in different languages through case studies. For example, Howard (2012) investigated evidentiality and epistemic modality in Quechua narrative discourse from the central highlands of Peru. Arslan (2020) studied the extent to which epistemic uncertainty influences the processing of grammatical evidentiality in Turkish native speakers and found a semantic overlap between epistemic modality and evidentiality. In sum, Western linguistics has largely seen evidentiality and epistemic modality as different semantic categories.

The second notion is mirativity. DeLancey (1997, 2001) defined mirativity as conveying new or unexpected information to the speaker, with overtones of surprise. Since the emergence of this concept, it has been closely related to evidentiality. In some languages such as Hare, morphemes that express indirect evidentiality can also be used to express mirativity. Therefore, whether it belongs to evidentiality or is an independent semantic category has always been controversial in academic circles. However, with the increase in the number of investigations of different language types (e.g., Napiorkowska, 2016), the view of mirativity as an independent semantic category seems more convincing, as represented by the research of Delancey (1997, 2001, 2012) and Aikhenvald (2012, 2015, 2018). Later, some researchers discussed this issue; for instance, Hengeveld and Olbertz (2012) highlighted that mirativity is an independent linguistic category and that mirativity should be defined in terms of newsworthiness for both the speaker and the addressee. Lau and Rooryck (2017, p. 1) also addressed the confusion of evidentiality and mirativity by proposing that 'mirativity be redefined in terms of sudden discovery or realization'.

From the aforementioned discussion, one can see that a semantic intersection exists between evidentiality and many concepts; however, the mainstream view is that they are an independent language category, although this needs to be verified in more languages.

(b). Typological Studies of Evidentiality

The main concerns of typological studies on evidentiality (Nichols & Chafe, 1986; Willett, 1988) involve describing the evidential morphemes that express sources of knowledge, the evidential meanings that these morphemes hold, and their origins and paths of grammaticalisation (Mushin, 2013). Moreover, language typologists have devoted themselves to establishing a universal and flexible evidential classification that can be applied to the ever-changing language in the world (Plungian, 2001).

Thus, language typologists focus on different languages. Lazard (2001), Zheltova (2018), and Gonzalez-Vazquez (2021) have explored the evidential system in Southeast European and Middle Eastern languages, Latin, and Galician languages, respectively. Of course, in addition to analysing and describing the evidential resources in various languages based on the established framework, there are also scholars who are devoted to analysing the situation where evidential resources in certain languages are not applicable to the universal framework. Makartsev (2010) systematically described the evidence resources in Bulgarian and solved the problem of them not matching the general analysis framework. Thus, it can be seen that the diversification of language types provides much room for the expansion of evidential classification.

(c). Semantics Studies of Evidentiality

Linguistic typologists assume that every language contains evidential morphemes, but in fact they exist in only a quarter of the world's languages. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the evidential resources in language from a semantic-functional perspective, which aims to discover the grammatical resources of evidentiality in different languages (e.g., auxiliary words, combined forms, special uses of tense marks, and structure) and their semantic scope of evidential meanings – that is, what constitutes the coding of the 'source of knowledge'. As for the semantic scope of evidentiality, it seems that common understanding exists. Generally speaking, it can be divided into two camps: First, Willet (1988) and Aikhenvald (2004) are the main representatives of evidentiality in the narrow sense. They believe that evidentiality is an obligatory grammatical category that refers to the source of knowledge, mainly including 'visual', 'hearsay', and 'inferential'. Second, evidentiality in the broad sense is mainly represented by Chafe (1986), who divides

evidentiality into different forms, such as grammar and vocabulary. He believes that evidentiality refers to the source of knowledge and the speaker's attitude towards the reliability of knowledge.

Subsequent research has also enriched the semantics of evidentiality. Tantucci (2013) investigated the Chinese 'v－过' structure in the Lancaster Corpus of Mandarin Chinese, demonstrated that this structure can be used as evidentials to express specific interpersonal meaning, and proposed the concept of 'interpersonal evidentiality'. Haßler (2015) studied the linguistic and nonverbal resources used to express the speaker's position in Romance languages and German, and Grzech (2021) studied the usage of a discourse marker =mari, attested in Upper Napo Kichwa (Quechuan, Ecuador). Torrent (2015) studied the use of some Spanish idioms and discussed the relationship between semantic pragmatic categories, such as evidentiality, epistemicity and intensification. The author demonstrated that evidentiality plays a crucial role in the lexicalisation and grammaticalisation of some idiomatic phraseological units. Pérez Blanco (2020) conducted a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the distribution and semantic value of adjective elements in three opinion genres (i.e., editorials, opinion columns, and review articles) in English and Spanish news discourse based on a self-built news discourse text corpus. The author believed that adjectives have the functions of evaluation and persuasion. Due to the diversity of languages in the world, much room remains for semantic research on evidentiality.

(d). Discourse Studies of Evidentiality

Studies of evidentiality from a discursive perspective have been one of the hotspots of evidential research and achieved fruitful results. A consensus exists that written and spoken discourse are the results of interactions between communicative participants. Evidentiality is one of linguistic resources used to express an author's stance and responsibility, and existing studies have covered different discourse domains and genres, such as academic discourse (Fetzer, 2014; Kotwica, 2018), news discourse (Bednarek, 2006; Schubert, 2015), political discourse such as election debates (Berlin & Prieto-Mendoza, 2014) and parliamentary debates (Estelles, 2018), literary discourse such as fairy tales (Florea, 2020) and narration telling (Mushin, 2001), as well as legal discourse (Greco, 2018). These studies have mostly focused on the speaker's authority over knowledge and the use of evidentials to make claims about whether one is or is not taking responsibility for the validity or factual content of what one says by analysing the forms and discursive functions of evidentiality. There are several foci in these studies: one is discourse markers or linguistic realisations of evidentiality in a certain genre and language (Cardona, 2018), while the other is the exploration of the relationship of evidentiality and other semantic notions in specific discourses, such as evidentiality and deixis (Mushin, 2000), epistemological positioning, and evidentiality (Bednarek, 2006).

(e). Pragmatic Studies of Evidentiality

As an indexical category, evidentiality should ultimately be approached as the actual deployment and practice of the forms under interactive circumstances (Hanks, 2012, p. 169). In 2012, a special issue of *Pragmatics and Society* titled 'Evidentiality in Interaction' was published, which proved the academic value of interactional evidentiality. According to Hanks, studying evidentials in interaction 'compels a broad perspective on evidentiality beyond discrete lexical and morphosyntactic categories to encompass evidential practices in general'. Attention to the social and cultural aspects of evidentials in use extends the range of evidentials.

Conversational analysis provides an interactive perspective for the study of evidentiality. Sidnell (2012, p. 295) stated the following: 'What conversation analysis (CA) adds to the work within linguistics on evidentiality is an explicit focus on interaction'. Language in nature is interactive and evidentials are one kind of language resource that speakers use to accomplish epistemic positioning in interaction. Kim (2005) examined Korean natural dialogue as the corpus to study how the speaker makes the choice of evidential marking or how they change evidentials according to the listener's response in interactive communication. The research revealed that in social interaction, the speaker's evidential selection is relative and interactive, rather than static and predetermined. Mushin (2013) investigated some languages, such as Quechua, Maka, Macedonian, Garrwa, and English to explore whether the evidential grammar in a specific language can affect its use. The author concluded that evidential functions and strategies are remarkably similar regardless of grammatical status.

Traditional theories of psycholinguistics hold that linguistic learners are equipped with concepts that can represent the world, and that 'the ability to map language to conceptual representations is the hallmark of language production and comprehension' (Levelt, 1989). Thus, some scholars have turned their attention to children's language acquisition, exploring its relationship with verbal resources. The key figure in this area is Papafragou, whose interest lies in the acquisition and development of Turkish children's evidentiality from a cognitive-pragmatic perspective, as discussed before. Her studies have revealed that delays exist in Turkish children's acquisition of evidentiality; that is, the development of evidential language of Turkish children presumably builds on the development of the corresponding information source concepts, and children may be delayed in understanding the correct meaning of evidentials used by others despite having underlying concepts and being able to use simple evidential morphemes (Papafragou, 2016).

Subjectivity and intersubjectivity are some of the latest hot topics in the study of evidentiality from a pragmatic perspective. Knowledge sharing is a critical factor in social communication and interaction, which can greatly affect the use of language resources by speakers and recipients. The definitions of the two notions are still divided, but the most influential have been proposed by Traugott (2010). From Traugott's perspective, the two notions are closely related, with intersubjectivity regarded as a further development of the latter. Nuyts (2012) regarded subjectivity and

intersubjectivity as two related but distinct notions, emphasizing the attitude of the speaker. Actually, the cognitive position held by the speaker/author during the discourse dynamic is a continuum that includes strong subjectivity, subjectivity, and intersubjectivity. Linguistic subjectivity indicates that the speaker's/author's view and evaluation of the proposition remains within the speaker's/author's subject domain, while intersubjectivity indicates that the speaker/author has turned his or her perspective to the listener/reader. Gonzalez (2014) explored the evidentiality and significance of the pragmatic markers *claro/clarand* and *(la)verdad/veritat* in Spanish and Catalan from the perspective of interaction, especially their intersubjectivity. However, generally speaking, relatively few studies have been conducted on evidentiality from this perspective, although a gradually increasing trend can be observed over recent years.

IV. TOPIC CHANGES AND FUTURE TRENDS OF EVIDENTIAL STUDIES

This section attempts to keep the track of the changes of the research topic over the last 30 years and to determine the future trends of evidential studies.

A. Topic Changes of Evidential Studies

To trace the changes in evidential studies over the past 30 years, we collated the high-frequency topics across three periods, as presented in Figure 8. As the figure indicates, the studies on these topics exhibit a significant upward trend in these three periods, which indicates that evidentiality-based research remains a hot issue with much to explore.
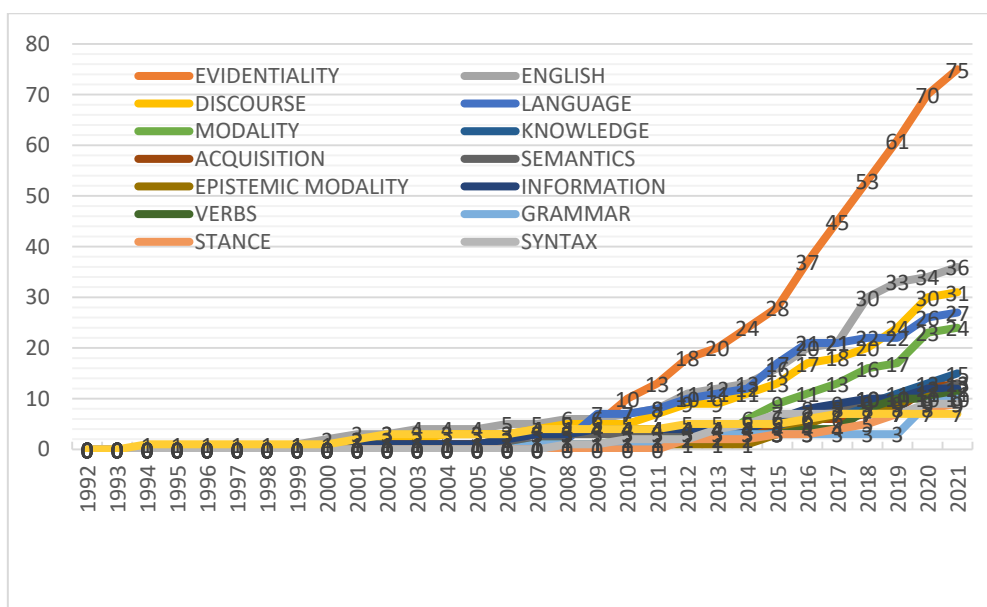

Figure 8. Trends of Hot Topics in the Three Research Periods

It is mentioned that 2008–2021 was a booming period in evidential research, accounting for approximately 80% of the total literature. To explore the research trend in this period in more detail, we roughly divided this period into four parts to explore the nuances of discursive research over these years. Table 3 presents some of the changes in the focus of evidential research in this area. The emerging topics are epistemic modality, knowledge, subjectivity, stance, and acquisition.

TABLE 3
TOP 10 TOPICS OF EACH PERIOD DURING 2008–2021

Rank	2008–2012	2013–2015	2016–2018	2019–2021
1	Evidentiality	Evidentiality	Evidentiality	Evidentiality
2	Language	Language	English	Discourse
3	English	Modality	Discourse	Modality
4	Discourse	Conversation	Modality	Grammar
5	Space	English	Grammaticalisation	Knowledge
6	Ability	Syntax	Language	Acquisition
7	Semantics	Discourse	Verbs	English
8	Syntax	Subjectivity	Semantics	Language
9	Modality	Tense	Knowledge	Epistemic modality
10	False belief	Epistemic modality	Epistemic modality	Stance

From Figure 8 and Table 3, it can be summarised that studies on evidentiality over the past 30 years mainly centered on certain classical research topics, such as evidentiality, discourse, modality, and English; however, there are still some emerging and flourishing topics, such as language acquisition, stance, epistemic modality, and mirativity. These new

emerging topics also exhibit a shift in evidential focus from traditional semantic or syntactic discussion to pragmatic and cognitive aspects.

B. Future Trends of Evidential Studies

A thematic map reveals the essential research themes in a particular domain. By setting the minimum frequency to five and the number of representative labels in each theme to three in Biblioshiny, we obtained a thematic map of evidential studies from 1991 to 2021 (Figure 9). There are two parameters in the thematic map – centrality, which measures the importance of the chosen theme, and density, which measures the development of the chosen theme. The themes in the lower-right part of the map are the basic themes, which represent the most fundamental research in this area. The motor themes appear in the upper-right part, which represent high density and high centrality (i.e., developed and essential).
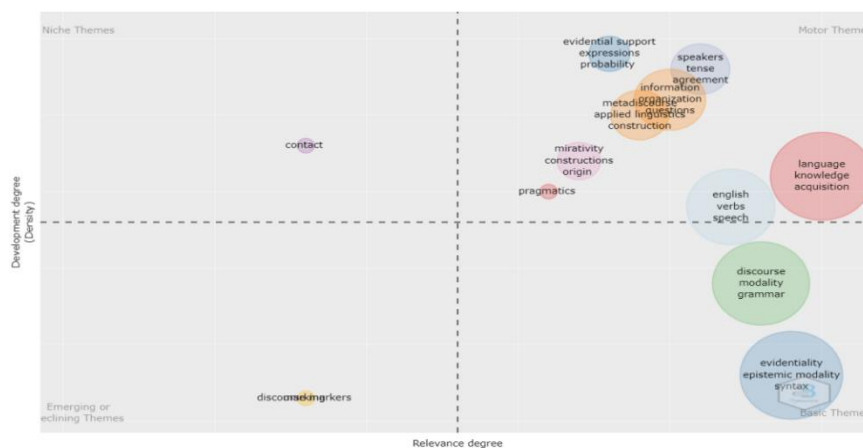

Figure 9. Thematic Map of Evidentiality

Figure 9 clearly depicts the basic and motor themes of evidentiality. By combining them with the figures and table in last part of topic change, we inferred that future studies of evidentiality may be conducted based on the following aspects:

First, the relationships between evidentiality and other linguistic categories continue to be the basic issues of evidential research, such as evidentiality's relationships with epistemic modality and mirativity. Semantic-conceptual categories cannot be independent of their linguistic manifestations; therefore, the grammatical category of one language does not perfectly coincide with the same category of another language. While a universality of concepts exists, which are common to the depiction of grammatical systems, the object of study for linguists is grammatical structure, and we should consider the universality of meaning as a multidimensional space from which each language mines the expression of its own linguistic categories. Therefore, more empirical research that adopts a functional perspective and explores evidentiality through its linguistic means in a variety of languages could provide more favourable and sufficient evidence for the relationships of these ambiguous terms.

Second, another promising line of evidentiality research would be from the perspective of interaction. Hanks (2014) clarified from the research methodology that the authentic use of messaging language should be examined in an interactive context, emphasizing the contextual meaning. This suggests that evidential research is beginning to focus on its social nature. Current research focuses on textual resources, such as metadiscourse and stance resources in different languages and genres. However, social communication is a multimodal system, and the gestures that accompany communication (e.g., directions, gaze, and eyebrow and head movements) can be used to express evidential meaning in some culturally diverse languages; thus, we think that future studies should consider the multimodal resources of evidentiality as well as combine this aspect with the linguistic dimension.

Third, in recent years, the study of discourse has crossed over into the field of cognition, covering two main topics –language acquisition as well as subjectivity and intersubjectivity. The first topic aims to investigate the effect of the acquisition of evidentiality on children's evidential reasoning. A conceptual structure refers to the organisation of the individual's knowledge of the world, while the linguistic system is one of the behavioural systems that manipulate this knowledge. Thus, how cognition and linguistic-semantic resources are connected should be precisely studied. As highlighted in the section of *Pragmatic Studies of Evidentiality*, research from a cognitive perspective has been fruitful; however, some concepts may not have corresponding and observable references in the world, and most evidentiality devices may encode abstract categories. These factors can influence the commanding process of evidentials. In addition, due to the diversity of the lexical structure in natural languages, cognition interfaces may also vary with language. The second topic is subjectivity and intersubjectivity, which is also a critical indicator in the formation of the semantic meanings of evidentials. Research has studied the subjectivity and intersubjectivity of argumentative and academic discourse. However, the following question remains: Is the relation of the two notions different in different languages

and genres? This is a topic for future evidential research.

Fourth, studies of evidentiality from a discourse perspective have been highly fruitful. The present issue of evidentiality in discourse provides functional analyses of the form and function of evidentiality across different discourse domains (political discourse, media discourse, academic discourse, legal discourse, and natural dialogue); however, contrastive studies of various discourse and genres are still scarce, which would be the one of the future research topics in evidential studies.

V. CONCLUSION

This study conducted a visualised analysis of evidential studies from Web of Science with the help of Biblioshiny. The findings indicated that (1) research on evidentiality has exhibited a steady upward trend; (2) a strong supporting relationship exists between the high yield authors and institutions, for the reason that authors drive the emergence of high-yield institutions; (3) the United States and Spain are the most influential countries; and (4) evidential research has rich perspectives and fruitful results in both theoretical discussion and empirical research. Theoretically, scholars have highlighted their concern regarding the terminological and conceptual confusion of evidentiality as well as some other notions, such as epistemic modality and mirativity. Empirically, the studies have often appeared divided into two camps: those whose focus is on the semantic, morphological, and typological description of grammaticalized morphological evidential systems, and those whose interest lies in pragmatic functions. Future studies of evidentiality should investigate evidentiality in various languages to establish a more inclusive typology, further enrich the semantics of evidentiality and focus on more diversified genres and broader social contexts.

Through the visual analysis of international literature, we clarified the knowledge structure of international evidentiality-related research to a certain extent. Admittedly, this study also has some limitations. The major limitation was that the relevant literature was not sufficiently comprehensive as we limited the literature to the Web of Science core collections; therefore, the relevant interpretation and analysis may not be of a sufficient depth. However, this study is still hoped to be of help for researchers who seek to track the trends and research directions of evidential studies.

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The Treatment of Women in Selected Works by Bessie Head

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Abstract—The role of women in Africa is one of the most notable issues in modern African literature. African novelists focus on roles held by women in the pre-colonial, colonial, and post-colonial periods, alongside the effect of colonization on African women. This study is a serious attempt at providing a comprehensive analytical investigation of the role of women in Bessie Head's selected works: *When Rain Clouds Gather* (1969), *The Collector of Treasures, and Other Botswana Village Tales* (1977). It demonstrates how traditional societies and colonizers treat African women and the influence of Head's personal life and background on her literary works. Various studies focus on the issue of women using the feminist approach. This study, however, concentrates on women's issues using feminist and post-colonial theories.

Index Terms—women, Africa, colonization, Bessie Head, literature

I. INTRODUCTION

The novels under discussion are representative of the concept of the New Woman in Africa. Head portrays women's suffering under a colonialist system, preventing females from improving their conditions. Within the structure of her novels, Head shows that women can succeed in assuming roles other than the traditional roles of mother, sister, wife, and daughter. The woman in Head's novels has power, and her voice can be heard while struggling for her rights and trying to express her issues. Also, she can work like men as Dikeledi does in *The Collector of Treasures (*1977).

In her selected works, Bessie Head portrays the concept of the New Woman in Africa, exploring the issue of sexual discrimination. Her works not only show the suffering of her female characters but also increase women's awareness of their situation. Head, in an Australian interview, said that her literary works represent her life experiences "I had lived and absorbed the life of the village, and I'd lived together with people and thought together with people, and all the stories are touched by daily village dramas" (Driver, 1984, p. 6).

Bessie Head's literary works focus on the lives of third-world women during and after colonization. Head supports women's liberation through the resources available to them, where Botswana women have used their land to redefine their roles. Head's novels are based on her individual experience as a pioneer woman. Paulina Seboso in Head's *When Rain Clouds Gather* (1969) represents the suffering of mothers who lose their sons to tuberculosis. She also has a vast influence over the town, as she encourages the women of the village to follow the new tobacco-growing scheme. Another critical issue raised by Head is the unwanted marriage that Mma-Milliped faces. Head describes Ramogodia, the man who wants to marry Mma-Milliped, as "a drunkard and dissipated boaster and the son of the reigning chief" (Head, 1971, p. 63). Dikeledi Mokopi, the protagonist of *The Collector of Treasures* (1977), represents women's suffering in the pre-colonial, colonial, and post-colonial eras. Despite suffering; however, she is very strong as she represents the power of an independent woman. Importantly, the focus of the author's literary texts rests on giving an insight into the influence and effect of the life and discourse of masculine characters on women's lifestyles and social stand (Qutami, 2022).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Edward Said's book *The World, the Text, and the Critic* (1983) and Gayatri C. Spivak's book *Crossing Borders* (2003)

point out neglected facts about the era of pre-colonization. They criticize the impact of colonialism and its devastating effect on societies. Said assures us that the role of critics is central; he argues that critics can justify the colonizers' aims or disapprove of them. Thus, they are held responsible for standing up against hegemonic forces that attempt to impose cultural reformation.

Ncube (2001) posits that the drama of human interactions and the prospect of individual growth and regeneration are Head's favorite topics. She considers society's balance and each individual's unique contributions. She achieves this goal by combining imaginative power and a distinctive sense of style with a robust moral perspective, ensuring that the woman's identity is vital in all of this.

Şafak (2014) argues that modern African literature has highlighted many aspects of women involved in social restructuring and exposure to the onslaughts of the West intensely concerned with womanhood and motherhood. The exaltation of Africa and the African woman has been an essential objective of African authors during the colonial and post-colonial periods. Whenever she is denied a position beyond her house in pre-colonial and traditional cultures, for example, the African woman is stereotyped for her limited function. He also posits that women are not passive in colonialism, just as they are not passive in a post-colonial society. Women, like men, have attempted to protect or gain individual advantages whenever colonial systems provided the opportunity, either by pursuing pre-existing pursuits or adopting new ones (Şafak, 2014).

In his book *Culture and Imperialism* (1994), Said argues that the present reflects the past, and it would be naïve to analyze it without considering the colonialists' role in shaping it. As a result, Said contends that the histories of the colonizer and the colonized are so inextricably interwoven that neither can be separately studied. As underlined by Said (1978), colonizers display their thirst for exploitation, riches, and power by constructing an oppressive discourse for the colonized countries.

Viswanathan characterizes British Literature as a terrible history of colonial expropriation, oppression, exploitation, and supremacy in her book *Masks of Conquest* (1989). She describes the colonists' identity, acts, operations, and administration. Many people protest the spread of English literature and language in pre-colonial and post-colonial India. So "All efforts on their ignorance would be as vigorously resisted as if they were on their religion. The effect of introducing Christianity into the schools would be to sound the alarm and to warn the Brahmins of the approaching danger" (p. 78). Another related study by (Al-Ghalith & Al-Shalabi, 2022) demonstrates that the British colonization's achievements, i.e. political stability and commercial prosperity impose new standards of social behavior and politeness prevailed to distinguish between civilized and uncivilized citizens. The standards of order and hierarchy have also helped some people to participate in and contribute to the emergence of the British Empire and culture. Against the previous literature review, this study serves as a marker of motivation and contribution for readers to make continual efforts to look at the treatment of women in selected works by Bessie from various perception levels (Al-Ghammaz et al., 2022).

III. TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

When Rain Clouds Gather

When Rain Clouds Gather (1969) by Head depicts the post-colonial period, her characters struggle with the quest for roots and how it affects people from various social backgrounds and personal difficulties. Three women emerge, each of whom is prone to social abuse, emotional pain, and suffering; despite abuse and pain, each shows eventual progress in wisdom, serenity, and happiness. Head truly presents her characters as people journeying through the darkest recesses of their lives with her typical care and thoroughness. The result of this investigation is the emergence of the individuality that distinguishes each of them (Sam, 1986).

When Rain Clouds Gather (1969) is inundated with personal information and responses to challenges that have been, on the whole, internal and private. Head has attained a level of objectivity, allowing her to expose and analyze the problems of the African woman, both in the small village circle, where old traditional mores and taboos hampered her, and in the slightly larger world of the town cooperative, where the challenges of this new phenomenon have frequently exposed her as being capable of contributing to the unity that Head seeks, rather than destroying it.

Each of Head's female characters is an individual in her own right, which is a distinguishing element of her work. Head represents women and men working together in industry to establish a new human community. Despite their rural location, the women display political awareness, dynamism, and resolve, rebelling against their communities' oppressive norms. Head exposes society's ambivalence toward women in her female characters, so she demonstrates women's dynamism and works ethic.

Paulina Sebeso, like the other members of Golema Mmidi, is a refugee in *When Rain Clouds Gather* (1969). After being widowed, she arrives in Golema Mmidi to start a new life. Paulina's native society thinks that marriage takes precedence over a woman's intellectual and personal accomplishments, as it does in many Southern African civilizations. As a result, despite her exceptional academic record, Paulina foregoes her education in exchange for the stability of her marriage. Unfortunately, her adolescent marriage to a traditional Rhodesian man ends in early widowhood when the husband, in keeping with cultural customs, commits suicide since his honor is in jeopardy.

Paulina relocates to Golema Mmidi with her two children to begin a new life. Paulina makes a name for herself in her new surroundings. Her limitless energy, organizational skills, and originality are now what set her apart. She takes the

initiative and competently organizes all community events for the other women. Her understanding of the various complicated difficulties making up womanhood in her society also sets her apart from the majority of conventional women and men who see sex and sexuality as the total of womanhood. Despite her bodily discomfort, Paulina ignores the men's and women's sexual insults. She sticks to her moral ideals, considering women as human beings rather than sexual objects. When a group of women challenges her ideas one day, she recognizes the attack's goal and its patriarchal foundation.

Paulina's attitude contradicts the customary gender-based subjugation of women. She scorns women who battle over men regardless of their morality, so engaging in their enslavement, just as she scorns men who consider women a commodity to be bought and sold. However, Paulina's yearning for a spouse like Makhaya is different. The feeling is used by Head to demonstrate how human relationships should transcend variables like race, age, gender, position, and creed, which only serve to exacerbate community fissures (Thusi, 1998).

Makhaya seeks a secure refuge where he may break free from his isolation. However, Paulina's compassion for Makhaya is matched by his concern for his fellow villagers. Thus, Paulina assists Makhaya in finding peace in his spirit by letting go of a sad past. From both Paulina's and Makhaya's perspectives, Head condemns racial prejudice and gender norms. Both are spokespeople for the millions of people who cannot voice their pain or establish their origins. Paulina's personal goal drives her to be the best leader of women in the public domain she can be (Thusi, 1998).

Mma Millipede, an elderly woman, arrives in Golema Mmidi as a refugee as well. She, like Paulina, is a victim of the terrible force of ancient customs. She is forced into marriage with Ramagodi, a chief's son. However, she divorces him after he fell madly in love with the wife of his younger brother. Mma Millipede meets and becomes Mma Millipede when she moves to Golema Mmidi.

She lives next door to Dinerogo, a man she is forbidden to marry when compelled to marry the chief's son. Mma Millipede quickly establishes herself in her new surroundings via her hard work and unique character, exhibiting generosity and compassion that both amaze and challenge the residents of Golema Mmidi.

Maria, Dinorego's daughter, is one of the major female characters in the novel. She is reserved, intelligent, and a wonderful partner for Gilbert, the practical man who is the creator of the agricultural co-op, which is one of the novel's most intriguing phenomena. She is soft-spoken and thoughtful, yet she also has a harsh sense of common sense. She is the dominating personality in her marriage, silent but with thoughts of her own. She has silently served her father for a long time, and after three years, she accepts a marriage proposal from Gilbert.

Bessie Head's thoughts are presented to us through these women, who are all strong, determined, pain-educated, and blessed with smart common sense. They have an equal relationship with males. They stand out and are different from most Batswana women, whom Head criticizes for accepting subjugation and keeping their "tribal selves," docile, and inferior (Head, 1969, p. 63), despite having access to missionary education. Women are naturally inclined to hard work even though they suffer from squandered opportunities, as Head contends:

Their sticks that thrashed the corn at harvesting time and their winnowing baskets that filled the air for miles and miles around with the dust of husks, and they often, in addition to broadcasting the seed when the early rains fell, took over the tasks of the men and also plowed the land with oxen (Head, 1969, pp. 99-100).

Head highlights the possibility of opposing tradition from within by depicting Paulina's militancy and Mma Millipede's sympathetic kindness. Paulina not only opposes the conventional view of women as simply sexual objects, but she also demands that their physical and emotional contributions to society be recognized. As a result, they are challenged by Paulina's ultimate relationship with Makhaya, a refugee fleeing political persecution in South Africa. According to Chukukere (1995, p. 278), this implies a "reordering of social ideals".

New Way of Treating Women by Makhaya

Within the first few chapters, the reader can notice that Makhaya comes from a different background than they do. This separate culture has different traditions, but it also has a different attitude toward women. In the country where they lived, men were viewed as superior to women. Makhaya, on the other hand, has a startlingly opposite viewpoint. He says he has never felt at ease being differently treated than women. He has made significant adjustments following his father's death, urging his mother and sisters to treat him equally. Numerous natives in the book appear surprised by his attitude toward women (Ncube, 2001).

Makhaya and the women he encounters have fundamentally opposing viewpoints. Makhaya pays the rent price of living in a tiny hut with a little girl and her grandmother. The young girl enters Makhaya's hut late at night and suddenly offers herself for prostitution. Makhaya immediately pays the girl to leave, observing that she is the same age as one of his younger sisters. The grandmother's response to the girl shows how few men behave like Makhaya: "This is a miracle! I have not yet known a man who did not regard a woman as a gift from God. He must be mad!" (Head, 1969, p. 10).

Makhaya is a man who has fled his homeland because he has despised tribalism. He is well-educated and has a unique perspective on things: "It's only education that turns a man away from his tribe," Dinorego said (Head, 1969, p. 3). Since his father's death, Makhaya has begun to respect women at home, encouraging his sisters to address him by his first name. One of the reasons driving Makhaya to respect women is that he is affected by his mother's beliefs "Why should men be brought up with a false sense of superiority over women?" Makhaya's mother wonders (Head, 1969, p. 16).

Makhaya has influenced many women in Gomela Mmidi. There is a clear separation of roles, and both men and

women are aware of role conflicts. Men are not allowed to build fires because doing so is considered the domain of women. As Paulina said, "Don't touch the fire. It's women's work" (Head, 1969, p. 139). When Makhaya speaks out against this division of labor, he remarks, "It is time you learned that men live on this earth too. If I want to make tea, I'll make it, and if I want to sweep the floor, I'll sweep it" (Head, 1969, p. 134).

According to Davies's book *Black Women, Writing, and Identity: Migration of the Subject* (1994), Makhaya's effort is motivated by his desire for equality between men and women. As a result, Makhaya is portrayed by Head as a hero dedicated to liberating women's minds from the shackles of tradition. "Being a woman is a position often defined in relation to serving the male" as Aidoo stated (Davies, 1994, p. 68).

Paulina admits to being unaware of her rights as a woman. Makhaya respectfully thanks Paulina for giving him a cup of tea. Paulina states that it is her responsibility as a woman to prepare tea and that Makhaya does not need to thank her. Makhaya and Paulina both have had different perspectives on this situation. Makhaya makes it evident that being "used" is not an option. Makhaya has introduced the idea that most men take advantage of their female partners since they are accustomed to it (Ncube, 2001).

Makhaya, the primary character, represents Head's life. Makhaya's persona represents Head's life. Makhaya is a representative of a new age that values equality between genders. Both are refugees in Botswana, and their societies have racial concerns.

Head understands Makhaya's struggle as she has faced comparable challenges, such as the repressive political system in South Africa for black people and the alienation of foreigners in Botswana, denying them citizenship. In Makhaya's reaction to the sexual exploitation of a very young child, she uses Makhaya to make a caustic attack on prevalent societal systems such as tribalism and the status of women in Africa (Thusi, 1998).

Makhaya's reaction to the young girl is intended to elicit sympathy for him from the reader. He begins to win the hearts of the readers. Unlike Makhaya's rebellion against oppression in South Africa forced upon him by his exposure to racial discrimination, Makhaya's decision in Botswana is for the greater good of society. Makhaya's fate, as determined by Head, is to "spend a lifetime in a small rural village", assisting the locals. Makhaya comes to Botswana looking for an alternative to war and the corrupting force of South Africa's political climate, from which he had escaped (Thusi, 1998).

Makhaya does everything he could to help women. His behavior toward women suggested that a man could be sensitive and considerate. Makhaya is not a thoughtless robot. The mode of life in the pre-colonial period differs from that in the post-colonial period. People can adapt their conduct and activities according to the new ways of lifestyles that newcomers bring. The multiple choices defining life in the post-colonial period depend on the person himself. He can select to be an inflexible person who refuses to follow anything new, including fresh behaviors from the colonizing country. The best is the person who merges the fairest or most equitable aspects of multiple societies. In *When Rain Clouds Gather* (1969), for example, Makhaya and Gilbert come from opposite backgrounds; one traditional and the other western. However, both have fled oppressive countries, but when they meet in a small community, they appreciate the value of the other's past knowledge. The two men help each other with the village's agricultural initiatives in this way. Notably, both combine the best elements of the old and new ways of life.

As previously demonstrated, Head's novel*, When Rain Clouds Gather* (1969), strongly supports women's rights. Feminist theory has helped the readers to understand Head's work as Head's characters strike the readers as moderate feminists. Head's feminist treatment includes both men and women, employing the concept of love to strengthen the understanding of love's ability to reshape our disjointed lives. Maria and Gilbert's love has fostered confidence in a foreigner that the inhabitants of Golema Mmidi have struggled to accept. Makhaya's connection with Paulina has transformed him into a person who can relate to others and accept them as they are. Head recognizes the changes in women's thought through the post-colonial period. Women can express their feelings and do what they believe in without hesitation or trepidation.

The *Collector of Treasures* and *Other Botswana Village Tales* (1977)

For many years, women have campaigned for equality in male-dominated countries where they are routinely disregarded in various facets of life, including political agendas, concept creation, and even literature. In *The Collector of Treasures* (1997), women have also found themselves essential actors in these areas. Though the story is set in a poor African country, it has its ideas and approaches to womanhood. In *The Collector of Treasures* (1977), women are depicted as more potent when battling males. Isaac Schapera, a writer focusing on the contributions of Tswana women in his book *The Tswana* (1953), observed:

> Women tilled the fields, built and repaired the walls of the huts, granaries, and courtyards, thatched roofs with grass which they fetched themselves, prepared food and made beer, looked after the fowls, fetched water, wood, and earth, collected wild edible plants and did the housework (p. 27).

The Collector of Treasures (1977) is a story about male-female interactions. From a woman's perspective, Head stresses the differences between femininity and masculinity. The story revolves around the tensions brought about by gender problems. In other words, women struggle with oppression due to the masculine social construction where males are always in the lead. Women in Head's works are more empowered to intervene to stop their husbands' mischief. What sets this one apart is the obvious delineation of male and female roles, putting the woman's life into sharp focus, owing to her determination to maintain her integrity and independence (Dandeş, 2011).

African women's responsibilities are only briefly mentioned in Bessie Head's short stories. However, her tone and attitude remain the same as in her lengthy fiction. Even though the load of women's work is exhausting, her female characters are physically and emotionally strong enough to handle it. As they do the work that tradition has allotted to them, they are filled with zeal and excitement (Vidal, 1989). Bessie Head attributes women's status in society to an old tradition, saying "The ancestors made so many errors and one of the most bitter-making things was that they relegated to men a superior position in the tribe, while women were regarded, in a congenital sense, as being an inferior form of human life" (Head, 1977, p. 92).

The Collector of Treasures (1977) takes place in post-colonial Botswana and follows Dikeledi Mokopi and her estranged husband, Garesego Mokopi. He has abandoned her and their three children, leaving her to care for them while he seeks sexual fulfillment with other women. So far, Dikeledi's next-door neighbors, Paul and Kenalepe Thobolo, get along well. The bond between Paul and Dikeledi, on the other hand, makes Garesego envious. Dikeledi asks Garesego over to her house when she needs money to pay for their eldest child's school tuition. He has the idea that she wants to have relations with him. Dikeledi, on the other hand, uses a kitchen knife to sever his genitals. She is condemned to live in prison for her crime. She befriends three other women in jail who have committed the same crime.

Dikeledi has had a terrible existence since she was a child. Her given name, "Dikeledi" means "tears". She has been orphaned as a child and raised by her uncle, a self-centered man who has treated her as a servant and refused to educate her for six years. He is the one who has forced Dikeledi to marry Garesego, his friend, who had proposed to her. Dikeledi has taken the chance to "get out of my [her] uncle's yard," and Garesego "was the only man who proposed to me [Dikeledi]". The marriage has swiftly devolved into an unpleasant one, not that the partnership had ever been cheerful, to begin with. Dikeledi and their three young children have eventually been left to their own devices. Despite this, Dikeledi has worked hard to raise her three children and utilized her sewing, thatch-making, knitting, and other abilities to obtain money and resources for herself and her family.

Gardner (1989) mentions that *The Collector of Treasures* has "a discernible feminist content" since it emphasizes "the insistence that women have suffered systematic social injustice because of their sex . . . I've never heard of a man being murdered by his genitals being slit," Bessie Head told Susan Gardner (1989) following a discussion about Dikeledi's act of killing her husband. However, it reveals Dikeledi's long-term psychological suffering.

The Collector of Treasures (1977) is yet another attempt by Bessie Head to explore the intersection of masculinity and paternity in the construction of the father she has never known. Our focus should be on Garesego, Dikeledi's rascal husband, and his foil, the good man Thebolo, a schoolteacher who offers to look after Dikeledi's children when she goes to jail. Botswana has recently achieved independence in the plot. It is a far cry from the traditional African civilization she envisages while she is still in South Africa, entrenched in ancestral traditions and practices. The two men, Garesego and Thebolo, react to the shift in radically opposite ways. Garesego maintains the privileges that conventional society has bestowed on males in the past, partly because the checks and balances governing men's use of this power have partially crumbled because he now makes enough money to gratify his cravings. Garesego is revealed to be the worst example of manhood. He is competent in biological paternity and can father children, but he will not take on the duty of protector and provider for the children he fathers (Mwikisa, 2021).

Bessie Head gives a brief history of the changes in *The Collector of Treasures and Other Botswana Village Tales* (1977) that males in Southern Africa have gone through in the century and a half since European colonization has taken over their ancient tribal society. This narrative framing of the story explains how males like Garesego, Dikeledi's spouse, have sprung onto the postcolonial scene as symbols of particularly predatory masculinity. Head describes people like Garesego: "In the old days, before the colonial invasion of Africa, he was a man who lived by the traditions and taboos outlined for all the people by the forefathers of the tribe" (Head, 1977, p. 91).

He has not had much personal choice to decide whether or not these practices were humane. "The colonial era and the period of migratory mining labor to South Africa were a further affliction visited on this man. It broke the hold of the ancestors," Head says. "A man was separated from his wife and children for long periods of time while he worked for a pittance [...] to pay his British Colonial poll-tax" (Head, 1977, p. 91). As a result, the African male's position in the tribe has shifted from one of primacy to one of separation and inferiority: "He then became" the white man's servant and a machine-tool in the South African mines (Head, 1977, pp. 91-92).

Garesego Mokopi is the embodiment of men's phallocratic dominance in society. He is also one of Head's "evil" males, likened to a dog that "imagined he was the only penis in the world and that there had to be a scramble for it" (Head, 1977, p. 91). These men are the worst in Head's stories, according to Femi Ojo-Ade (1990, p. 82): These men "make babies like machines and turn their backs on the poor women". Garesego, according to Ojo-Ade (1990, p. 83) has "all the essentials to feed his hunger for sex and alcohol". The text's narrator attributes this to both the colonial system and the forefathers' code of behavior. The post-colonial man evolves into "a broken wreck with no inner resources," and women become "an inferior form of human life" since the colonial system has never prepared the people for independence and national management (Head, 1977, p. 92).

Garesego's existence revolves around returning home and having sexual relations with Dikeledi. The following explains his purpose: "Dear Mother, I am coming home again so that we may settle our differences. Will you prepare a meal for me and some hot water that I might take a bath, Gare?" (Head, 1977, p. 101).

Dikeledi reads the letter as an expression of Garesego's intent to fulfill his sexual cravings, stating that he is "coming

home for some sex" (p. 101). He not only tries to be affectionate (he refers to himself as "Gare"), but he also plays on her emotions by referring to her as "Mother." He instantly casts her in the role of a kind and supportive wife who will take care of his needs. Acting as though she is his parental superior and he is the prodigal son returning home is the only way he believes he can control Dikeledi. Perhaps he is attempting to push her into the role of an oedipal mother, an influential maternal figure.

In this new post-colonial society, women suffer much more than men. Men have a false sense of liberty due to the changes in society and its structure. New manifestations of male pride, such as administrative employment, money, and power, have resulted in erratic anarchy. Men behave like a pack of wolves on the prowl, and women suffer as a result. This viewpoint is consistent with Paglia's (1992, p. 63) observation that "male lust and male aggression are two uncontrollable forces of nature in society." Sexist brutishness has resulted from years of colonial subjugation. Garesego is an example since he has replaced his marriage relationship with a free-ranging, carefree pursuit of women.

Paul Thebolo, on the other hand, is an educated man who presumably earns the same amount of money as Garesego at his work. He is an academic who preaches Marxism and revolution. However, he could mix his most refined traditional African customs with new methods of approaching modernization. By merging masculinity and paternity, he nevertheless accepts the customary privileges afforded to males by tradition. He, like his wife, is drawn to a diverse group of friends: "They had guests every evening, illiterate men who wanted him to fill in tax forms or write letters for them, or his colleagues who wanted to debate the political issues of the day" (Head, 1977, p. 94).

In Head's writing, Paul Thebolo is the legendary man, the so-called new African man. "Gentle, loving, responsible men, with the standard gendered role divisions otherwise unchanged," writes Driver (1984, p. 246) of the new African society inhabited by men like Paul Thebolo. According to Sarah Chetin (1989, p. 135), Paul may have been named after the Christian St. Paul, who is "a symbol of charity and visionary hope". Paul is in charge of looking after Dikeledi and her family once Garesego has abandoned them, and he is also prepared to look after them if she needs to go to jail: "You don't have to worry about the children, Mma Banabothe. I'll adopt them and educate them all through secondary school" (Head, 1977, p. 103).

Garesego makes other women suffer until Dikelide, who is oppressed by his vileness, is forced to kill him. A man is created to have his accomplishments and disappointments, but only if he respects the component of life that drives a person to revere womanhood, motherhood, and the family. A man like Garesego, doggedly pursues pleasures, even at the expense of those around him, dreads reality, and clings to delusions imposed by colonialism and custom.

A man like Garesego does not have to be perfect. He just needs to sift out his current feelings, thoughts, and moods. He shows how a male-dominated culture might lead to confusing perceptions of masculine dominance. It is a characteristic of "that man," whose deeds only serve to place him on a path to his demise and death (Lederer, 2019).

Paul has sexual power and authority as a male within this patriarchal culture. He plays the usual patriarchal role of providing for his family, unlike Garesego who spends his money on alcohol and abandons his wife and children for other women. On the other hand, he is not like Garesego in that he does not oppress women to maintain his power; instead, he is kind and compassionate. When Dikeledi first met him, he made an impression on her: "The sunlight and shadow played all kinds of tricks with his eyes" because he was "peaceful as a person" (Head, 1977, p. 93).

In society, Head sees two types of men: the good and the wicked. In the figure of Paul, she presents an example of a "good man". Head admires his character's ability to develop himself from the ground up. "He turned all his resources, both emotional and material, towards his family life and went on and on with his quiet rhythm like a river," she says of this type of man (Head, 1977, p. 93).

The Collector of Treasures (1977), a gender-oriented story of African literature with female and male characters, and different perspectives, epitomizes Head's entire life experience and literary profession: "If these stories of the village are simultaneously stories of the modernizing society, they are also versions of Head's own story" (Chapman, 1996, p. 381).

The most emblematic of the book's short stories is *The Collector of Treasures* (1977), which gives the entire collection its title. Pain and loneliness run through all of Bessie Head's life experiences in this short story. "Theirs is not a tender, compassionate, and romantic world," Smith stated (1990, p. 116); Head feels compelled to write about herself in her works, using autobiographical allusions to convey societal issues via her own experience.

Head demonstrates in *The Collector of Treasures tales* (1977) that a man-woman connection may be renewed. Paul Thebolo is inspirational and represents the "new kind of man." Paul Thebolo is shown as a sensitive, cooperative, kind, and compassionate character. Though these characteristics are often associated with women, Paul's cooperative attitude is demonstrated by his assistance to "illiterate men, who wanted him to fill in the tax forms or write letters for them" (Head, 1977, p. 95). The way the character is represented significantly differs. In this talk, Head distinguishes Paul and Garesego in treating women. The male characters' portrayal dramatically changes from Garesego, who is dictatorial and domineering, to Paul, who is kind and accepting of women. Paul sexually treats women with kindness and care, according to his wife, Kenalepe. Throughout the novel, Head identifies him with good power, notably positive power. By doing so, Head draws attention to Paul and Garesego's sexual imbalance (Lederer, 2019).

According to Head (1989), all of the conventional restraints and biases against women work against Dikeledi and threaten to overturn the measure of happiness she has eked out for herself and her children. She murders her spouse because she sees no way out of the trap. Victims — other convicted spouse murderers— try to make a life for themselves in prison by working together and sharing a sense of purpose through mutual understanding and a feeling of

shared purpose.

Despite her anti-violence stance, Head does include grisly scenes of violence in her books on occasion. She performs in her works a true misuse of power by recounting all aspects of reality, demonstrating how horrible dehumanization can be. She permits things to happen on purpose to show that she cannot always influence characters to prevent bloodshed. The tragedies presented in this fashion by Head emphasize that human interactions prosper when all that is compassionate and kind is preserved while that which is dehumanizing is removed.

The role of women is the subject of Head's short stories. She emphasizes that in traditional communities, women should not accept positions solely created for them by males. In *The Collector of Treasures* (1977), she utilizes excellent men like Paul Thebolo to show that she values women as equal partners. Women who have been placed in difficult situations, such as forsaken spouses like Dikeledi, are strong survivors. Being rejected by her husband, Dikeledi utilizes her handicraft skills to support herself and her children. In the stories, women are empowered in subtle ways. "You know I am the woman whose thatch does not leak," Dikeledi says, demonstrating her self-assurance (Head, 1977, p. 90).

The Collector of Treasures (1977) is a comprehensive feminist work. It portrays the African conventional man-woman conflict and all the agony that comes with it. In detail, it vehemently opposes the perceived inferiority of women, regardless of the terrible consequences, and envisions a new reasonable equilibrium based on a new kind of man and a new kind of woman: "The conditions of a society in upheaval: the women of Head's bustling Botswanan village face religious conflict, the burden of poverty, and, partly as a result of the clashes of ancient custom and the modern way, stressful marriages," writes Chapman, (1996, p. 381). As many critics have noted, the teacher behind it is simply identifiable. There's also a hint of the oral story's didacticism (Chapman, 1996).

It draws an interesting connection between African postcolonial independence and political freedom, as well as feminism and African women's emancipation. This is a once-in-a-lifetime chance. For better or worse, her female protagonists are willing to leave the oppression of the past behind them, as all the oppressed women move ahead into the future without looking back. Despite its terrible ending, it is a hopeful story.

Bessie Head is not a die-hard fanatic. Her novels are also not anti-male. It is just the negative kind of man, the one who prevents transformation, is metaphorically attacked and literally castrated and killed. It is not just his responsibility. Much of the guilt lies with history, but it is now hard for him to change.

IV. CONCLUSION

In a nutshell, the theme of The Treatment of Women in African Literature in Bessie Head's *When Rain Clouds Gather* (1969) and *The Collector of Treasures, and Other Botswana Village Tales* (1977) has been discussed from various perspectives to show that women in modern African literature have essential roles in society, not just a few superficial ones.

Bessie Head creates a base of operations and eventually arrives at her destination. In Botswana, she realized her roots and identity. Due to this detailed study of Head, the significance of gender mutualism has been recognized in maintaining calm and stable human connections. However, precious times of closeness between couples are frequently squandered in fighting and warding off one another; Head's work should be viewed as a lesson in human coexistence. Individuals in positions of control should be aware that humanity contains "diverse threads that could be woven into a fine cloth of society" (Ezenwa, 1990, p. 130).

In our analysis of character interactions, it is observed that Head creates circumstances that imply that "human life can only be expressed through a complementarity," as Elliott claims (1982, p. 103). Complementarity is tied to phrases such as "compatibility," "balance," "supplementarity," and "mutuality" in my mind. Importantly, we realize that these terms all have the same meaning: wholeness, completion, coexistence, merging, and balance.

When Rain Clouds Gather (1969) demonstrates the value of mutual existence in the interaction between Makhaya and Gilbert in their administration of the Golema Mmidi microcosm as an example. Gilbert has agricultural expertise, while Makhaya possesses the communication skills required to provide a learning environment; Head has demonstrated how working together may be successful. We have seen powerful figures like Makhaya select to improve communities rather than destroy innocent people so that power may be harnessed and used in constructive ways.

Bessie Head has consistently highlighted the difficulties of gender relations in Africa in her works. She is one of the rare male and female African writers of any gender of her time to address not only gender prejudice but also propose a remedy. *When Rain Clouds Gather* (1969) emphasizes how generations of male power have oppressed women. A woman is something you have purchased at some point, like a table you would store in the back room and not give any thought to (Head, 1969). Makhaya's strong anti-apartheid feelings have made him intolerant of his Zulu culture's discriminatory tradition of female servitude. His critique of capitalism is intrinsically related to his condemnation of racism.

The works of Bessie Head depict the roles of women in different eras. Head depicts women's suffering as a result of a colonial system that hinders them from bettering their circumstances. As confirmed by Abd-Rabbo (2019), social distinction and freedom can only be attainable under the prevailing social standards that may lead to the excellence and achievement of women, and thus women are required to respond differently to the prevalent social norms and traditions. In her stories, she demonstrates that a woman is capable of more than just being a mother, sister, wife, and daughter.

We can hear the female, as it is the voice of all other women in Head's writings, as she fights and seeks to express herself. In Africa, Bessie Head depicts the notion of the New Woman. She looks into the subject of sexual discrimination. Her works depict the agony of her female protagonists while also raising women's awareness of their predicament.

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Language in the Hypnotherapy of Depression Healing: A Neurolinguistic Study

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Abstract—**The neurolinguistic concept is similar to language function in that it expresses thought that leads to behavior, habit, and character. This study focuses on neurolinguistics to investigate the language used in hypnotherapy. Language is a therapy medium for curing depressive disorders resulting from different factors. Most of the depressive disorders treated at the *Bali Brahma Kuntha* Center Clinic are caused by disharmony or connection interruption between the left and right hemispheres of the brain, resulting in perception mapping errors. This mind disharmony is responsible for depressive disorder. This study employs a descriptive qualitative approach with a corpus of language or text data to cure depressive disorders. The corpus is the text used by the participants involved in the curing activities between the patients and the therapist. The data was collected using the observation method via recording and note-taking. The results reveal that language is closely related and cannot be separated from a depressive disorder. The type of hypnotherapy used to cure depressive disorder employs religious doctrines, referred to as theohypnotherapy. Overall, language or text is completed with the body, with hand touch induction especially used in the curing procedures. The hypnotherapy results indicate all the patients, based on the testimony texts, recovered from the depressive disorder.**

Index Terms—**theohypnotherapy, depression, neurolinguistics**

I. INTRODUCTION

The connection between language and the mind is a matter many people have investigated for a very long time. Several linguistic studies have claimed that people depend on language in their life (Dardjowidjojo, 2004). Sapir (1924) states that the mercy of language enables humans to live and connect with each other. The question is do humans use language when they think, or can humans think without using language? The human mind is often characterized by the recovery of conceptual (semantic) knowledge from memory, and there is ongoing discussion regarding whether language may impact the nature of such conceptual representations (Emmorey, 2019; Gleitman & Papafragou, 2014). Every language's linguistic system serves as both a medium for conveying thinking and a means of producing thought (Saputra et al., 2022; Whorf, 1997).

This study explores depressive disorder as a disease many people suffer from in today's society. This disease attacks the human mind and has the following symptoms: being distracted, worried, pessimistic, having difficulty concentrating, and having an imbalance between mind, body, and soul. The depressive disorder is expressed through language by those who suffer from it. Therefore, the disorder's existence can be identified in the form of a language recording or text. As it is classified as a disease, depressive disorder can be treated by a professional therapist.

The depressive disorder is in the brain and attacks the mind. The disorder not only disturbs the brain but also affects other organs. What causes depressive disorder? Many factors are responsible. From the medical viewpoint, the order can result from a wound in the brain or another biological disease. However, from the linguistic or neurolinguistic viewpoint, the order is presumed to result from a condition in which the literacy, lexical, grammatical capacity, and quality are disturbed.

A low capacity and poor quality in the brain cause those suffering from the depressive disorder to have the following negative perceptions: they feel imprisoned/shackled, they feel at a "dead end," they have a heavy burden, they feel their lives have come to an end, and their lives are no longer useful.

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Those with the depressive disorder are unable to find a solution to their negative perceptions. If these negative perceptions are left untreated, they can lead to a deterioration in health. As yet, the depressive disorder cannot be medically cured; that is, it cannot be cured using chemical medicines. Only hypnotherapy, as an alternative healing process, can cure the disorder by employing language or text.

The use of hypnotherapy concerns many interesting problems and discussion points:

1. What is the relationship between the depressive disorder and language?
2. What type of hypnotherapy is used to cure the depressive disorder?
3. What are the processes and procedures through which the depressive disorder is cured?
4. What is the result of the disorder curing process using hypnotherapy?

This article is mostly based on neurolinguistics and is concerned with the relationship between the human brain and language. The human brain comprises of several components, each with its own functions, one of which is language. One component coordinates with another to produce speech. If this function is disturbed, then speech disorder occurs and the person becomes difficult to understand (Sastra, 2011).

The human brain normally has 100,000,000,000 neurons that form 20,000 networks. Regarding language function, the roles played by the brain control and regulate all movements and activities. It is located in the skull and generally comprises the big brain, the small brain, and the brain stem. The big brain consists of two parts: left and right. The left part, or hemisphere, manages (among other functions) language, and the right hemisphere manages things other than language. The left hemisphere has three lobes:

1.   The Frontal Lobe (cognitive function)
2.   The Temporal Lobe (auditory function)
3.   The Parietal Lobe (sensory function)

One area in the frontal lobe is the *Broca*, which is responsible for speech function. An area in the temporal lobe is responsible for the comprehending function (the speech skill) and is called *Wernicke* (Sastra, 2011). Each lobe has specific language functions, namely hearing, seeing, speaking, controlling, and responding to the sounds heard and things viewed. The neural network is so complex that the nerves and other bodily organs are systematically united.

The theory of neurolinguistics suggests the brain structure is closely related to the language-forming process (Sastra, 2011). Therefore, using language to cure the depressive disorder through hypnotherapy is logical and empirical. The hypnotherapy method is intended to manage the brain wave potential through the available frequency. This approach means regulating the frequency of the normal consciousness when it is in the Beta wave (12 - 25 Hz) and gradually moving down to the Alfa wave (8 - 12 Hz) and then the lowest wave (0.5 - 4 Hz), the Delta wave.

When the frequencies of the Alfa, Theta, and Delta waves occur, the human mind is in the condition most receptive to the message. These waves mean the mind is relaxed, allowing memory to be accessed, meaning the depressive disorder can occur without intervention by the conscious mind (the Beta wave) (Gunawan, 2006).

When the patient's brain is relaxed and receptive, they will automatically follow the therapist's instructions for trauma resolution, memory reconstruction, and releasing emotions (that have disturbed their life) until they recover from the depressive disorder. The brain braves are described as follows:

1) The Beta wave (*udatta*) occurs when the patient is under normal circumstances with a frequency of 12 - 25 Hz.

2) he Alfa wave (*anudatta*) occurs in more relaxed circumstances with frequency of 8 - 12 Hz.

3) The Theta wave (*swarita*) occurs in relaxed and receptive circumstances with a frequency of 4 - 8 Hz.

4) The Delta wave (*ekasruti*) occurs in the most relaxed and receptive circumstances with a frequency of 0.5 - 4 Hz.

*Note: the italicized terms *udatta, anudatta, swarita,* and *ekasruti* were created by I Ketut Gede Suatmayasa, the owner of the Brahma Kuntha Clinic Center.

The four brain waves are closely related to the nerve vibrations resulting from air pressure changes (Kridalaksana, 2001). Regarding the neurolinguistic context, the brain controls language comprehension, production, and acquisition. It especially controls linguistic sounds that include segmental sounds and suprasegmental sounds, such as prosodic features of short and long sounds, loud and light sounds, tense and lose sounds, and tones and accents. The suprasegmental aspects of language sounds are closely related to the frequencies of the brain waves. The sound prosody should be adjusted to the frequency of the brain waves in the suggestive and inductive techniques used in language therapy.

The depressive disorder is a psychological condition featuring somatic aspects, such as a lack of appetite, low blood pressure, and weak pulse (Maramis, 1992). The primary cause of depressive disorder is in the dynamics of life and competition in the current era of development in every field of life, which may lead to complex socio-economic and cultural problems. According to Radityo (in Suatmayasa, 2021), depressive disorder refers to sadness with such a long intensity that it disturbs and increases the pressure on normal life. The disorder features emotional, cognitive, somatic, psychomotor, and vegetative issues (see World Health Organization, 2017).

In Indonesia, four provinces have a high rate of people suffering from mental disorder:

1.   Special Territory of Yogyakarta (0.27%)
2.   Aceh Province (0.27%)
3.   South Sulawesi Province (0.26%)
4.   Bali Province (0.23%)

In Bali Province, 9,729 out of 4,230,051 people suffered from serious mental disorders (Alicia, 2018) resulting from depression and chronic mental disorders (Hartini et al., 2018). These numbers are an interesting phenomenon; Bali is a small island with many people suffering from mental disorders

II. METHOD

This study uses a qualitative approach because it investigates the language used to cure the depressive disorder through hypnotherapy. The data of the study is the therapy text, that is, the language used as the medium for therapy, starting when the patients began therapy to the time when they recovered.

The data used as the object of the study is the language easily understood by both the patients and the therapist. The Indonesian language forms the primary data, and data translated into the Indonesian language is the supporting data. The data was collected to gather the text forms used in the hypnotherapy curing process was from the observation (Bungin, 2008; Sudaryanto, 2015).

The data was analyzed using the descriptive-qualitative method, meaning language is used to describe reasoning. According to Bungin (2008), the qualitative method includes organizing, classifying, patterning, and formulating. The text was analyzed using the lexico-grammatical technique, in which the meaning equivalents of the lexical items are lexically identified. In addition, the grammatical items were also analyzed to identify the text meaning contextually.

III. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

A. The Relationship of the Depressive Disorder to Language

As explained in the theoretical background, the depressive disorder can be identified through the verbal expression of "language" in the descriptive text. The following data is the texts obtained from two patients with the depressive disorder, named *Pramesti* and *Swastini* (the texts were originally in the Indonesian language).

Text 1) Since I was laid off from work due to COVID-19, my mind has been so messed up. I cannot sleep every night. I am always thinking about how messed up I have been after being laid off. I am confused about what I can do to support myself and my family. Thinking about how my life is messed up every night only causes my mind to get worse). When I heard that today is Labor Day, I intended to express the complaint that I have in my mind to the government".

Text 2) Covid-19 has caused me to lose my business, and this has seriously ruined my mind. I was usually happy, as I could always sell my merchandise. However, since Corona came, turnover of merchandise has dramatically decreased. Nobody was buying my merchandise. I have stopped the business I used to run. This is a serious pressure in my mind because I have lost my source of income. Now I am thinking hard about to get a job or how to start a new business in order to make ends meet. This situation sometimes causes me to cry alone".

The two texts above describe the conditions of two people suffering from the depressive disorder. In Text 1, the depressive disorder is expressed using the following phrases: my mind has been so messed up. I cannot sleep. I am confused. In Text 2, the following phrases are used: has seriously ruined my mind, a serious pressure in my mind, I am thinking hard, sometimes causes me to cry alone.

The two texts indicate the depressive disorder is closely related to language. Consider the following evidence:
1. The concept of the depressive disorder in the texts is exposed through the following statements:
   - the distracted mind
   - being unable to sleep
   - the mind does not stop
   - the confused mind
   - the broken mind
   - the depressed mind
   - thinking hard
   - crying alone

These eight statements suggest the same meaning, namely "depression". The two texts are constructed using neat lexico-grammatical compositions. Lexically, the words used are coherently constructed with the main meaning, that is, "depression," which is synonymous with the terms "distracted mind" (Text 1) and "broken mind" (Text 2). Grammatically, the two texts are composed of thematic ideas: "my mind is messed up" and "my mind is broken." From a systemic linguistic viewpoint, the two types of sentences describe someone suffering from a depressive disorder.

Similar to removing viruses, the hypnotherapy process of curing the patient with the depressive disorder empties and cleans the memory, so only positive language remains. This positive language is analogous to the "bacteria" that help ensure a healthy system. In the curing process, the therapist uses language or text as the medium to guide the patient, starting from when they are made for relaxing, followed by hypnotism, and then to the stage where negative memories are removed and the patient recovers from the depressive disorder.

B. What Language is Used to Cure the Depressive Disorder?

The curing process refers to the communication between the patient and the therapist. The language used as the medium of communication is one the two parties can mutually master, namely the national language/Indonesian language. However, references containing life values within the religious context are also needed in several curing stages, such as when the patient is initially diagnosed and when mental consciousness is required. Therefore, verses from the holy book (Vedas) written in the old Javanese language are adopted. However, the verses are translated into Indonesian to make them easily readable and to ensure the patient understands them. The verses of the holy book are also written in the Sanskrit language, which is also referred to as the essence of value when the hypnotic power is transmitted. Thus, both the patient and therapist will have the same perception.

In addition to the three languages mentioned above, the local language (Balinese) is also used in the general communication process, as the two parties are fluent in this language, but only to say hello and greet the patient the first time they come to the clinic.

C. The Types of Hypnotherapies Applied to Cure the Patient with the Depressive Disorder at the Brahma Kuntha Center Foundation Denpasar

There are many methods to cure patients with depressive disorder: (1) they can scientifically be cured (via counseling from a psychologist or psychiatrist); (2) they can be traditionally cured; and (3) they can be alternatively cured. Based on the regulation issued by the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Indonesia No. 1109/Menkes/Per/2007, the third option is classified as an alternative, complementary medical service in which the hypnotic method or hypnotherapy is included. This regulation states that hypnotherapy is an alternative, complementary medical service conducted through mind and body intervention (Aminudin, 2022). According to Wong and Hakim (2019), hypnotherapy has a scientific basis. In the 20th century, hypnotherapy was permitted in different countries after it was proven it could cure trauma (posttraumatic stress disorder) victims after World Wars I and II and the Korean War (Suatmayasa, 2021). In Indonesia, hypnotherapy was introduced in 2002, when the first hypnotherapy organization, called the Indonesian Board of Hypnotherapy, was established (Suatmayasa, 2021). Today, hypnotherapy is a popular method for addressing health problems and has been recognized as a proven alternative cure (Cristian, 2016).

A clinic in Bali that employs hypnotherapy to cure patients with depressive disorder was established by Dr. Gede Suatmayasa, S.H., C.H., C.Ht., MNLP., better known as Guru Mangku Hipno. The name of the clinic is the Brahma Kuntha Center, the permit for which was issued by the Ministry of Health No. 448.3/28.pt.XII.14/Dikes. At this clinic, patients with a depressive disorder are cured using hypnotherapy combined with the patient's belief-based hypnotic power, referred to as theohypnotherapy, which is a version of hypnotherapy. In theohypnotherapy religious concepts or doctrines are used to impact the patient's memories. Religious hypnotic power has been proven to affect patients' perceptions more strongly, meaning the patient is more likely to recover from a depressive disorder. Hypnotic power, combined with religious concepts and values, especially those related to aspects of divinity, can effectively heal the patient. The religious concepts are as follows: (1) God is merciful; (2) God is infinitely fair; and (3) God is generous.

The messages in the holy book (Vedas) are proven to penetrate the critical factors more effectively and enter the subconscious directly. When such messages are repeatedly mentioned, they can intensively inspire the patient's emotions. The messages will be more effective if they are completed to remind the patient of God's existence and that God's omnipotence can lead patients to recover from a depressive disorder. This approach makes patients feel their relationship with God is growing closer (Khuzaiyah et al., 2018).

(a). The Process and Procedure of Curing at the Brahma Kunta Center Foundation

The Brahma Kuntha Center Foundation, as a formal institution, follows professional administrative procedures and processes when conducting its activities to cure patients with depressive disorder. These processes and procedures concern private data and whether the patient requires only a consultation or therapy. This study only focuses on the therapy aspect. The therapy procedure includes the following steps:

a. The therapist welcomes the patient with the Hindu greeting: "*Om Swastyastu.*" It means that it is hoped that you are in good health and safety. Then, the therapist introduces himself to the patient and asks about their identity, origin, status, and profession. The language used is the Indonesian language. This stage is intended to create a harmonious, friendly, and conducive atmosphere.

b. The therapist performs what is referred to as the critical area to identify their problem. The therapist then encourages the patient to talk (e.g., see Texts 1 and 2). Once the patient finishes their story, the therapist identifies the depressive disorder of the patient.

c. Then, the therapist describes the patient's psychological aspect by asking questions about the patient's hobbies, what they like and dislike, and whether they know about therapy.

d. In this stage, the therapist makes the patient's report by explaining the curing process, preparing them to be healthy and successful, and having new expectations.

e. The next is changing the old frame of thinking into a new one. In this step, the therapist ensures the old frame is erroneous and can be changed or renewed into the new frame using hypnotherapy by using hypnotic power with the patient by following the steps proposed in the theory of hypnotherapy, which is adapted from the holy book Sarassamuscaya of Balinese Hinduism, Verse 81 (see Text 3 below).

Text 3) …"that state of thought, as it is: it changes. What is aspired is sometimes intended, the thought is sometimes full of doubt, that is what is intended, if one can control one's mind, one will certainly be happy now and in the other world" (Kajeng, 1997, p. 25).

Text 3 describes how a person's mind changes if the mind is not well and correctly controlled. However, one will be happy if one can control one's mind well and correctly.

By employing hypnotherapy using the verse above with the *Palawakya* rhythm, the tone is smooth and even can touch the patient's brain's Alfa wave. So, hypnotherapy causes them to be aware that the perception they have created and the old frame (memory) they have mapped are erroneous. In this stage, the therapist guides the patient to build a better condition- a new frame of thinking.

Text 4)
- "Starting from now, your mind is healthy."
- "You have been able to settle the existing problem."
- "Starting from now, you have a strong personality."
- "You will be certainly successful."
- "Starting from now, you have a new expectation."

The hypnotic power created using the above sentences is intended to emphasize that Text 3 is a verse from God that can guarantee that a person who can control their mind will be happy. The hypnotic power (Text 4 is delivered using simple sentences that the patient can easily understand. These simple sentences are composed using basic structures:

Mulai saat ini,	*pikiran anda*	*sehat*
adv. Of time	subject	predicate

Anda	*sudah dapat menyelesaikan*	*masalah yang anda*
subject	predicate	object

Anda	*pasti sukses*
subject	predicate

Mulai sekarang	*Anda*	*memiliki*	*harapan baru*
adv. Of time	subject	predicate	object

The characteristics of the simple sentences used to impart hypnotic power are as follows: (1) they should be formulated to express a single meaning; (2) unambiguous; (3) active sentences; and (4) short, clear, and easily understood.

From the neurolinguistic viewpoint, the characteristics of the sentences used to impart hypnotic power can touch the subconscious; they can be directly accepted and positively significant, giving power to a patient with a depressive disorder. The neurolinguistic concept sentences with negative forms and the future tense are avoided, such as *don't, will, won't,* and *no*. It is because the subconscious mind can only receive and carry out messages for result-oriented active sentences. The characteristics of the subconscious mind are as follows:
(1) Childish
(2) In a hurry when giving a response to a problem
(3) Requires rapid solutions (right now)
(4) Feels blessed

In addition, the subconscious mind tends to receive the positive and strengthening sentences as follows:
(1) The sentence of certainty:
"You are certainly able to …"
"You are certainly successful."
"You are certainly healthy."
(2) The strengthening meaning:
"You are healthy and happy."
"You have a strong personality."
"You have high enthusiasm."

One verse or one text is not enough to transmit the hypnotic power; another text is needed to strengthen it. The following text is coherent with Text 3.

Text 5: Verse 79 of the book of *Sarasamuscaya*:

"So the conclusion is that it is the mind that determines if feeling is determined to take place; so one starts saying or doing something. Therefore, the main source is the mind" (Kajeng, 1997, p. 28).

It can be concluded that depressive disorder is a mental disorder (see Text 5), and this disorder can be cured. In this text, the form only mentions the ontological object of the depressive disorder, that is, a mental disorder in the patient's brain. Therefore, it is necessary to transmit hypnotic theological power, so God will help cure the depressive disorder in accordance with His words, as recorded in the holy book.

Text 6) The Book of Rg. Veda II.5.7

Svah svaya dhayase, Krnutan rtvijam, Stoman yajnam can aram, Vamena rarema vsyam. Make yourself strong enough and dependent on yourself. The worshiper should offer things seasonally. We give money as charity. The karmic makes us respected and well known (Titib, 1996).

The above text's meaning is that one's life's strength should depend on oneself. Everybody has the right and obligation to regulate themselves based on their strong beliefs and focus on positive aspects, taking them ever closer to the universal power. Sincere and holy offerings constitute a method of growing close to God, including strengthening one's spirituality. Spiritual strength augments one's thoughts, which then reinforces one's body, helping to avoid disease. Text 6 also indicates that mental disorders can lead to physical disease, as all have the mind as the source. Finally, religiously, God can be begged to cure every disease.

Text 7) The Book of Yajur Veda XIV.17

Mano me jinva-atmanam me poh. Oh, the One Almighty God, strengthen our minds and souls (Titib, 1996).

The meaning of Text 7 is that God can cure every disease. Therefore, one should do one's best to find ways of recovering oneself from a disease. In this stage, the therapist attempts to build the relationship. Therefore, the relationship between the two should be in harmony and symmetrical. In other words, the patient and therapist will have the same perception in the healing.

(b). Commencing the Therapy Process

In this section, the therapy process will be explained in detail with several stages. Firstly, before the patient enters the therapy room, the therapist asks, "Are you ready to be treated?" This interrogative sentence has the hypnotic power to ensure the patient genuinely intends to be treated to recover from the disease. The patient's answer should be "Ready, teacher" or "Ready, sir." Then, the therapist escorts the patient to the therapy room, where the patient is invited to sit. When the patient is sitting, the therapy begins using the hypnotherapy supported by the authoritative induction technique as follows:

(a) Now, have a seat and take a deep breath (relax)
(b) Inhale through the nose and release through the mouth.
(c) Now, pray and ask God to help you recover from the disease you are suffering from.
(d) Straighten your legs and arms forward. Move and relax your legs and arms.
(e) Take a deep breath and exhale.
(f) Then, after the therapist says, "1, 2, 3, 4 and 5," the patient sleeps. The therapist then touches the patient's arms, causing the patient to lie down.
(g) While the patient sleeps, the therapist transmits the hypnotic power using the following language:
    - "Imagine you are sleeping on a mattress with a white spray mat."
    - "Imagine you are sleeping while hearing the sound of water splattering."
    - "You are sleeping with a calm feeling."

In this stage, the therapist observes the patient's breathing by the belly movement to ensure they have achieved a relaxation "trance." Once the therapist is certain the patient is in a (slight, medium, or serious) trance, the therapist begins transmitting the hypnotic power to "release the negative memory".

(h) The therapist transmits the hypnotic power using the instruction induction method.

"First, I ask you to empty your mind and concentrate fully. On the count of three, I will form a space like a hole in your head. Then, therapist says, "1, 2, 3" while the therapist demonstrates making a hole in the patient's head. Next, the therapist instructs the patient to release the negative memory from their mind through the hole. The therapist counts, "1, 2, 3, 4, 5" and says, "Now, your mind is already clean," "now, your mind is already normal".

Second, the therapist then transmits the hypnotic power to the patient by making a hole in the upper part of the patient's stomach with the same command. Then, the therapist says, "1, 2, 3," and demonstrates how the hole is made in the patient's stomach around the epigastrium." The therapist then instructs the patient to release the negative memories until none remain.

Then, the therapist transmits the third hypnotic power, making similar holes in the patient's feet using his fingers. The therapist then says, "Now, take out all the ailments that are in your stomach, and feet through the holes in the soles of your feet until they are exhausted and clean." On count, one to five, all your illnesses have come out. The therapist while counting 1,2,3,4,5 says, "Now your stomach and legs are healthy and you are back to normal".

After the three parts of the body are treated, the therapist transmits the final hypnotic power using the following sentences:
    - "Imagine you are already healthy."
    - "Your mind is already clean."
    - "Your heart is already clean."
    - "Your body is entirely healthy."
    - "Now you have a strong personality."

In the next step, the therapist transmits the hypnotic power using an induction "command," in which the patient imitates or repeats the words or sentences the therapist says, such as "I am healthy," "I am happy," "I am enthusiastic," "I can…," "I am successful," and "I am brave".

All the therapist's sentences are repeated by the patient in their unconscious mind. In this stage, the therapist has completed the curing process while the patient is asleep and relaxed. The final stage is called "Termination".

In this final stage, the therapist wakes the patient from their sleep using the following sentences to transmit the hypnotic power:

- "Within the count of five, you will wake up. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (while being touched by the therapist)."
- "Please wake up."
- "Sit quietly. Relax the muscles of your hands, feet, and head."
- "Well, … now you are healthy again."

The therapy then asks the patient: "How are you now? How do you feel now?" Generally, the patient answers as follows:

- "Now I feel good, quiet."
- "Now I feel healthy and normal."

After the dialogue between the therapist and patient is finished, the hypnotherapy process and stages are completed and closed using the complementary sentence "*Om Santhi, Santhi, Shanti Om*". The therapist then says the patient can go home.

(c). The Result of the Therapy Process on the Depressive Disorder

Once the therapy process is complete, another stage outside the process follows: the testimony of the patient is given regarding how they feel and think. To address these two points, it is necessary to identify the verbal expressions used to express how the patient is after recovering from the depressive disorder. This process means the new frame in the patient's brain can be identified. Example verbal texts from patients about this issue are as follows:

Text 8)

After I recovered from the depressive disorder, I feel that I have a new spirit in my life. Essentially, the steps I take are not disturbed by the problems I have. I plan my daily activities well. I do my best to patiently make myself get used to problems. Problems have never made me regretful. I spend my daily life with positive things useful to my life in the future. Although I sometimes have the same problems as those that caused me to suffer from the depressive disorder, I can manage them wisely. Essentially, I always show a patient smile when I do my activities to support my future life (15 July 2020).

Text 9)

When I suffered from the depressive disorder and was treated at Brahma Kuntha Center, I was invited to pray and think sincerely. I also acquired many words that affected me. Uniquely, all the words were well accepted by my mind and inspired me to rise from adversity. It was great that my mind could understand them, causing me to be free from the depressive disorder. Having recovered, and as an accountant, I can concentrate and work much better. Before, I quickly grew too tired to count numbers. However, since I recovered, I have been able to work with good concentration during office hours every day (9 August 2020).

Text 10)

I was treated at Brahma Kuntha Center and finally recovered from the depressive disorder. Now, I feel I can think and concentrate well. Actually, I still have problems, but it seems that they cannot disturb my mind. I am always quiet and feel comfortable. Despite the problems, my mind is still reliable enough to allow me to work at my office (13 August 2020).

Text 11)

When I suffered from the depressive disorder, I seldom acted logically. Even when I felt hungry, I realized that I had to eat, but I did not know why I did not want to eat. Since Guru Mangku Hipno's hypnotherapy when I suffered from the depressive disorder, I have been able to focus. I have started to plan different programs for the future of my family and company. I have gradually done everything with certainty (15 October 2020).

The four texts above (Text 8, 9, 10, 11) describe the patients' experiences after being cured of depressive disorder. In these testimonial texts, all the patients reveal they have recovered. Viewed from the neurolinguistic perspective, recovery means the negative memory in the old frame is eliminated, and the patients have a new structure, enabling them to be more open and optimistic. In addition, the patients have full expectations and are more certain their future will be positive. Text 9, for example, offers evidence that language (lexicon or words) is powerful enough to be used as hypnotic power for patients. The power of language and meaning can raise consciousness regarding making changes. From the psychoneurolinguistic viewpoint, form and meaning contribute new input to the patient's mental dictionary, strengthening their literacy. Similarly, the other texts semantically represent the change in and the dynamics of the patients' ways of thinking, their viewpoints, and how they do things. These new approaches reveal that the frame or memory can be flexibly composed.

IV. CONCLUSION

To sum up, depressive disorder is closely related to language. The disorder can be identified through the language or text used, revealed via the patient's verbal expressions. The text is descriptive and is formed using cohesive and coherent lexico-grammar. The text denotatively refers to disorders such as the distracted mind, the broken mind, the

confused mind, and the depressed mind. Overall, the descriptive text, as a verbal expression, has a unity of meaning. The neurolinguistic framework indicates there is a weak or disharmonious connection between the left and right hemispheres of the brain when managing external information, meaning there is something wrong with cognitive or conceptual mapping when suffering from a depressive disorder.

Then, based on the descriptive texts from the Brahma Kuntha Center patients, depressive disorder results, both implicitly and explicitly, from a lack of consciousness when managing oneself. Self-management concerns how people regulate the balanced relationship between the mind, body, and spirit. In the religious concept, consciousness is the bridge connecting the body and the soul, located in the heart, and God (*para-atma*), resides in the liver. It is this weak connection that can lead to depressive disorder. In addition to weak management, low literacy in religious affairs, and low divine literacy in particular, are also responsible for depressive disorder. Therefore, the religious texts used as the medium in theohypnotherapy are powerful and effective enough to ensure that hypnotic power affects patients.

Furthermore, the entire process of theohypnotherapy uses language as the medium to impart the hypnotic power, complete with a touch of the hand, if necessary. The Indonesian language is used to impart this hypnotic power. The quoted texts contain short, simple, active, and easily understandable sentences, with their rhythm and intonation adjusted to the brain wave, causing the vibration to be harmoniously detected. These sentences endow the hypnotherapy process with a single meaning, certainty, and strength.

Finally, the results of the theohypnotherapy used to cure the depressive disorder are clear from the patients' descriptive testimony texts. In these texts, all the patients claim they have recovered from the depressive disorder. The word "recover," meaning "being healthy or normal again," is clear from the following word choices: good, enthusiastic, not distracted, focused, positive, and better.

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Teaching and Learning English in the Degree in Infant Education: A Proposal for a Content-Enhanced Syllabus Model

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Abstract—This paper presents a proposal for a content-enhanced syllabus model aimed at teaching and learning English in the Degree in Infant Education. The proposal addresses the challenge of providing meaningful learning opportunities to develop the linguistic and communicative competence of the learners. It acknowledges the limitations of the general needs approach commonly used in coursebook-driven English Language Teaching (ELT) within this specific context. Instead, the proposal considers the future professional needs of the learners. Thus, the main goals of the proposal are to develop the learners' learning-to-learn competence, focusing on learning strategies and self-directed learning resources, while fostering their language awareness, particularly in terms of pronunciation and form-meaning mappings. Additionally, the proposal incorporates a lexical, discourse-based approach that emphasizes the importance of multi-word units in language structure, second language learning, and language use. It prioritizes practices like noticing and cognitive engagement, supported by thinking routines, as well as exposure to relevant and rich input. In this way, the proposed content-enhanced syllabus translates into an instructional design based on validated principles of Second Language Acquisition. It revolves around meaning-focused language tasks, functional activities, and the utilization of authentic multimodal materials. This type of syllabus requires active participation from the learners, encouraging them to take an active role in their own learning process. By implementing this proposal, it is hoped that learners will enhance their linguistic and communicative competence, as well as their ability to learn effectively.

Index Terms—content-enhanced syllabus, SLA principles, cognition, task-based and meaning-focused language teaching, Degree in Infant Education

I. Introduction

This paper puts forward a proposal to rethink the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language (EFL) in the Degree in Infant Education. Much English language teaching today is coursebook-driven and focused on preparing learners to operate in the different domains or spheres of action in social life that the CEFR identifies (2001, 2018a): i.e. personal, public, occupational and educational. At this stage of their language learning, Infant Education undergraduates have repeatedly experienced this general approach that does not respond to their specific linguistic and communicative needs. A tentative profile of these needs is sketched in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
LINGUISTIC AND COMMUNICATIVE NEEDS OF INFANT TEACHERS

Communication	Be able to use the foreign language to understand and produce oral, written and multimodal messages and texts that are relevant in the field of early childhood education and for their own language learning, as well as to effectively interact and mediate with other speakers.
Oral skills	Understand and apply the phonetic and phonological system of the foreign language, as well as the forms and functions of verbal discourse for instruction, interaction, and management of the infant classroom.
Learning to learn	Become aware of their linguistic knowledge and communication skills, at the same time as they identify and make use of principles, strategies and resources for guided and self-directed learning of the foreign language and for the development of their intercultural communicative competence.

Infant teachers need to develop their own communicative competence at the same time as they acquire specific linguistic knowledge and skills that are relevant for stimulating and facilitating foreign language learning in early childhood. They also need to become more effective English language learners.

II. Objective

The aim of this paper is to introduce and critically comment on a proposal for a content-enhanced syllabus model for Infant Education undergraduate students which tries to respond to the needs identified above.

III. Theoretical Framework

A. A Content-Enhanced Syllabus Model

Despite the fact that the majority of teachers would agree that they are teaching EFL for communication, what to teach continues to be an issue because, as Widdowson contended in the 1980s, "there is no such thing as a communicative syllabus: there can only be a methodology that stimulates communicative learning" (1984, p. 26). This is why we need to design language courses in which materials have the potential to engage learners and create a context for the communicative use of the L2, as Ellis et al. (2020) put it. In teacher education, a needs-based syllabus would ensure the relevance of course contents and materials and thus, potentially, create a context for communicative action.

It is our contention that a valid proposal for a needs-based syllabus in teacher education could be a version of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in that this communicative approach is a form of convergence, as Coyle et al. contend in their seminal work (2010). CLIL was a response to the need identified at the turn of the 20th century for "better linguistic and communicative competence, more relevant methodologies, and higher levels of authenticity to increase learner motivation" (p. 5). It also provides teacher educators with an opportunity to regenerate our language teaching in a way that other communicative approaches that attempt to bring in authenticity and relevance, such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP), fail to offer.

Although CLIL and ESP may have things in common, as they aim for effective communication, they also differ significantly. An ESP syllabus includes content knowledge but is primarily focused on language and language use, on precision and accountability, and thus on specifying measurable learning outcomes in line with an efficiency view of education (Richards, 2013). A common approach to course design in ESP is based on identifying the situations in which learners need to typically use the language, and then selecting the linguistic features needed to perform effectively in those situations. ESP courses are built around a situational and topic- or theme-based syllabus (Ur, 2012, p. 188), and a systematic process of needs analysis to determine the kinds of communication learners need to master. This is an example of backward design (Richards, 2013), in which expected learner outcomes are used for choosing input and designing instruction.

An example of this for EFL teaching and learning in Infant Education studies is Kindergarten Teacher (Evans et al., 2015) in the Career Paths series and which is described as "a new educational resource for kindergarten teachers and other childcare providers who want to improve their English communication in a work environment" (back cover). The series addresses topics including classroom supplies, daily schedule, play, stories and reading, lesson plan formats and classroom management. But, although the situations, lexis and functions addressed through these topics are useful to the infant teacher, authenticity, relevance, and motivation are an issue. Firstly, because any ESP course is difficult to transfer to a specific sociocultural context (Almagro, 2002). Secondly, because the selected situations or the themes addressed are dealt with superficially, as linguistic material. That is, there is no powerful content that requires complex cognitive processing and which could be connected to educational interests, social or emotional needs. As Ellis et al. (2020) explain, courses whose contents are teacher-generated and fixed are not designed to "incorporate learners' interests and sense of self and to use this experience to drive L2 use" (p. 162).

By contrast, CLIL courses are put together through forward design, since content and language are identified prior to establishing learning aims (Richards, 2013). This is so because CLIL tries to respond to learner demands in a more ambitious way, in connection to the development of Literacy Competence as a key competence for lifelong learning (Council of Europe, 2018b). In addition, the CLIL tenet "[S]tudents must be cognitively engaged" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 29) makes the approach diametrically opposed to ESP. For cognitive engagement to happen, learners need to take on an active role and process conceptual content, rather than just be instructed in notions and functions, and topic-specific vocabulary. They also need to have some control of their own learning and a sense of responsibility for learning outcomes. As Ball (2016) contends, incorporating features of CLIL into language teaching courses in a way that makes sense to the teachers and the learners "makes for a powerful communicative framework with which to drive a syllabus" (p. 29) because "the more students 'do' with language, the more it seems to make sense to them" (p. 32). Ball also provides language teachers with a useful acronym that can help us rethink the language syllabus for specific purposes: CELT, namely Content Enhanced Language Teaching.

It is our contention that a CELT syllabus in the context of teacher education may help us adopt an integrated approach prompted by a type of needs analysis that is primarily process-oriented (i.e. it foregrounds procedural knowledge) and takes into account learner motivation at the same time as it provides learners with powerful, engaging content that creates opportunities to generate and communicate personal meaning. This kind of process-oriented syllabus will be concerned with "the development of understanding, not just the passive reception of 'knowledge' or the acquisition of specific skills", as Finney puts it (2002, p. 73), calling for a flexible curriculum model for English Language Teaching. Process-oriented syllabuses are about creating possibilities for intramural and extramural learning and for future learning.

B. Second Language Acquisition Principles

A CELT syllabus needs designed for this specific context needs to be informed by general, validated Second Language Acquisition (SLA) principles since, as Ellis and Shintani contend (2014, p. 27), "[i]nstruction that is not compatible with the way L2 acquisition takes place cannot be successful". They put together a list of principles (see

Table 2 below) that they introduce as "design features" that are "motivated by SLA theory and research findings" (p. 22). Although they are not infallible recipes, these principles can help us make decisions to design the proposed syllabus.

TABLE 2
PRINCIPLES OF INSTRUCTED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Principle 1:	*Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and rule-based competence.*
Principle 2:	*Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus on meaning.*
Principle 3:	*Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.*
Principle 4:	*Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.*
Principle 5:	*Instruction needs to take into account the order and sequence of acquisition.*
Principle 6:	*Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input.*
Principle 7:	*Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output.*
Principle 8:	*The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.*
Principle 9:	*Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.*
Principle 10:	*Instruction needs to take account of the fact that there is a subjective aspect to learning a new language.*
Principle 11:	*In assessing learners' L2 proficiency it is important to examine free as well as controlled production.*

C. Language and Cognition

In a CELT syllabus, the connection between language and cognition needs to be given prominence. To this end, design features that provide scaffolded thinking can be integrated. Organizers such as think charts (Clark, 2009) and thinking routines encourage learners to explore ideas with more depth and breadth than controlled situational exercises. The routines developed by Harvard's Project Zero (Ritchhart et al., 2011), which "operate as tools for promoting thinking" (p. 45), are open-ended (that is, not "used to elicit specific responses" [p. 46]), promote deeper understanding of the issues or contents to which they are applied, make thinking visible to learners, and thus facilitate learner engagement. Although originally intended to tackle conceptual knowledge, think charts and thinking routines can be very useful for language learning. To start with, their sequential aspect may provide structure for language tasks, helping learners to generate ideas and giving them a sense of purpose. But most importantly, all thinking implies language use and communication (e.g., for describing, building explanations and interpretations, wondering and asking questions, or summarizing). In brief, tools for scaffolded thinking can serve a double purpose: that of promoting a more personal engagement with course contents and methodologies, on the one hand, and that of facilitating and promoting communicative, purposeful language use, on the other hand.

Furthermore, a process-oriented syllabus allows for the introduction of a metacognitive focus, which could be done both as powerful content and through task design so as to help the target learners to become aware of, reflect on, and evaluate their own learning (Ellis, 2003). As a component of a key competence for lifelong learning ("5. Personal, social and learning to learn competence", Council of Europe, 2018b), learning to learn requires learners to "identify [their] capacities, […] deal with complexity, critically reflect and make decisions". This competence also includes "the ability to learn and work both collaboratively and autonomously and to organise and persevere with one's learning, evaluate and share it", as well as "seek support when appropriate" (2018, p. 10). To promote this competence, the tasks that make up the syllabus could be supported by checklists and rubrics which can be applied autonomously and collaboratively, which will require criteria to be "written in a format that can be understood and used independently by the learner" (Clark, 2009, p. 60). In addition, direct and indirect language learning strategies need to be given a prominent role in the syllabus. As Brown (2007) proposes, strategies can be taught by administering a strategy inventory. In the context of teacher education and with a view to promoting self-regulation, introducing a strategy inventory and designing tasks around it can serve the double purpose of raising awareness about ways to become more effective learners and of constituting meaningful content, as language learning becomes the content that is talked about (as Breen, 1985; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; in Ellis, 2003 propose).

D. Meaning-Focused Language Teaching

As opposed to the common instructional procedure popular in coursebook design which consists in following the present-practice-produce sequence or versions of it, a task-based approach to language teaching with a lexical strand creates the conditions for learners to express personal meanings. In task-based language teaching (TBLT), semantic and pragmatic meanings are primary. Drawing on Ellis's 2003 synthesis of previous definitions of the concept, a language task is a contextualized instructional activity or workplan designed to stimulate the pragmatic use of the foreign language for a clear and explicit communicative purpose, which does not consist merely in the comprehension or production of language itself. The task incorporates some type of information, opinion or reasoning gap that makes

communication necessary in any of its modes (comprehension, production, interaction, mediation). That is, tasks create the conditions for learners to "pay primary attention to message content and engage in language use" (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p. 136), as learners are not informed of a specific linguistic focus and thus are not required to concentrate on processing a preselected form or using it correctly, but are encouraged to rely on their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources.

TBLT is not just concerned with developing fluency: it also aims to develop learners' linguistic competence. Tasks are usually implemented as part of a sequence in which different opportunities for attention to form may be integrated: explicit instruction during task performance, consciousness raising tasks, noticing activities, or production-practice activities at a post-task stage (see Estaire & Zanón, 1994; Willis, 1996). The difference with traditional form-focused pedagogy is that now the language that is focused on is a language that is "relevant to learners and required for a communicative purpose, rather than introduced because a syllabus dictates that it should be covered at a particular point" (Skehan, 1998, p. 128). In addition, TBLT is compatible with a lexical syllabus (Willis, 1990) that prioritizes the formulaic, memory-based nature of language. The lexical strand can be used to serve a double purpose: it may translate into a focus on chunks and lexicalized expressions which facilitate fluent production but from which learners can also make generalizations about how language works, instead of spending time on form-focused practice. On the other hand, a lexical, discourse-based strand would be more effective for language learning with classroom practices that encourage noticing (Schmidt, 1990), that is, the conscious awareness of linguistic features.

As to assessment, since in TBLT there is no explicit presentation of grammar points that need to be practiced before they can be produced, "task accomplishment is to be assessed not in terms of whether learners use language correctly but in terms of whether the communicative outcome is achieved" (Ellis et al., 2020, p. 10). That is, there is no precise grammatical syllabus on which learners are to be tested but a performance that requires specific conditions to be met and which promote certain cognitive and linguistic processes conducive to language learning. Since success is determined in terms of whether learners are "capable of performing specific target tasks" (p. 20), it is our contention that this feature of TBLT may particularly be helpful in the mixed-ability context of teacher education, for the didactic sequence allows for integration of the scaffolding that may help all learners to potentially succeed. Another reason would be that focusing on task accomplishment lends itself very well to formative assessment: "After completing a task, learners can be guided to self-assess their own performance of it" (p. 21), thus helping learners to develop self-regulation. In addition, assessing a particular performance makes sense in the context of an undergraduate course, for which the system-referenced tests (Baker, 1989; in Ellis, 2003) for assessing language proficiency in official examinations prove inadequate (i.e., a general, system-reference test would measure a prior proficiency level rather than actual course accomplishment).

IV. Academic Context

In the basic disciplinary module of the curriculum of the Degree in Teaching in Infant Education of the University of Zaragoza (Spain), there are two 6-ECTS mandatory courses in EFL. The target students differ greatly in their English language competence level and have experienced grammar-focused practices in the previous education stages, in particular in non-compulsory secondary.

Since this curriculum was implemented for the first time in the academic year 2010-2011, building up an optimal syllabus for these EFL courses has been a concern in the Department of English and Germanic Philology in the Faculty of Education, in parallel to the process followed in the Degree in Teaching in Primary Education (see Delgado-Crespo et al., 2020). Some proposals have been made to combine the General English approach adopted by the vast majority of textbooks, official exams and EFL curricula in previous education stages, together with different kinds of response to the specific needs of the Infant Education teacher. Such proposals were typically focused on developing general language proficiency, with materials (i) lacking in a systematic approach to the phonological component of the English language; (ii) structured around a grammatical syllabus delivered through the traditional model of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), "which has increasingly proved inadequate to capture the complex reality of communication" (Council of Europe, 2018b, p. 30); and (iii) on topics related to infant education and education in general but treated as a theme which provides a context for a focus on language rather than as meaningful content. Such proposals also came with insufficient focus on developing self-directed learning and with testing oriented towards language competence rather than actual accomplishment.

V. Proposal

Only the first of the two courses mentioned above will be commented on here for brevity's sake. The table in the Appendix illustrates key features of the materials designed for this course, which is built around four topic-based modules and three workshops. For systematicity, the critical commentary is structured through Ellis and Shintani's validated principles or design features "motivated by SLA theory and research findings" (2014, pp. 22-27), and developed by establishing connections with the key issues introduced above.

Principle 1: Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence translates into the adoption of a lexical approach to complement the content-enhanced syllabus

proposed, since the focus on rules has been the norm in the previous educational stages. Learners are instructed to pay attention to chunks or phrases in the oral, written or multimodal texts they encounter in the course, note them down and retrieve them to support their production, interaction or mediation. An activity that is used specifically to promote retrieval is retelling. Throughout the course, several opportunities for retelling have been programmed: for example, in Module 2 learners are required to watch a cartoon episode, note lexical chunks and then retell the episode, using a retelling rope as scaffold.

Since the lexical strand of the syllabus is given prominence, the course includes a workshop on learning lexis. In this workshop students are provided with information about different types of lexical knowledge and pieces of information related to the form of a word that are necessary to use words and chunks (Nation, 2013), and asked to reflect on their vocabulary learning strategies and techniques to register, learn and retrieve lexical items. They are also instructed to build word networks, using a choice of categories, around the lexis they encounter in course materials. This semantic mapping is intended to help them process lexis with more breadth and depth, as they are also encouraged to make associations and provide personal, relevant meanings (e.g., childhood memories associated to a word or phrase). According to Hedge (2000), writing down words and chunks as they occur during lessons and building networks around them "can be used to establish and consolidate meaning, exploiting the natural strategy learners seem to use" (p. 126). This is a move away from the approach of standard English Language Teaching coursebooks, which adopt a more systematic but superficial treatment of lexis (usually through the mechanical present-practice-produce procedure) and which has not found much support in SLA research, since "learning is more effective when it involves deeper engagement with new words" (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p. 107).

Finally, a significant way in which the formulaic nature of much language has been foregrounded is through the rhymes, songs, traditional outdoor games, picture books and fairytales that are given a central role in the proposed syllabus. These oral, written or multimodal texts share characteristics like their use of formulaic language (e.g., starters and endings, refrains), lexical intensity (e.g. figurative language, similes), and repetition. Literary texts in particular are powerful content material that requires cognitive engagement. Two writers feature prominently in the proposal, Julia Donaldson and Michael Rosen. Together with Michael's Rosen creative bio, his poetry and his famous True or False one minute stories are explored through his videos[1], which facilitate attention to the formulaic nature of language and meaning-making features of multimodal texts such as facial expressions and other visual elements. The potential of the visual to generate meaning is also a powerful ingredient in the picture book that occupies a central space in the syllabus, Julia Donaldson's Charlie Cook's favourite book (2005). This circular book within a book, never ending rhyming story made out of different classical fairytales and children's fiction is used at some point as a textbook (to trigger communication and to focus on lexis and oral language through read aloud and pronunciation features). These kind of rich, relevant, authentic material provides learners with a repertoire of formulaic language, facilitates language awareness and can be very motivating, as it allows for the expression of personal meaning.

Principle 2: Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus on meaning is the rationale behind the content-enhanced approach which has been justified above. To this end, materials are built upon issues that are relevant to the infant teacher or to the language learner, as is the case with children's fiction. An example of this would be the task sequence in Module 3, in which learners are required to make up their own story, collaboratively in small groups, out of a number of key words and phrases taken from Michael Rosen's video retelling of the Indian folktale "The Raja's Big Ears", then tell the story to the class to finally check which version is closer to Rosen's. This creates a communicative purpose for listening to the story and ensures a focus on meaning.

Principle 3: Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form is implemented in two different ways. One way of focusing on form is through the present-practice-produce procedure which is here adopted to deal with pronunciation in connection to spelling in the context of the different oral, written and multimodal texts the course is built upon; that is, within a communicative framework (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). Focusing on some basic spelling and pronunciation rules to tackle vowel length may contribute to the target learners' intelligibility as, in accordance with the Lingua Franca Core (Jenkins, 2000), long-short differences between vowels is an area that requires error-free production. To this end, learners are provided with an interactive phonetic chart and a small number of basic spelling and pronunciation rules (i.e. CVC words, magic "e", controlling "r", etc.) which they are required to apply to identify vowel length, practice and produce it. This constitutes both language learning knowledge and skills but also specific disciplinary knowledge and skills for future infant teachers. Other Lingua Franca Core features that are integrated in the syllabus are nuclear stress placement and consonant clusters. Though traditional, the PPP procedure is integrated in communicative activities and tasks which are accompanied by self-assessment: many of the texts and tasks are followed by a focus on form stage where learners are required to find examples of and exceptions to those basic spelling and pronunciation rules and other pronunciation features. For example, the rhyming lines of Charlie Cook's favourite book are particularly useful to deal with consonant clusters that pose a problem to Spanish speakers: /sk/ /sp/ at the beginning of words and /st/ and regular past endings at the end.

The materials also integrate a reactive focus on form at a post-stage to help learners consolidate form-function mappings. For example, after a matching task on a text on ideas for outdoor learning in Module 4, learners are required

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[1] https://www.michaelrosen.co.uk/

to identify different structures in the text used to express purpose and, the other way round, they are required to identify the different functions of the imperative form that predominates in the text. Another example would be the discourse analysis activity, based on some YouTube comments, which students have to carry out after a listing task on a video that introduces Forest School (the outdoor children's education program originated in Scandinavia in the 1950s). They are guided to make form-function mappings in order to potentially improve their communicative effectiveness when commenting on education videos or replying to other people's comments. Yet another example in Module 4 is the activity that follows a compare and contrast Venn diagram task based on two different texts, formal and informal, which deal with the issue of advertising aimed at children. Students are required to focus on language form and lexis in connection to pragmatic function. This reactive focus on form involves guided discovery and can be said to be an interpretation task (Ellis & Shintani, 2014) since these practices "aim to help learners construct a form-function mapping but without formulating an explicit rule" (p. 91). In this way, "the emphasis is placed on simply inducing learners to pay attention to a particular feature in the input", rather than making them produce it, which SLA research recognizes as a valuable alternative procedure to focus on form.

Principle 4: Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge is the reason why the proposed syllabus is built upon communicative activities and language tasks. According to Ellis (2003) "[i]mplicit knowledge refers to that knowledge of language that a speaker manifests in performance but has no awareness of" (p. 105). As has been pointed out, this type of activity or workplan for learner activity prioritizes semantic and pragmatic meaning and it is not designed to make learners focus on practising or using specific linguistic forms or features, as they are "free to use their own resources" (p. 142). For example, Module 1 opens with a task called "Learning Languages" that makes us of an actual video commercial for an app for language learning. The video satirizes the traditional procedures of a learner that needs to make great efforts to learn a foreign language and the terrible things that happen to him because he is not using the said app. Learners are asked to watch the video and list all the things that happen to this poor traditional learner, for which they need to use their own linguistic resources, perhaps making use of chunks they pick up from the video. Next they are also asked to identify the audiovisual elements that are used in the commercial to produce the intended effect on the viewer. Implicit knowledge is the kind of knowledge developed as a result of participating in communicative activities. This is followed by a focus on form activity in which learners are required to note specific language chunks and pronunciation features. Implicit knowledge is the kind of knowledge developed as a result of participating in communicative activities such as these, but this sequence does not neglect explicit knowledge, which is introduced by the methodology, i.e., by answering students' questions and providing examples and/or metalinguistic explanations when necessary.

Principle 5: Instruction needs to take into account the order and sequence of acquisition is here used to justify the absence of situational grammar exercises, understood as those exercises that have been designed "to provide contextualized practice of a specific linguistic feature" (Elllis, 2003, p. 141) because "instruction generally does not change the natural sequence of acquisition" (Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p. 68). This means that instruction is potentially more effective if focused on helping learners to develop implicit knowledge via communicative practice. This takes us to *Principle 6: Successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input*, which in the syllabus translates into intramural and extramural access to rich and authentic input in the form of oral, written and multimodal texts which the lessons are built upon, together with other supplementary materials. For example, learners are required to design their own reading plan based on two different types of written texts: informational texts on EFL teaching and learning and children's education issues and concepts (e.g., an introduction to pronunciation, motivation in the language classroom, the Lexical Approach, introduction to process writing, or intercultural education) and creative texts in the form of children's poetry and picture books. Some of the texts of this reading plan require some self-assessment. Access to extensive L2 input also takes the form of a video bank on the topics dealt with in the course and from which exam tasks will be designed.

Principle 7: Successful instructed language learning also requires opportunities for output and *Principle 8: The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central do developing L2 proficiency* can be discussed together, as they both translate into communicative activities and tasks that are implemented using task-based pedagogy (Ellis, 2003). This means that learners are "able to control topic development" (p. 253) and turn-taking is regulated by speakers themselves, who function both in initiating and responding roles, using language for a wide range of language functions, negotiating meaning when necessary. The primary role of the teacher is that of supporting students to help them get their meanings across. To this end, informational feedback on students' productions is provided. It is supported by checklists and rubrics that focus primarily on task performance. For example, after a series of different tasks on traditional stories and fairytales in Module 3, learners are invited to cook up their own fairytale in teams and following the guidelines of a current British Library program which features Michael Rosen[2]. Learners are given support along the stages of the writing process, which includes different opportunities for production and in which they are also asked to edit and revise their own production, as well as peer edit the production of another team. According to the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995), this kind of output may help learners test their hypotheses about the L2, reflect consciously about L2 forms and notice their problems. The written story is then used for storytelling, followed by peer

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[2] https://www.bl.uk/childrens-books/activities/cook-up-your-own-fairy-tale

and teacher feedback focused on delivery and task completion, which includes story design features and language use for the intended effect.

Principle 9: Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners translates into the context of autonomy and self-directed learning resources and opportunities. It also takes the form of reflection on the learners' own language learning strategies that is triggered by class work on Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (1990). All throughout the course, students are directed to identify their strategy use and encouraged to try out new strategies. In addition, there is a session devoted to exploring motivation in the language classroom carried out after a brief lecture on Dörnyei's (2005) "L2 Motivational Self System". Learners are asked to map their possible L2 selves (Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self) and ideal language learning experience, to then identify specific actions they could take to become those possible selves and to improve their learning experience.

The subjective aspect pointed out by *Principle 10: Instruction needs to take account of the fact that there is a subjective aspect of learning a new language* is taken into account in different ways. One such way is by planning for personalization in tasks and activities, such as when students are invited to recall different types of childhood memory and through creative tasks such as storytelling or poem writing. An example of such a creative task is the writing of a protest poem after two sessions focused on gender stereotyping and intercultural education issues. In one such session an experiment is carried out in which learners are randomly paired with a classmate and asked to make assumptions about this person without speaking to them. This is followed by an interview to find out if such assumptions make sense or are just an example of superficial judgement. Learners are then encouraged to write the protest poem that connects superficial observation and stereotyping. As many of the tasks described above, these tasks are also cognitively challenging. For this reason, learners are provided with think charts and thinking routines that help them generate, focus and organize their ideas. For example, in the assumptions task above, learners are encouraged to make use of a chart to note down their observations, the evidence that supports such observations, and their partners' comments and answers in the interview.

Finally, *Principle 11: In assessing learners' L2 proficiency it is important to examine free as well as controlled production* is a key design feature adopted for their oral communication skills test in particular. This test has two parts. In the first one, students are required to pronounce words and chunks and read aloud fragments from poems in their text bank which contain pronunciation features that have been focused on in the course. The second part is a communicative activity. Taking into account both that oral communication skills do not seem to be a priority in the previous education stage and that it is the source of much learner anxiety, this activity is given prominence all throughout the course. A key feature of this activity is that it takes the form a well-defined language task built upon the VT routine for introducing and exploring ideas called "See-Think-Wonder". This routine "emphasizes the importance of observation as the basis for the thinking and interpretation step that follows the close looking" (Ritchhart et al., 2011, p. 55). The task is prompted by two images that illustrate issues related to any of the course topics. It consists in identifying a course topic and then using the stems "I can see… I think… I wonder" to describe one of the images, interpret it, and finally express some wondering in connection to it. This is to be followed by some teacher-prompted interaction on the issues brought up by the students. Sometimes responses need to be scaffolded with extra prompts. Some other times this is unnecessary: students have been working on these issues throughout the course, so they can draw on their repertoire of ideas and lexical units. In addition, the students have access to an image bank from which images for the test are taken. Besides, at the beginning of the course they are also provided with a cheat sheet with useful language to carry out description, speculation and wondering. To sum up, the design of the task allows for both controlled and free production. In addition, a rubric describing three levels of attainment in four different categories (task completion; fluency, cohesion and coherence; interactive communication and content; correctness and complexity) and written in student-friendly language is shared and used in the course. In this way, the oral communication skill test is oriented towards task accomplishment, rather than measuring language proficiency. It is our contention that this task constitutes optimal cognitive and linguistic challenge.

Other assessment tasks are also focused on accomplishment. This is why learners are tested on the specific knowledge and skills that are targeted in the course. For example, they need to carry out similar comprehension, production or mediation tasks, based on the specific course topics and on texts included in their text and video banks. There are also some traditional discrete item activities (e.g. multiple choice, matching, identifying, fill in gaps) but always focused on the specific lexis or pronunciation features of the course. In addition, one of the assessment tasks is focused on their learning to learn knowledge and skills (for example, identifying specific comprehension subskills and learning strategies and building a word network).

VI. CONCLUSION

A proposal has been put forward to respond to the actual and future specific linguistic and communicative needs of the target undergraduate students. It has been argued that a needs-based ESP syllabus built upon situational activities and a precise language syllabus is too limited because it does not allow learners to express personal meanings, is cognitively undemanding, and leaves little room for individually-established learning paths and aims, since the emphasis is placed on the language itself and accountability. By contrast, a content-enhanced language course inspired

on the key features of CLIL, that is, contextualized content, cognition, communication and culture, promotes learner motivation and self-directed learning and provides authenticity and relevance.

This proposal is informed by validated SLA principles and integrates a focus on cognition: different resources are used to provide scaffolded thinking to engage with content with some depth and breadth, and to facilitate the kind of mental processes that promote language learning. Through work on strategy use and tools such as checklists and rubrics, target learners are encouraged to become aware of, reflect on, and evaluate their own learning with a view to promoting self-regulation.

On the other hand, the instructional design around language tasks and rich, authentic, relevant materials, together with the lexical strand added to the syllabus, create the conditions for a focus on meaning and communication, as opposed to traditional form-focused pedagogy that is still paramount in ELT coursebooks. The development of linguistic competence is promoted reactively, through the different opportunities for attention to language form that are integrated in the task sequences, on the one hand, and through a deductive approach to selected pronunciation features. This is both necessary knowledge and skills for the target learners (as pronunciation tends to be disregarded in the previous educational stage), but also specific disciplinary knowledge and skills for infant teachers.

As to assessment, it is addressed in terms of whether communicative outcomes have been achieved and through the performance of specific target tasks, as well as through demonstration of learning of specific course contents and skills, rather than in terms of language proficiency. Finally, this proposal needs to be understood as work in progress but is intended to open windows onto possibilities and encourage teacher trainers to rethink the language syllabus for specific purposes in the context of teacher education.

APPENDIX. SELECTED CONTENTS FROM 26511 INGLÉS EN EDUCACIÓN INFANTIL I

MODULES	CELT TOPICS	COGNITION	COMMUNICATION	CULTURE
1. Learning and teaching	Learning languages Whole Brain Teaching Learning experiences Teaching experiences Intercultural education Stereotypes and assumptions	*What makes you say this?* VT routine *See-Think-Wonder* VT routine Oxford's (1990) SILL Giving peer feedback Comprehension subskills	Pragmatic meaning in an app commercial Mediating a technical text Mediating a funny teacher story Collaborative writing of a funny story Writing a protest poem	Assumptions based on quick impressions Redraw the Balance: Gender stereotypes at Junior School
2. Children's games	Table games Outdoor games: "What's the Time, Mr. Wolf", at the playground	*Think-Pair-Share* VT routine *See-Think-Wonder* VT routine Comprehension subskills	Generating and ranking criteria to choose a table game Retelling a narrative cartoon episode and a playground anecdote Writing directions to play an outdoor game Mapping form and function	Traditional table and outdoor games
3. Children's literature	Classic fairy tales Picture books: *Charlie Cook's Favourite Book* (Donaldson 2005) Children's writers: Meet children's laureate, Michael Rosen Cooking up a fairy tale	Investigating Fairy tales think chart Fairy tale mashup think chart Comprehension subskills Writing as process Self-assessment, peer-editing and assessment	Writing and retelling a fairy tale mashup Retelling childhood memories Retelling a narrative video Read aloud Putting up a creative bio Putting up a story together ("The Raja's Big Ears") Storytelling	Classic children's literature Visual literacy The journey of a story across cultures: The Raja's Big Ears
4. Health, emotional development and safety	Children and nature: Last child in the woods (forest schools) Consumerism: Consuming kids; Kids and advertising	*See-Think-Wonder* VT routine *Think-Puzzle-Explore* VT routing *Think-Pair-Share* VT routine Venn diagram Comprehension subskills Investigating commercials think chart Peer-assessment	Retelling a childhood anecdote Writing and critically analysing a YouTube comment Relaying information: Critical analysis of a TV commercial	Children's (lost) connection with nature. Alternative education (Forest school) Digital discourse Marketing to children
WORKSHOPS				
Learning languages (I)	Learning strategies	Investigating own learning strategies think chart Self- and peer-assessment	Collaborative mediation activity of a technical text: short informational text on learning languages	Identity and self-directed learning
Learning languages (II)	Motivation (Dörnyei 2005)	Mapping possible L2 selves and ideal learning experience think chart	Mediating an academic text	Identity: possible selves in L2 learning (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience)
Learning lexis	Understanding vocabulary: Semantic mapping and other vocabulary learning strategies and tools (Hedge 2000)	Mapping own vocabulary learning strategies Word networking	Mediating an academic text	Self-directed learning
Pronunciation workshop	Understanding pronunciation (Hewings 2004) Basic spelling and pronunciation rules	Pronunciation think chart	Mediating an academic text	Self-directed learning

Source: Own elaboration

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Challenges in Translating Puns in Some Selections of Arabic Poetry Into English

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Abstract—**The present study investigates the challenges translators may face when translating pun expressions in some selections found in Arabic poetry into English. The study examines the strategies employed to translate puns, the choice of pun's sense, and the perseverance of the aesthetic function of puns in English. The study analyses the translation of a sample of ten Arabic-English puns by twenty-five MA translation students grounded on Delabastita's (1993) model, the graded salience hypothesis and back-translation method. The study has revealed that the familiarity of the pun's overt meaning and the ignorance of its covert one constitute a major challenge for inadequately translating puns, thereby distorting the pun's aesthetic function in the target text. Two out of Delabastita's translation strategies are shown to be employed in the translation of the given puns, among which pun to non- pun is the most prevalent one. The study has suggested editorial techniques and related rhetorical device as a potential means for adequately rendering the respective puns.**

Index Terms—**puns, challenges, Arabic, English, translation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation can be viewed in terms of grasping the meaning of a certain text to produce an equivalent text in another language. Translators' mission mainly involves communicating the intended idea and function of the source text (henceforth ST) into the target text (henceforth TT). Catford (1965, p. 20) believes that "translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)". Therefore, translation is a creative process in transferring texts from one language to another. However, Nida (1975, p. 27) assumes that all types of translation lead to loss, addition, or skewing of information. In fact, there are no identical languages and thus the translators' task to transfer the exact meaning from the source text to the target text tends to be challenging. Different opinions about gain and loss of translation appear greatly. On the one hand, some translation theorists believe that translation absolutely represents a gain for the target culture and readers, as it can at times enrich the SLT owing to the translation process. On the other hand, some translators believe that no translation completely conveys features of STs. Accordingly; it is expected from the translators to cause some losses and gains in TTs resultant from the translation process.

Translating poetry poses various challenges for the translators due to its aesthetic and expressive properties. Hariyanto (2003, p. 1) asserts that "translating literary works like poetry is, perhaps, always more difficult than translating other types of text".

The current study is an attempt to study the translation of pun in some selections of Arabic poetry. In Arabic, pun refers to a word with a dual meaning, the close meaning and the far meaning. The speaker, in fact, intends to denote the far meaning, but the close meaning is usually the sooner that comes to the listener's mind. In the field of translation, pun is a rhetorical device that causes more difficulty in translating poetry. Al Shra'ah (2011, p. 60) argues that the existence of pun in any text leads to problematic issues in translation due to the cultural and linguistic differences between languages. Thus, the primary concern of the present study will be the translation of pun in poetry since it creates a serious problem for translators.

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II. Theoretical Background

A. Puns in Arabic and English

The meaning of pun in English is slightly different from its meaning in Arabic. In English, pun is a standard rhetorical or poetic device, and it is one of the earliest figures of speech. It refers to a word that suggests two or several meanings, or it refers to words that sound alike in pronunciation, but they have different spellings and meanings. According to Sherzer (1978, p. 336), " pun is a form of speech play in which a word or phrase unexpectedly and simultaneously combines two unrelated meanings".

On the other hand, the Arabic equivalent for the English term pun is "Al-Tawriyah التورية". Matloob (1980, p. 298) shows other names for "Al-Tawriyah التورية" such as التخييل ، التوجيه and المغالطة. Equally, Al-Azhari (2001, p. 15, 221) maintains that pun is derived from the verb (وَرى) which means "to hide something and show something else". In Arabic, "Al-Tawriyah التورية" emerges from the science of rhetoric that uses words in a certain way to speak and write effectively.

One of the clearest definitions of "Al-Tawriyah التورية" is expressed by Abd Al-Tawwab's (1967, p. 293) who defines it as a word which has two meanings: Adjacent with clear reference, and far with hidden reference. The latter is often intended. The faster that comes to the hearer's mind is the approximate meaning. The speaker aims at the far meaning but uses the near one to cover it.

Therefore, when the speaker uses "Al-Tawriyah التورية", s/he wants to make the listener think that the speaker tries to indicate the close meaning. In Arabic, the close meaning or the overt one is called the punned with (al-muwarra bihi الموری به), and the far meaning or the covert one is called the punned to (al-muwarra anhu الموری عنه). In point of fact, the use of "Al-Tawriyah التورية" dates back to ancient days. It has been widely used in Arabic texts including the Holy Qur'an, hadith and poetry.

B. Translation of Pun

Several studies have handled the translation of puns from Arabic into English. Al-Homoud (2007) studies the translatability of polysemic pun in the poetry of Ahmad Matar. The study concentrates on the interaction between Arabic and English when translating the polysemic pun. The researcher translates and analyses thirty polysemic puns taken from Ahmad Matar's seven collections "Lāfitāt لافتات". Homoud finds out that the poet is the one who grants the polysemic pun its role, function, and effect in the texts. Therefore, s/he prepares the whole context in order to support the existence of this figure of speech. Furthermore, Homoud asserts that many polysemic puns are successfully translated into English despite the difference in origin between Arabic and English.

Al Shra'ah (2011) studies the translatability of pun in Kamal Nusairt's sarcastic articles from Arabic into English. The researcher finds out that the selected puns are not rendered successfully into English due to the essential differences between Arabic and English, the translators' unawareness of the writer's intention in SL, and the loss of pun sense in TL. Moreover, his study reveals that the translators use four strategies in order to render puns into English, namely: literal translation, paraphrasing, functional translation, and a combination of literal translation.

Wu and Pan (2012) prove that creating a similar pun in the TL is impossible due to the three traditional principles of faithfulness, smoothness, and elegance. Nevertheless, this, from their perspectives, does not mean that pun is untranslatable, but it is necessary to drop something so as to preserve the other more important parts. Their study put forwards the rewriting and adding footnotes methods, which are widely used in pun's translation, as the ones that could better convey the original information to the TL.

In this regard, Delabastita (1993) presents nine strategies for translating pun expressions in any text. These strategies are investigated by Zhang et al. (2014) in English-Chinese translation. They choose 121 puns from Shakespeare's Sonnets and their nine Chinese translations. The study finds that four out of nine strategies of Delabastita's approach are used to translate the 121 puns from Shakespeare's sonnets, which are pun-pun strategy, pun to non-pun strategy, zero translation and editorial techniques.

Mehawesh et al. (2020) examine the problems and the strategies associated with translating puns in three novels from English into Arabic based on Delabastita's (2004) model. The study shows that pun-to-non-pun is found to be the main strategy used by the translators as they tend to translate puns literally. Their findings show that translating pun from English into Arabic is challenging since puns present two or more different meanings that cannot be shown in the target language text as well as "no translation of the puns is given due to the fact that two words or meanings do not have the same phonetic representations in Arabic". Consequently, Mehawesh et al. (2020) suggest using different tactics to reproduce the pun that is parallel to the one in the source language.

Furthermore, Al Aqad et al. (2017) investigate the problems of translating puns in the Glorious Qur'an into English depending on four English translators; Yusuf Ali (2014), Pickthall (1963, 2011), Arberry (1991), and Shakir (1999). Al Aqad et al. infer that the Qur'anic verses are rich of puns that pose a serious problem for the translators who need to catch the deep meaning of the puns in order to render their intended meaning effectively. Thus, according to their findings, the selected translators do not translate puns in the Holy Quran adequately as they use literal, formal, and paraphrase strategies.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Pun leads to an ambiguity in the texts because it carries two meanings in its basic concept. Therefore, using pun in any text poses a serious challenge to the translators who try to relay it into another language. As a matter of fact, many professional translators often fail to translate pun due to the basic differences between Arabic and English in pun expression (Al shra'ah, 2011). Different studies have shown that pun causes many challenges for the translator who may translate it incorrectly into the target language (Hathat & Hemim, 2016; Al-Kharabsheh & Houji, 2019; Weissbord, 1996). Accordingly, translating pun from Arabic into English raises several problems for the translators who make an attempt to translate it.

IV. OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

1. Investigating the challenges of translating pun expressions in some selections of Arabic poetry into English.
2. Identifying the Delabastita's strategies employed to translate the source text puns into English.
3. Revealing the type of pun's sense chosen when translated into English.
4. Revealing if the aesthetic features of puns in Arabic poetry are lost when rendered into English.

V. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Several studies have handled the translation of puns from Arabic into English. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, none has been devoted to the challenges and problems that the translators may face when translating puns in selections of Arabic poetry into English. Accordingly, the significance of the current study stems from the fact that it is the first that tackles the challenges and problems in translating puns in poetry from Arabic into English. Additionally, what distinguishes the current study is that it does not depend on authoritative translators to translate the selected Arabic poetry, instead it relies on postgraduates specialized in translation at four universities of Jordan, namely, Hashemite University, University of Jordan, Yarmouk University, and University of Petra. Addressing such challenges can offer a necessary insight for those interested in the field of translating Arabic poetry, by virtue of which, they can avoid translation loss or distortion of the speaker's intention. Furthermore, taking into account that misunderstanding puns leads to a misrepresentation of the intended meaning, the translators must then be aware of these challenges for the sake of overcoming them during the translation process.

VI. METHODOLOGY

A. Sample of the Study

The sample of the present study consists of twenty-five respondents from the MA translation students at the universities of Jordan. These universities are Hashemite University, University of Jordan, Yarmouk University, and University of Petra. The respondents are of the same academic level. Their ages range between twenty-four and twenty-six. In addition, they are twenty-two female students and three male students.

B. Data Collection

For the purposes of the current study, ten Arabic pun quotes are chosen randomly from some selections of Arabic poetry. Some of the selected poetic lines have been so widely circulated among those interested in the aesthetics of Arabic for a long time without attributing them to their poets. Thus, the researchers document the data of the current study according to their online resources. Subsequently, the researchers rely heavily on Al-Saffar's (2014) website to choose most of the verses presented in the current study since this website shows numerous verses containing puns that are listed under the title 'Al-Tawriyah التورية'. However, the other poetic lines are selected from various resources, each of which is placed prior to a verse under analysis.

C. Procedures

In order to fulfil the aims of the current study, a questionnaire containing ten Arabic poetic lines are distributed to the respondents who are then asked to translate only the underlined pun expressions shown in each line. The researchers intend to present full poetic lines for the respondents whereby the context appears evidently obvious to them. Furthermore, the respondents are allowed to use dictionaries, without assigning a specific time for them to translate the punning words under question.

D. Data Analysis

In order to examine if the respondents render the puns under investigation adequately, the Delabastita's (1993) model, the graded salience hypothesis (GSH), and the back-translation method are purposefully employed by the researchers to interpret and analyse the translations of the respondents.

E. Delabastita's Model

The researchers intend to analyse the translation strategies used to translate puns under investigation in accordance with Delabastita's (1993, pp. 191-218) nine strategies. He proposes nine different strategies specifically designed for translating puns. Translators tend to use one of the following strategies when translating pun expressions:

1. Pun-to-pun means that the pun in the ST is translated into a TT pun which may or may not have different properties from the original pun.

2. Pun to non-pun is the second strategy in which the ST pun is translated into a non-punning word or phrase in the TT.

3. Pun to related rhetorical device. In this strategy, the translator recognizes the pun in the ST, as s/he tries to convey the effect of ST pun by using another rhetorical device, such as repetition, assonance, rhyme, irony, alliteration, referential vagueness, paradox, etc.

4. Pun-to-zero strategy is when the translator simply omits the pun in the TT.

5. Direct copy means that the translator copies the ST pun in its original formulation without translating it.

6. The transference strategy is similar to the direct copy. The difference is that the transference strategy imposes source language signified on a target language text, while the method of direct copy brings the original signifiers into the TTs without any necessary concern about its meaning.

7. Non-pun-to pun means that a new pun is inserted in the TT which does not exist in the ST to make up the loss of those puns that the translator is unable to translate in their original position.

8. Zero-to-pun is the eighth strategy in which a new pun, whose counterpart in the ST is impossible to find, is added in the TT.

9. Editorial techniques include footnotes, endnotes, translator's published papers or articles, comments provided in translator's forewords, and addition of a descriptive phrase within the text. Such techniques are distinguished by using square brackets, italics, etc.

F. The Graded Salience Hypothesis (GSH)

According to GSH, the listeners/readers of pun expressions are more likely to grasp the overt meaning because of their familiarity with it. This could be a good reason for the translators to convey the overt meaning into the other language. Giora (1997, p. 185) maintains that "if a word has two meanings that can be retrieved directly from the lexicon, the meaning more popular, or more prototypical, or more frequently used in a certain community is more salient. The graded salience hypothesis, according to Giora (1997, p. 200), states that the salient meaning is always processed and grasped initially. From her perspective (1997, p. 186), there is a limited role for the context according to the graded salience hypothesis. This entails that "even when the context is supportive, then, salient meanings cannot be bypassed."

In this respect, Kecskes (2012, pp. 249-250) argues that "the most salient meaning of a word or utterance is always activated, and is always activated initially". He thus believes that the more salient the meaning is, the more difficult it would be to deny it as being the intended meaning.

Furthermore, the GSH, as indicated by Zheng et al. (2020, p. 2), assumes that "the salient meaning is invariantly processed faster than the less salient ones". Even if the less salient meaning is strongly supported by the context, the salient meaning still cannot be skipped. Moreover, the researchers connect this approach to puns. They claim that if there is a pun expression, and its two meanings are similarly supported by the context, the GSH predicts earlier grasp of the salient meaning than the less salient one.

Thereupon, the researchers intend to employ this hypothesis in the current study as an explanation for the MA translation students' ability to convey the overt meanings of the puns. This follows that the student's familiarity with the puns under investigation justifies the students' tendency, if found, to translate the overt meaning of these puns.

G. Back-Translation Method

Paegelow (2008, p. 22) defines back-translation method as a "practice of taking a translated document and translating it back into the original language as a means of checking the accuracy of the translation". Thus, the translated text and the back-translated text are compared to examine the differences and compatibility existing between them. Translators usually tend to use this method in order to test the accuracy of their translations. This accords with Khosravani and Hossein (2013, p. 366) who argue that "back-translation is a common technique to assess the accuracy of translation".

By the same token, Baker (2011, p. 8) regards back-translation as a way to translate the target text back into the source language. She believes that the purpose of back-translation is to grant the translators some insight into aspects of the structure of the target text, which is not the same as the original.

For the purposes of the current study, the back-translation method is adopted so as to test the differences and compatibility existing between ST puns and their equivalents in the TT. In other words, the researchers intend to utilize this method in the selected poetic lines in order to test the correctness and accuracy of the respondents' translations.

VII. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

The first example relates to Hafeth Ibrahim. Hafeth Ibrahim is called the poet of the Nile and the poet of the people. He had a good relationship with Ahmad Shawqi. Hussein (1933, 2014, p. 136) indicates the close relationship between

the two poets. Shawqi and Hafeth used to meet and have discussions from time to time. Once, Hafeth contemplated the gloomy face of Ahmed Shawqi, and wanted to relieve him. So, he said offhand the below poetic line (Al-Saffar, 2014):

Example 1:

ST: يقولونَ إنَّ الشوقَ نارٌ ولوعةٌ   فمَا بالُ **شَوقِي** اليومَ أصبحَ بارِدًا

TT: They say that longing is anguish and like fire.

So, why is (_____) so cold nowadays?

When considering the given poetic line, the pun expression falls in the word شَوقِي (shawqi) because it holds two different meanings. The poet exploits the nature of this lexical item for its ability to be used as a common noun and as a proper noun as well. The word شَوقِي (shawqi) has an overt meaning which is not intended, but which the lay-reader can easily understand as '*longing*'. It has also a covert meaning which turns out to be the intended one, and which refers to '*the well-known Arab poet's name, Ahmad Shawqi*'. Through examining the previous line and its context, one can notice that the pun's overt meaning is supported by a contextual clue represented by the word الشوقَ which precedes the pun word. Thus, the word شَوقِي (shawqi) can be considered an example of pun termed in Arabic as Al-Tawriyah Al-Murashahah.

The data shows that the respondents use pun to non-pun strategy to translate this punning word into English where the word شَوقِي (shawqi) is rendered into '*my longing, my yearning, my eagerness, craving, and missing*'. Nevertheless, these renditions result in loss of meaning owing to the respondents' failure to capture the connection existing between the word شَوقِي (shawqi) and the name of the poet's friend. This inability to render the given pun adequately stems, as suggested by GSH, from their familiarity with the overt sense of the pun under question which specifically refers to the literal meaning '*longing*'.

From the researcher's point of view, the pun in this verse could be best rendered by opting for editorial techniques such as footnotes, endnotes, or addition of a descriptive phrase within the text. The pun شَوقِي (shawqi) could thus be translated as the following:

TT: They say that longing is anguish and like fire.

Why has **Shawqi [the name of the poet, Ahmad Shawqi whose last name literally means my earning/longing/desire]** become cold nowadays?

The second example relates to Ahmad Shawqi who speaks to Hafeth Ibrahim in the next verse. He wanted to take revenge on him because of his previous words. Therefore, Shawqi's reply was very painful in order to show that he is not a cold person, but rather has the power of stinging. This reply is stated below as follows: (Al-Saffar, 2014):

Example 2:

ST: وحَمَّلتُ إنسانًا وكلبًا أَمانةً   فَضيَّعها الإنسانُ والكلبُ **حافِظْ**

TT: I asked a human and a dog to bear a trust.

The human betrayed it, and the dog (_____)

The aforementioned example involves a pun in the word حافِظْ (hafeth), as its basic concept can be exploited as an adjective or as a proper noun. Consequently, the word حافِظْ (hafeth), in the previous line, holds an overt meaning, i.e., '*keeper*' which easily comes to the reader's mind, but which is not the intended one. Moreover, it has a covert meaning, i.e., '*the name of the poet of the Nile, Hafeth Ibrahim*' which is intended by the poet. The previous verse has a contextual clue that gives rise to the overt meaning which is meant to increase its ambiguity and to distract the readers' attention from its possible covert meaning. The contextual clue here appears in the word فَضيَّعها (*daya'aha: lost/betrayed*) that directly precedes the punning word, and which is then a type of Al-Tawriyah Al-Murashahah. However, the translators who have a good background on the relationship between Hafeth Ibrahim and Ahmad Shawqi might be more aware of the poet's intention behind using the word حافِظْ (hafeth).

The analysis of the data indicates that the pun to non-pun is the solely strategy used by the respondents to translate the aforementioned pun. However, none of the respondents could realize the intended meaning of the pun under analysis in this example (i.e., *the name of the poet of the Nile, Hafeth Ibrahim)*. Indeed, they tend to interpret it as a common noun, as an adjective or as an imperative verb rather than as a proper name. This is indicated by the fact that five of the respondents render neither its overt meaning nor its covert meaning, instead they translate it into '*faithful and saver'*, thereby causing a complete loss of the pun's intended meaning. While twenty of the respondents render the word حافِظْ (hafeth) into '*keeper, keep it, guard, and guardian'*. The respondents opt for these translations since the overt meaning of the word حافِظْ (hafeth) is the one that comes first to their mind in addition to the mutability of contexts in which the word حافِظْ (hafeth) can be used in Arabic. Still, these respondents' interpretations partially fail to express the intended meaning of the pun. Moreover, the ambiguity that the pun حافِظْ (hafeth) holds disappears in the TT, thereby leading to the loss of its function.

Accordingly, the punning expression حافِظْ (hafeth), from the researchers' perspective, could be best rendered by using the editorial techniques strategy, yielding the following interpretation:

TT: I asked a human and a dog to bear a trust.

The human betrayed it, and the dog is **Hafeth [the name of the poet, Hafeth Ibrahim whose first name literally means keeper/ guard/ guardian].**

The third example relates to a poetic line containing a pun expression said by Nasir al-Din Al-Hamamy who is one of the poets of the first Mamluk era and his name and poetry can be found in various types of books such as literature,

history, biography and criticism (Abdel-Rahim, 2013, p. 946). Let us consider the following verse said by him (Al-Saffar, 2014):

Example 3:

ST: جُودوا لنسجَعَ بالمديـح على غُلاكم سَرْمَدا   فالطيرُ أحسن ما تغرّدُ عند ما يقَعُ **النَّدي**

TT: Be generous, and let us praise your highness permanently, as the bird sings the

Most beautiful tweets when the (_____) falls.

Prior et al. (2011, p. 94) state that the ambiguous word exists in natural languages at the semantic level. This kind of ambiguity appears in a word that carries more than one meaning with the same or different parts of speech. Consequently, the word النَّدى (annada) shown in the previous line is regarded as an ambiguous word since it holds two different meanings simultaneously. It's overt/ near meaning that comes faster to the hearer's mind is '*dew*', the drops of water that fall in the early morning. While it's covert/ far meaning is '*generosity*'. When reading the previous line closely, one can observe that the contextual clues exemplified by the expressions الطيرُ (*bird*), تغرّدُ (*tweets*), and يقَعُ (*falls*) supports the near meaning of the word النَّدى (annada), thus leading the reader/listener to think that the intended meaning of the pun is '*dew*'. Prior et al. (2011, p. 94) also believe that the linguistic context in which the ambiguous word appears has an important role to realize the intended meaning. However, the linguistic context does not help the translators in the case of the existence of pun because the poet may use a contextual clue that supports the overt meaning of the pun in order to distract the reader from the intended meaning as is the case of the given pun in the previous example.

Analysing the respondents' translations of the pun under question, it is found that twenty-four of the respondents use pun to non-pun strategy to translate this punning word into English. The respondents render the given pun as '*dew, water drops, and raindrops*' which reflect the surface meaning of the intended pun, but is far from the poet's intention. This follows that, from the perspective of GSH, the familiarity of the overt meaning of the word النَّدى (annada) motivates the respondents to yield such interpretations. Yet, these translations loose the covert, intended meaning of the punning word النَّدى (annada), leading to distort the intention meant behind employing it in this context. However, only one of the respondents manages to convey the intended meaning of the pun i.e. '*generosity*' into the target text.

From the researchers' point of view, the punning word النَّدى (annada) could be best rendered using pun to related rhetorical device whereby the translator seeks to convey the effect of ST pun. Alliteration is the best rhetorical device that could be used in this example. Benczes (2013, p. 6) demonstrates that alliteration "is a very handy tool for foregrounding the initial sounds of the words to achieve emphasis and to aid memorability". In the previous verse, the first word in the poetic line '**جُودوا**' can be exploited to create alliteration with the pun word النَّدى (annada), as they represent the same meaning but with different parts of speech. Thus, the pun النَّدى (annada) could be translated as '*generosity*' to create an alliteration with the first word in the poetic line '*be generous'.*

TT: Be generous, and let us praise your highness permanently, as the bird sings the

most beautiful tweets when it sees **generosity**.

The fourth example relates to a poetic line containing a punning word said by Judge Ayyad (Al-Azrari, 1987). Judge Ayyad in the verse below described a cold summer by saying:

Example 4:

ST: كأن كانون أهدى من ملابسه   لشهر تموز ألوائًا من الخُلل

أو **الغَزالة** من طول المدى خَرفت   فما تُفرق بين الجَدي والحَمل

TT: As if December has gifted July with its richly coloured clothes,

Or the long absence has demented the (_____) rendering it

incapable of differentiating between a Capricorn and Aries.

The previous poetic line involves three pun expressions which are الغَزالة (alghazalah), الجَدي (aljadi), and الحَمل (alhaml). The respondents are asked to translate only the punning word الغَزالة (alghazalah). These three expressions denote two different meanings in their basic concepts since الغَزالة (alghazalah), الجَدي (aljadi), and الحَمل (alhaml) bear the overt meanings that refer to three kinds of animals. However, their covert meanings do not reflect the poet's intention as indicated by the first poetic line that supports the intention of deploying the covert meanings of the punning expressions under question. Thus, the covert meaning of الغَزالة (alghazalah) is the sun, الجَدي (aljadi) is Capricorn, which is the sign of the cold, and الحَمل (alhaml) is the Aries, which is the sign of the warmth.

The data shows that all the respondents opt for pun to non-pun strategy to render the punning expression in this example. They translate pun الغَزالة (alghazalah) into '*deer, gazelle, doe, hind, and reindeer*' which only sign the overt meaning of this punning expression. However, none of these translations bear the intended meaning of the respective pun which is embodied in the covert sense of the word الغَزالة (alghazalah) (i.e., *the sun*) in this verse.

From the researchers' point of view, the given pun is suggested to be translated by using pun to non-pun strategy along with explicating the intended meaning of the word الغَزالة (alghazalah), i.e., '*the sun*' as shown below:

TT: As if December has gifted July with its richly colored clothes,

Or the long absence has demented **the sun** rendering it

Incapable of differentiating between a Capricorn and Aries.

According to Chao and Xinghua (2013, p. 666) "appropriate use of ambiguity and puns can enrich language and make language more vivid and appealing." However, this claim cannot be applicable in the case of the given pun since

the ambiguity of the pun الغَزالة (alghazalah) disappears due to the translation process, and thus the pun loses these features that help enrich the target language.

The fifth example relates to a poetic line containing a punning expression said by the poet, Ibn Al-Rabi' (Curricula of Al-Madinah International University, 2012).

Example 5:

ST: لولا التطيّر بالخلاف وأنّهم   قالوا: مريضٍ لا يَعود مَريضا
لقضَيت نَحبي في جنابِك خدمةً لأكونَ **مَندوبًا** قَضى مَفروضَا

TT: Had it not been for the pessimism towards conflict and receiving criticism for not visiting the ill, I would have been willing to be (_____) as a humble servant of your highness.

This context shows the occurrence of the word مَندوبًا (manduban) which is a pun that has a double meaning simultaneously. The meaning that comes first to the reader's mind (i.e., the near meaning) is '*the delegate, who is appointed to do a juridical rule*', whereas its far meaning is '*the dead who is mourned by people*'. Taking into account the context of the given poetic lines, it is obvious that the expression (*mafrudan: ultimate obligation*) guides the reader/listener to recognize that the poet doesn't mean the near meaning of the given pun but rather its far meaning.

The data shows that the respondents choose to translate the given pun into a non-punning word in the target text where they render the word مَندوبًا (manduban) into '*delegate, deputy, servant, and representative*'. These results suggest that the respondents focus on the overt meaning of the respective, thereby failing to reflect its intended covert sense in the previous poetic lines.

According to Delabastita's (1993) nine strategies, the researchers suggest using pun to non-pun strategy to translate the given pun through which its covert meaning is explicated as '*die and being mourned*' as indicate below:

TT: Had it not been for the pessimism towards conflict and receiving criticism for not visiting the ill, I would have been willing to **die and being mourned** as a humble servant of your highness.

The sixth example relates to poetic lines stated by Ahmad Shawqi (Al-Saffar, 2014). These poetic lines are meant to express the poet's love, estrangement and nostalgia for Egypt where he deploys a pun within these poetic lines as stated below:

Example 6:

ST: وَطَني لَو شُغِلْتُ بالخُلْدِ عَنه   نَازَعَتْني إلَيْه في الخُلْدِ نَفْسِي
وَهَفا بالفؤادِ في سَلْسَبيلٍ   ظَمَأً **للسَّوادِ** من عَيْنِ شَمْس

TT: If I neglected my homeland because of my preoccupation with eternity, myself Would prevent me from doing so. My heart longs to quench its intense thirst by seeing (_____) of Ain Shams.

The pun expression in this context is embodied in the word سَّواد (sawad). The basic concept of this word bears two different meanings at the same time. The near meaning refers to '*blackness*' which can thus be easily comprehended by the reader. The far meaning refers to '*suburb*'. The poet in this context employs the word عَيْن شَمْس (*Ain Shams*), which is an area in Egypt, as a contextual clue that supports the covert meaning of the given pun.

Considering the respondents' translations, it is shown that the given pun is translated through using pun to non-pun strategy where twenty-three of the respondents render the pun سَّواد (*sawad*) as' *darkness, blackness, black, and night*'. This suggest that the respondents interpret the given pun merely according to its overt meaning, while neglecting its covert meaning that manifest the poet's actual intention. However, two of the respondents manage to grasp one of the covert senses meant by the given pun as they translate it as '*outskirts and suburbs*'.

The given pun سَّواد (sawad), from the researchers' view, is suggested to be best translated by means of pun to non-pun strategy whereby its covert sense shown by the expression '*suburb*' is provided in the translation as shown below:

TT: If I neglected my homeland because of my preoccupation with eternity, myself
Would prevent me from doing so.
My heart longs to quench its intense thirst by seeing **the suburbs** of Ain Shams.

The seventh example relates to poetic lines narrated below by the poet Yahya bin Mansour (Al-Saffar, 2014):

Example 7:

ST: لَمَّا نَأتْ عَنَّا العَشيرَةُ كُلُّها   أُنْخنا فَحالَفْنا السُيُوفَ على الدَّهْر
فَما أسْلَمتْنَا عِندَ يَوْمٍ كَريهةٍ   وَلا نَحْنُ أغضَينا **الجُفُونَ** على وِترِ

TT: When the whole clan went away from us, we stopped by and allied ourselves with swords against the time. So we never surrendered on the day of the war nor we brought (_____) low on the sword.

The poet in this context exploits the expression الجُفُونَ (al-jofoun) as a pun word as exemplified in the second line of the given verse. The pun الجُفُونَ (al-jofoun) holds a near, unintended meaning which refers to '*eyelids*' and which easily comes to the reader's mind. While the far, intended meaning of this word refers to '*sheaths*'. The given poetic lines provide the word أغضَينا (*aghdaina: brought lower*), which precedes the given pun, as a contextual clue that supports the near meaning of the word الجُفُونَ (al-jofoun), i.e., '*eyelids*'.

The data reveals that the given pun is rendered into Arabic by using pun to non-pun strategy. Nonetheless, none of these translations captures the far sense meant by the poet in this context which denotes '*sheaths*' since all the respondents translate the given pun as '*eyelids, eyelashes, eyesight, eyes, and lids*'. This is due to the respondents' tendency to choose the near meaning of the pun under translation at the cost of suppressing the far one.

From the researchers' point of view, the respective pun could be best rendered through pun to non-pun strategy involving providing the covert meaning of this pun, i.e., '*sheaths*' as clarified below:

TT: When the whole clan went away from us, we stopped by and allied ourselves with swords against the time. So we never surrendered on the day of the war nor we brought **sheaths** low on the sword.

The eighth example relates to poetic lines said by Izz Al-Din al-Musli who is a poet and a literary man from the city of Al- Mosul (Al-Saffar, 2014). The poet provides below a pun expression shown in the second line of the given verse:

Example 8:

ST: لَحَظْتُ مِنْ وَجْنَتِها شامَةً   فَابْتَسَمْتُ تَعَجُّبًا مِنْ حالي

قالَتْ: قِفُوا وَاسْمَعُوا ما جَرى   قَدْ هامَ عَمّي الشَّيْخُ فِي **خالي**

TT: I glimpsed a mole on her face, so she smiled wondering about my state.

She said: stop and hear what happened. My old paternal uncle adores (_____).

The word خالي (khali) in this context serves to function as a pun expression holding an overt meaning as well as a covert meaning. The overt meaning that the reader realize first is '*my maternal uncle*'. Yet, the meaning that is intended by the poet is '*my mole*' which is a brown spot on the skin. In this respect, the word عَمّي (a'mmi) is a contextual clue that supports the overt meaning of the pun.

The respondents of the current study use pun to non-pun strategy to render the given pun into '*my maternal uncle, my uncle, my mother's brother, and my uncle from the mother's side*'. These translations show that the respondents are far from the covert meaning of the given pun, and thus fail to capture the essence goal meant by deploying the pun under analysis.

From the researchers' perspective, the given pun could be rendered, as shown below, via pun to related rhetorical device strategy in which repetition is used to translate both the word شامَةً (shama) and the given pun expression خالي (khali) as '*mole*'

TT: I glimpsed a mole on her face, so she smiled wondering about my state.

She said: stop and hear what happened. My old paternal uncle adores **my mole**.

The ninth example relates to poetic lines said below by the poet Siraj Al-Din Al-Warraq (Al-Saffar, 2014). The poet is known for using humour, kindness and lightness in his poetry and is one of the famous poets of his time (Sa'eed, 1982, pp. 30, 56):

Example 9:

ST: أصُونُ أدِيمَ وجهي عَن أنَاس   لقاءُ الموتِ عِنْدهُم الأديبُ

وَرَبُّ الشعر عندهُمْ بَغِيضٌ   وَلَوْ وَافَى بِهِ لَهُمْ **حَبِيب**

TT: I keep my face away from people who see death when they meet a man of letters.

The master of poetry is hateful. Even if the poetry is written by (_____)

The given context involves the pun expression حَبِيب (habib) that has two meanings. One of them is '*beloved*', which is the close meaning that comes to mind because of the contextual clue بَغِيضٌ (bagheed: hateful). The second one in contrast which resembles the far meaning is the name of the poet, Abi Tamam, who is Habib Bin Aws. The poet is kind enough to hide the intended meaning by providing a contextual clue that supports the near meaning of the pun under question since the reader can observe that the word بَغِيضٌ (bagheed) is the opposite to the close meaning of the pun expression حَبِيب (habib), i.e. '*beloved*'.

The data reveals that twenty-two of the respondents translate the given pun using pun to non-pun strategy whereby they opt for the close meaning of the word حَبِيب (habib) as indicated by the expressions '*beloved, lover, someone they like, lovely, and dear*' which refer to a common noun. While only three of the respondents manage to render the intended meaning of the given pun as two of them, despite using the same translation strategy, capture its covert sense as indicated by the expression '*Habib*' which refers to the intended proper noun. Meanwhile, the third respondent deploys the editorial techniques strategy to explicate the covert sense meant by the poet as shown by the expression '*Habib [the name of Arabic poet]*'.

As a matter of fact, the given pun could best be translated in line with the three given successful translation in addition to explicate the name of the intended poet which can thus appear as the following:

TT: I keep my face away from people who see death when they meet a literary man. The master of poetry is hateful. Even if the poetry is written by **Habib [a name of Arabic poet, Habib Bin Aws].**

The tenth example refers to a verse said below by the Egyptian poet Jamal Al-Deen bin Nubatah (Al-Saffar, 2014). It is argued that the poet touched on all poetic topics such as praise, yarn, description, lament, and pride (Abdul-Kareem, 2015, p. 367):

Example 10:

ST: أقولُ وقد شنّوا إلى الحربِ غارةً   دعوني فإني آكلُ الخبز **بالجُبْن**

TT: I say when they wage a war: Leave me because I eat bread with (_____).

The given verse bears a pun expression manifested by the word الجُبْن (jubn). This pun carries a double meaning in its basic item. The first one resembles the overt meaning which denotes '*cheese*' and the one that easily comes to the reader's mind. Meanwhile, the second one reflects the covert meaning which refers to '*cowardice*', and the one that is actually meant by the poet. Still, the given verse involves contextual clues that support both the overt meaning and the covert meaning of the pun under translation. The first contextual clue is represented by the expression (آكلُ الخبز**:** *I eat*

bread) that immediately precedes the pun word so that it supports the overt meaning i.e., '*cheese*'. While, the second one is indicated by the expression (شنّوا إلى الحربِ غارةً: *they wage a war*) that gives rise to the covert meaning of the given pun i.e., '*cowardice*'. The poet tends to use this type of pun in order to stimulate the reader's ability to meditate so that h/she can comprehend the far meaning intended by the poet.

The data shows that the given pun is translated through pun to non-pun strategy. Fourteen of the respondents tend to focus on the near meaning of the given pun with which they are most familiar and thus translate it as '*cheese*' which refers to a kind of food. While, eleven of the respondents are able to comprehend the contextual clues surrounding the given pun so that they gain its intended, covert meaning as reflected by the expressions '*coward, frighten, fear, and cowardice*' which denotes a noun that describes the behaviour of someone who suffers from a lack of courage.

From the researchers' view, the successful translation of the given pun, which is presented by the respondents, is believed to be the most accurate way to translate the pun under question as shown below:

TT: I say when they wage a war:

Leave me because I eat bread with **cowardice.**

VIII. CONCLUSION

The exploration of the translations of the ten Arabic-English puns reveals a number of challenges facing translators performing this kind of task. These challenges are found to be attributed to the inability to find an equivalent English pun for the Arabic one. Moreover, the willingness of interpreting the overt meaning of the given pun, as a result of the familiarity of these meanings to translators, is found to play a pivotal role in neglecting the pun's covert, intended sense. It is also shown that such failure to capture the pun's covert sense stems from a lack of knowledge as to the poet and the poetic context from which the pun is originated as well as the incapability to interpret the contextual clues provided with the given pun which are deliberately meant in some occasions so as to hide the intended meaning associated with that pun. Accordingly, the study also concludes that the inability of rendering the pun's covert sense leads to distort the function and aesthetic features attributed with the pun being translated into the target text.

The study also reveals that only two out of Delabastita's nine translation strategies are adopted by the respondents to transfer the puns under analysis where pun to non-pun proves to be the most frequently strategy used, while editorial techniques strategy is shown to be the least common one. Editorial techniques and related rhetorical device are found to provide a potential use for adequately rendering the respective puns.

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Language Attitudes and Ethnic Language Loss in Algeria: The Case of the Chaoui Variety Among Young Users in the City of Oran

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Abstract—**This article surveys language use in the city of Oran, Algeria. It aimed to study the language attitudes of a small community of Chaoui speakers towards their language with the other languages spoken in the city, namely Standard Arabic, Algerian Arabic, and French. The results showed that though the Chaoui speech community is still emotionally attached to its ethnic language and considers it part and parcel of its identity, the Chaoui language is clearly witnessing a decline, which might eventually lead to death. The other languages, however, maintain themselves thanks to tight domain division, whereby Standard Arabic is used in official and formal situations, French, in the sciences, and Algerian Arabic, in informal interpersonal communication. The study concludes by stressing the role of schools in maintaining the country's ethnic languages to allow them to survive outside their regions.**

Index Terms—**Chaoui language, Chaoui speech community in Oran, language use and attitudes, language maintenance and loss, Algeria's language**

I. INTRODUCTION

For many reasons (historical, political, social, and others), language has become a strong identity marker in present-day Algeria and a major issue for both government language planners and the various speech communities in the country. Like most African countries, Algeria has a long history of colonialism, which brought the use and spread of French as a dominant language in the intellectual sphere of the elite, disturbing the old distribution of local languages derived from Berber and Arabic and threatening their development and even existence in some cases. After independence, the government promoted Arabic with a nationalist, monolinguistic ideology, which has not succeeded in halting the hegemonic influence of French. However, one direct effect of this policy is the side-lining of local languages, including all the varieties of Arabic and Tamazight, or Berber, the ancestral language of the country.

Whereas some scholars regard the country's language diversity in positive terms as a source of cultural and intellectual richness, openness, and tolerance, the unbalanced distribution creates a problem in the survival of ethnic minority languages – in what sociolinguists call "language maintenance and loss" (Dorian, 1982) and "language shift" (Gal, 1979). The present article intends to engage this problem through a study of the attitudes of a relatively small language community of Chaoui people, living in Oran, a major urban city in northwestern Algeria.

Chaouis are mostly located in northeast Algeria, as shown in Appendix One, and the Chaoui region extends along a vast area of mountainous territory. The group surveyed in this study are all second-generation migrants, whose parents left their ancestral homeland for various reasons to settle in Oran. They belong to a category of people called the "linguistically stranded" (Mugane, 2003). Their attitudes towards and the uses of their native tongue reveal a persistent shift whereby the Chaoui language is losing ground both in interpersonal relationships outside the home and within the family unit itself. To what extent this shift in language use threatens the existence of the Chaoui language in Oran constitutes the research objective of this article.

A. Algeria's Languages

Two main ethnic ancestries compose the Algerian people, the Berbers and the Arabs. The Berber group is made of a number of regional ethnic communities, comprising the Chaoui, Chelha, Chenoui, Kabyle, Mzabi, and Tergui, with each speaking their own variety of Tamazight. However, at school, where Tamazight has recently been introduced as an optional language class, all these communities learn the official language, Standard Arabic (SA), French as the first foreign language in primary school, then English as a second foreign language in middle school. However, in the rest of the population, the majority speak a variety of non-codified Arabic, called Algerian Arabic (AA), reshaped by borrowing from various other languages with which it intersected in the past, including Turkish, Spanish, French, and even English.

In the intellectual sphere, the scientific and cultural elites of the country use French and consider it "the language of modernity, techniques, the language of social promotion, the language of opening on the world" (Ibrahimi, 1995, p. 108). The elite groups' use of French is similar to the rest of Africa where educated people in former colonies speak

English or French as well as one or more African languages (Thomason, 2001). In the case of Algeria, in addition to French, people speak a variety of AA and/or a Berber variety.

The coexistence of many languages in Algeria and their distribution among various ethnic, social, geographical, and professional groups create a multilingual context, which is not without inducing power conflicts in situations. The configuration of languages shows that AA and Berber varieties are excluded from school and university learning, and priority is given to SA and French, which yields prestige and power as the languages of public administration, law, high culture, and intellectuality. In other words, the multilingualism of Algerians fosters a triglossic situation wherein competition between dominant and minority languages threatens ethnic languages' existence. This threat is particularly posed to small ethnic communities living outside their ancestral homeland, such as the Chaoui migrants living in Oran.

B. Research Questions

This paper assumes, along with a number of scholars, the postulates that language is a strong identity marker (Swilla, 2005), and that it maintains itself when it is economically and socially conducive (Dorian, 1982). Power is the main reason behind language shift or maintenance (Mugane, 2003) because when languages coexist within the same community, they compete with one another (Mufwene, 2008), leading sometimes to the loss or shift of less powerful languages.

Based on the above postulates, a number of research questions were asked to a sample of Oran's young Chaouis on their use of and attitudes towards their ethnic language and the languages in the country in general: How do they represent their ethnic language? Which language do they prefer to use, in what sphere (home or public), and in what domain (media, religion, sciences)? What is the degree of their emotional attachment to their parents' language? Does it constitute an identity marker for them? The answers to those questions are likely to reveal the factors which determine the Chaoui language's loss, shift, or possible maintenance in Oran.

II. METHODOLOGY

Before presenting the survey's details, it is worthwhile to explain what language attitude means and what it involves. Attitude is defined as "a mental disposition", acting as a bridge between opinion and behaviour (Obiols, 2000). Six types of attitudes are distinguished: general approval, commitment to practice, national ethnic tradition, economic and social communication importance, family, and local, personal, and ideological considerations (Glyn, 1975). In the case of language attitude, it refers to the speaker's feelings towards the following: language variation, dialect, and speech style; learning a new language; a specific minority language; language groups, communities, and minorities; language lessons; uses of a specific language; parents to language learning; and language preference (Baker, 1992, p. 29).

The concepts of language loss, shift, and maintenance invoked in this paper are strongly linked to the language attitudes of the speakers because the feelings speakers nurture towards their own language and the languages of others have a great impact on their language use and language choice, leading to either language maintenance or language shift, and even language disappearance and death.

A. Selection and Description of the Participants

This study's informants were chosen on the basis of age, focusing exclusively on young speakers. The sample was chosen for convenience, and gender was not considered as a variable. The 22 informants were between the ages of 16 and 33 years. They were grouped into three categories representing the trends of Chaoui youth in Oran:

- High school pupils: 11 informants
- University students: 7 informants
- Public professions and wage earners: 4 informants

B. Question Groups

The questionnaire asked 19 questions. Depending on their subject and research objectives, they were grouped into the following four categories:

(a). Transgenerational Language Transition

Question 1 (what language(s) do your parents master?) was grouped with question 2 (what language(s) do you master?), and question 11 (which language(s) do you consider as your mother tongue?) to see the level of language(s) transition from the first generation to the second.

(b). Language Use Domains

Question 3 (which language(s) do you use at home?) was grouped with question 4 (which language(s) do you use at school?), question 5 (which language(s) do you use with friends?), question 6 (which language(s) do use for media?), question 7 (which language(s) do you use for politics?), question 8 (which language(s) do you use for religion?), and question 9 (which language(s) do you use for science?) to see how language is used according to domains.

(c). Language Loyalty

Question 10 (which language(s) do you like the most?) was grouped with question 16 (which language(s) do you think Chaoui people should use?), question 19 (which language(s) represent/s your identity?), and question 18 (do you consider yourself Chaoui, Arab, or both?) to measure language loyalty.

(d). Language Preference

Question 13 (which language(s) do you consider useless?) was grouped with question 14 (which language(s) do you consider the most beautiful?) and question 15 (which language(s) do you consider the richest?) to address language preference.

III. FINDINGS

The findings for each question group are presented below, followed by the interpretation of the results.

A. Question Group 1: The Level of Transgenerational Transition of Language

Language transition among Chaoui parents and their children in Oran is represented by Figure 1:
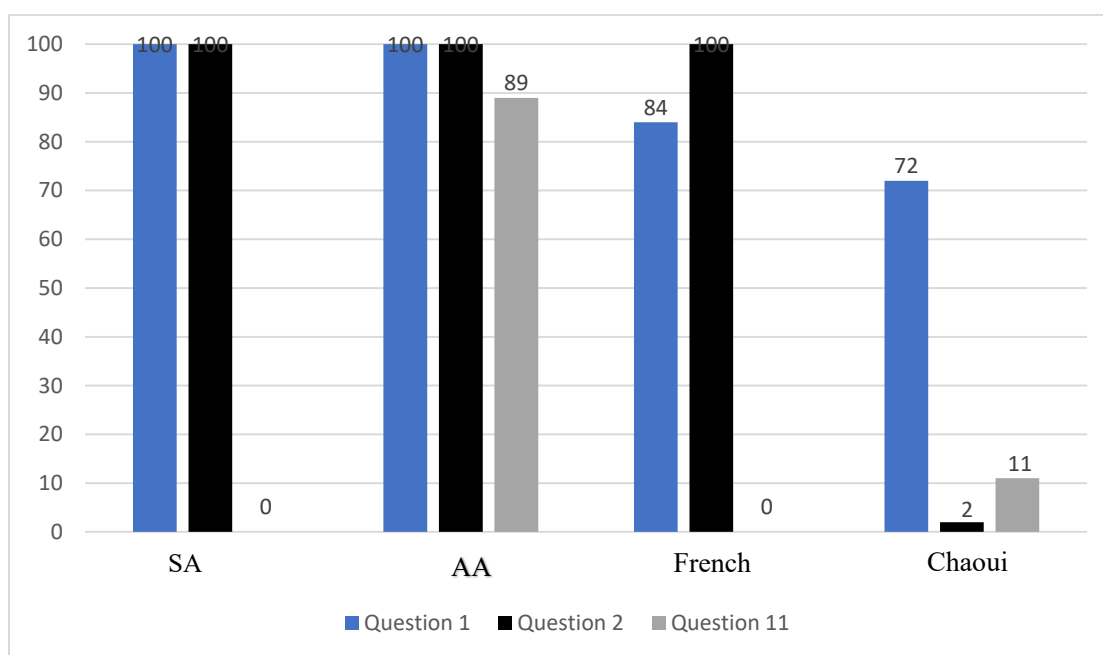

Figure 1. The Level of Transgenerational Transition of Language

SA and AA are the dominant languages among the informants' parents because they are mastered by all of them. However, this is not the case for French and Chaoui, which score 84% and 72%, respectively. In the case of French, this is a good score, which shows that teaching it at school helps to maintain its presence within society. However, for Chaoui, it shows a loss because more than a quarter of parents have already lost its use, even if they were born in a Chaoui-speaking place.

The beginning of the loss of Chaoui among the parents is confirmed by their children in their responses to questions 2 and 11. Indeed, only 2% of them master their ethnic language – two brothers, newly settled in Oran, who came from Batna (a Chaoui-speaking area). The low score of Chaoui mastery clearly demonstrates a case of language deterioration among the speaking community of Oran, as language transmission between the first and second generations is definitely broken.

According to the respondents' answers to question 11, the majority (89%) consider AA as their mother tongue. In fact, the latter has become the language of their socialization inside and outside the home.

B. Question Group 2: Domains of Language Use

This question group aims to understand where and in what situations young Chaoui speakers use their languages. The results are provided in the following figure:
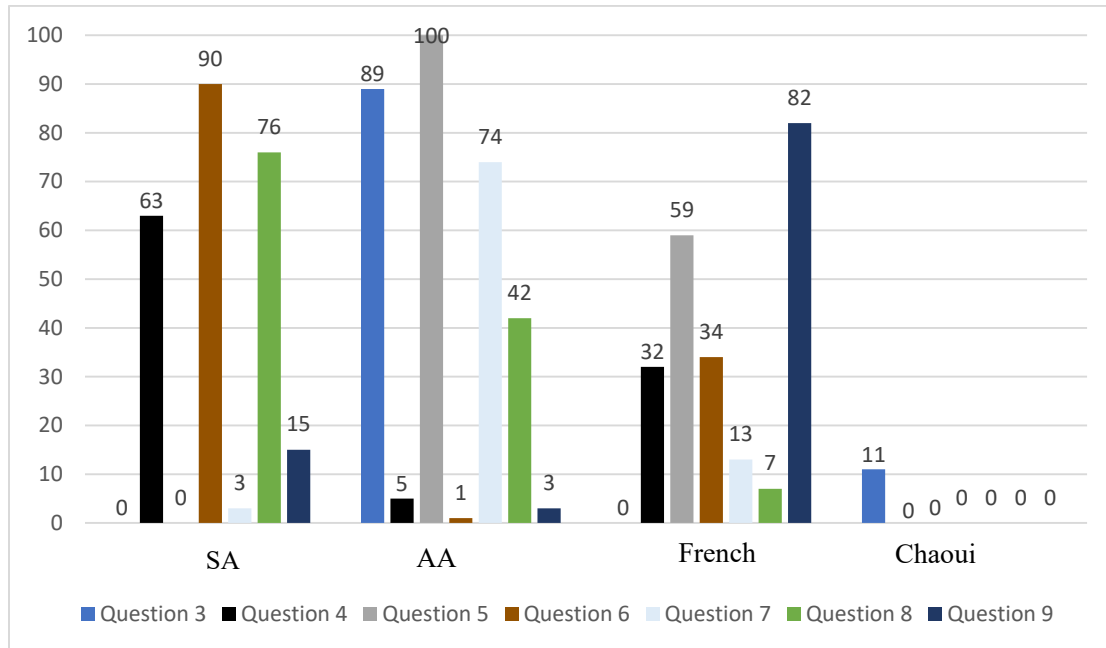
Figure 2. Domains of Language Use

The reasons behind the loss of Chaoui are found first at home, where AA dominates. Answers to question 3 (which language(s) do you use at home?) reveal that this is the dominant medium of communication by 89% of the surveyed community. Obviously, communication in the domestic sphere deals with informal colloquial subjects, just as in conversations among friends. The latter communication type is the other instance where AA dominates (100%) and Chaoui is absent (0%), further evidence of Chaoui recession.

Surprisingly, however, French imposes itself in informal conversations outside school and home because 59% of the respondents use it in their informal interactions (answers to question 5, which language(s) do you speak with friends?). If this figure indicates anything, it is the increasing growth of the former colonial language use among young generations born long after independence. Despite Algeria severing ties with France and downgrading the status of French in the education system to that of a foreign language, the language persists in the country, owing to various factors, the foremost being the education system. French is taught to students starting from their third year of primary school, thus contributing to its continued survival.

In formal situations, however, the trends are different. Illustrated by the survey questionnaire in the various contexts of media (question 6), politics (question 7), religion (question 8), and science (question 9), school seems the place where SA and French are mostly maintained. The former scores 63% since it is the language of instruction at the school level, where all core subjects (math, history, sciences) are taught in that language. For those respondents with a university-level education, 32% claim that their medium of instruction is French. Indeed, even if Algeria, nationalized learning by implementing Arabized syllabi and textbooks has not extended to higher education, where technical and scientific subjects (such as engineering, computing science, biology, agronomy) are taught in French. The privileged position of the latter is confirmed by the answers to question 9 (which language(s) do you use in science?), which constitutes 82%. SA and AA score only 15% and 3%, respectively. Only a few subjects at a university are taught in Arabic, mostly pertaining to social sciences and the humanities (such as sociology, economics and psychology), with informal digressions in AA.

In addition to school, SA finds strength and sustenance in the media. In Algeria, SA was introduced in the media in 1970, and today most TV and radio channels broadcast news and programs in SA. Arab channels, such as the Qatari Al Jazeera and the Saudi MBC, are widely watched in the country for news information and entertainment. Regarding films on Algerian channels, they are mostly American but captioned in French, what helps maintain the latter with 34% of positive answers.

Chaoui's absence in the media use (0%) is justifiable. Except for very few programs in that language, namely one news program a day, the national TV channel (ENTV) does not broadcast in that language. The other media presence of Chaoui is on the Amazigh Channel (Algerie 4), which broadcasts all its programs in the different varieties of Berber (Chaoui, Kabyle, Mzabite, Tergui, etc.). However, the program distribution among all those ethnic languages makes the share of each very small. Thus, its effect in maintaining Tamazight in general, and its regional varieties, in particular, remains poor and ineffective.

The most negative result concerning Chaoui is linked to religion, where no informant is found to use it as a language (question 8, which language(s) do you use in religion?). The 0% score might be surprising and might indicate that the religious feeling of this community is low. However, even if all religious sermons were delivered in Algeria in SA with digressions in AA, this is not the reason for the poor score. Actually, imams and clerics often use their ethnic language

when preaching to local communities. Thus, in the Chaoui region, sermons are delivered in SA mixed with Chaoui, and in the Kabyle region, it is mixed with Kabyle, and so on. But in Oran, where the Chaoui families do not form a distinctive community, the imams do not use Chaoui at all. Furthermore, most of the religious people serving Oran mosques do not master Chaoui. This is why they use the languages most accessible to the full congregation, namely SA, AA, and to a lesser degree, French.

C. Question Group 3: Language Loyalty

The objective of this section is to know the language loyalty of young Chaoui speakers in Oran by asking questions linked to their sense of linguistic identity. The findings are represented in Figure 3.
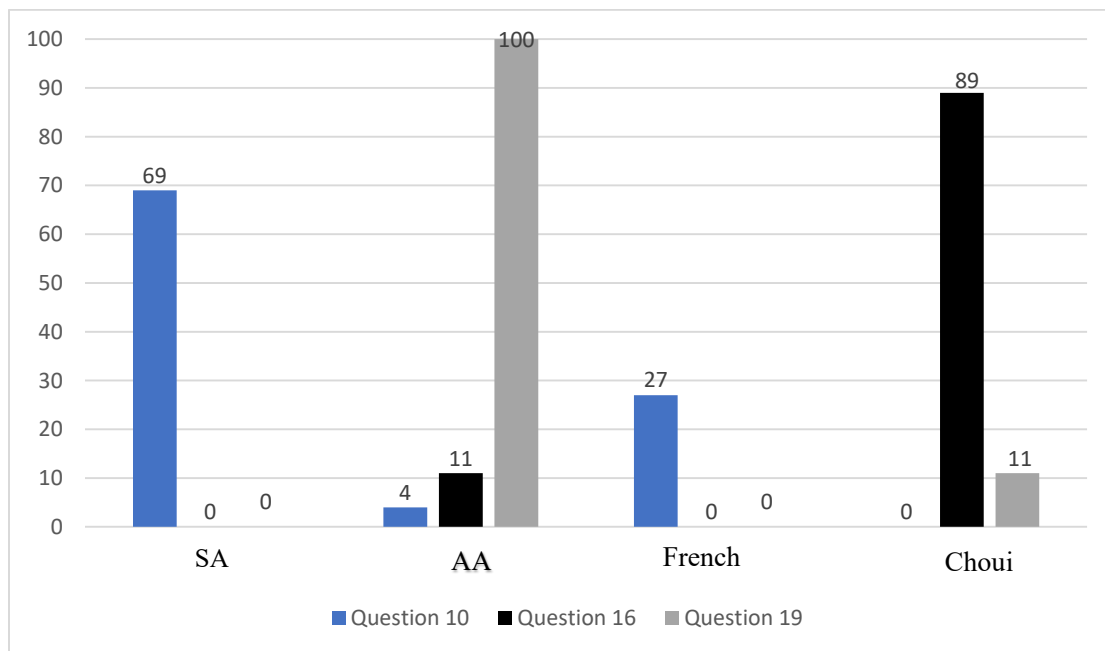

Figure 3. Language Loyalty

In terms of language loyalty, young Chaoui speakers in Oran seem to exhibit low esteem for their ethnic language. For question 10 (which language(s) do you like best?), 69% responded SA, and 27%, French. AA and Chaoui are almost equal, holding the respective scores of 4% and 0%. However, those low figures might be linked to the answers above, where SA is related to religion, media, and study, and French, to sciences and technology. This interpretation makes sense because the respondents' answers to question 16 (which language(s) do you think Chaoui people should use?) show that they are in favour of their ethnic language. Their attitude on the issue does not correlate with their real language use because they likely never acquired it at home, except for the two brothers born in Batna.

The answers to question 19 (which language(s) represents your identity?) testify to the affective loyalty of the young Chaouis living in Oran to their ethnic language. Figures show that 69% think that it is part and parcel of their identity. However, the informants all agree that AA best reflects their language identity because it is a distinctive language of socialization outside the home and shared by the majority of Algerians. In other words, the majority of the surveyed informants feel like bicultural people, belonging simultaneously to both their ethnic minority culture and the larger Algerian population speaking AA. Their bicultural identity is steeped in a double sense of self, encapsulating local and national sentiments. It is elicited in their answers to question 18 (do you consider yourself Chaoui, Arab, or both?), where 65% respond both. This figure represents the duality of those who define their identity solely in terms of the Chaoui origin. Nonetheless, in considering themselves Chaouis, those informants might mean Berber in the larger sense of the country's Amazigh heritage.

D. Question Group 4: Language Preference

Language preferences in terms of the respondents' thoughts on language usefulness, beauty, and richness are regrouped here. The answers are represented in the following figure:
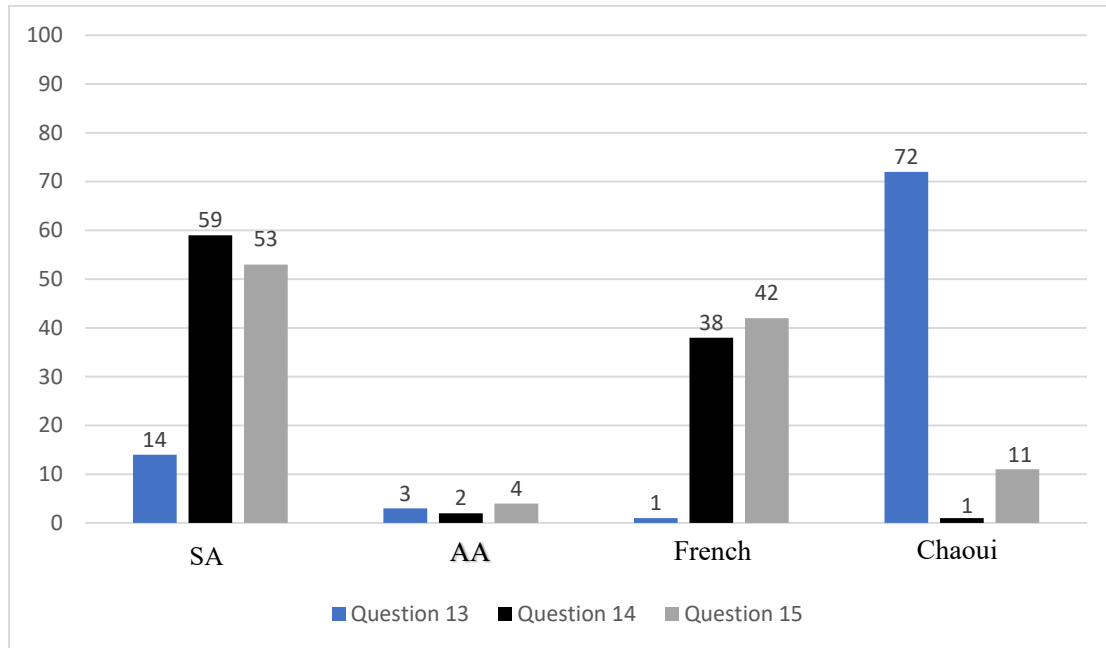
Figure 4. Language Preferences

The loyalty of young Chaouis living in Oran to their ethnic language does not translate into a language preference. In their answers to question 13 (which language(s) do you consider useless?), 72% point to Chaoui. Even if paradoxical, this is not a contradiction in itself because the informants seem to have a utilitarian view of languages. SA and French being the languages of instruction, media, public administration, intellectuality, and religion, it is natural that AA and Chaoui are relegated to the spheres of intimacy and informality. No wonder also that, due to their codification and institutionalization, the two formal languages (SA, the official language, and French, the former colonial language) are considered the most beautiful and the richest, as shown in the responses to question 14 (which language(s) do you consider the most beautiful?) and question 15 (which language(s) do you consider the richest?). SA scoring higher than French on the two questions (59% to 38% and 53% to 42%, respectively) is because it is the language of nation and religion, two strong markers that reflect the respondents' sense of identity.

IV. DISCUSSION

The findings demonstrate that, in spite of the second-generation Chaouis' strong emotional attachment to their ethnic language, they are clearly losing it in Oran. Various factors linked to officiality and intellectuality contribute to the decline of indigenous languages, in terms of loss for Chaoui and restricted use for AA. The unequal status among languages as perceived by the study's sample of informants is fostered by sovereignty (SA) and utility (SA and French), as well as by presence in the public and private spheres and exposure to media and religion. All those factors elicit fierce competition between the four languages and lead to the disappearance of the weakest one, in this case the Chaoui minority language.

In parallel to the decline of Chaoui in the family domain, SA is gaining new ground and is considered the most beautiful and richest language, along with, but to a lesser degree, French. This means that the government's promotion of a national language (SA) has yielded results, and that French, formerly a colonial language, has not witnessed a significant decline since independence. The rise in the use of SA and the maintenance of French in the urban setting of Oran are achieved at the expense of indigenous languages, most dramatically the Chaoui language, which finds it difficult to survive outside its homeland, the Chaouia region.

Contrary to many studies which underscore the roles of sovereignty and formality in the maintenance of language, this study demonstrates that informality outside the home and family help in maintaining languages. AA is used at home and everywhere in the public space in Algeria, without any presence in the formal spheres of media, school, and the sciences. Nonetheless, this language competes well with the other languages and absorbs the weakest one, Chaoui. Therefore, if the latter is to be maintained, it is crucial that it is used at home and within the larger world outside officialdom.

V. CONCLUSION

The decline in Chaoui use is most conspicuously perceived at the family level, as few members still use it within the home. Its erosion demonstrates that it fares badly away from its original homeland. As for the respondents' belief that they belong to a double culture, it is more the expression of an emotional attachment to family roots than the description of any concrete reality. In light of the different collected data, therefore, one can easily affirm that Chaoui is shrinking

and will soon become extinct in Oran. This will not be the case with AA, however, because it is a more flexible and vital language that thrives in the interpersonal domain and outside officiality and formality; in other words, AA is here to stay, whereas Chaoui is about to disappear.

APPENDIX A ALGERIA'S LANGUAGE MAP

https://www.enchantedlearning.com/africa/algeria/mapquiz/
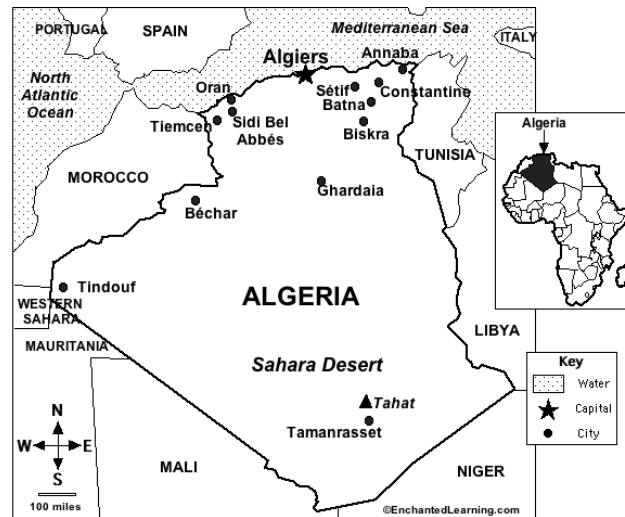
https://www.lexilogos.com/kabyle_dictionnaire.htm

APPENDIX B

The questionnaire in English:
Background information:
Age:
Place of birth:
Parents' place of birth:
List of abbreviations:
SA: Standard Arabic
AA: Algerian Arabic
F: French
CH: Chaoui

A. Language use:

	SA	AA	F	CH
1. What language(s) do your parents master?				
2. What language(s) do you master?				
3. What language(s) do you use at home?				
4. What language(s) do you use at school?				
5. What language(s) do you use with friends?				
6. What language(s) do you use for media?				
7. What language(s) do you use for politics?				
8. What language(s) do you use for religion?				
9. What language(s) do you use for science?				

B. Language attitudes:

	SA	AA	F	CH
10. Which language(s) do you like the most?				
11. Which language(s) do you consider as your mother tongue?				
12. Which language(s) do you master most?				
13. Which language(s) do you consider useless?				
14. Which language(s) do you consider the richest?				
15. Which language(s) do you consider the most beautiful?				
16. Which language(s) you think Chaoui people should use?				

C. Language maintenance and identity:

	SA	AA	F	CH
17. Are your parents both Chaoui?				
18. Do you consider yourself	**Chaoui**	**Arab**	**Both**	
19. What language(s) represents your identity?				
20. Is speaking Chaoui a tool to preserve your identity?				
21. If you master Chaoui will you pass it to your children?	**yes**	**no**		

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Designing and Implementing a Professional Programme for ICLHE Teachers: Beyond Linguistic and Communicative Competence

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Abstract—**English Medium Instruction (EMI) is being fostered by universities across the world to promote their internationalization with an increasing number of courses taught through English both at graduate and postgraduate level. This requires university lecturers to be offered opportunities for professional development. It is the aim of this paper to present an extended training programme -CLIC@unizar (Content and Language Integrated Competences at the Universidad de Zaragoza)- developed at our institution which seeks to foster not only the communicative skills but also the pedagogical skills of those lecturers teaching through the medium of English or who are planning to do so. The training itinerary is grounded on previous research on EMI professional development programmes, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and methodological principles promoting the students' active role and their development of communication and digital competences. The use of digital tools and technologies which promote online collaboration, especially HyperDocs and Google Apps for Education (mostly Google Docs, Google Slides, and Google Forms), has been integrated in the itinerary following the SAMR Model (Puentedura, 2013). The use of these digital tools has allowed us to include multimodal ways to provide participants with input, make them interact with the material, with us and among themselves, and produce output as demonstrations of their learning. It is essential to make ICLHE (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education) teachers aware of their need to adapt their methodology or adopt new ones to be effective in their teaching in an L2.**

Index Terms—**EMI, ICLHE, internationalization, higher education, communicative skills, digital competences, pedagogical skills**

I. INTRODUCTION

University teachers' professional practices more and more commonly require the use of English for publishing, management and also teaching purposes. The focus of our paper will be on academics' teaching practices through the medium of English and will present a programme designed for professional development in ICLHE (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education) in our own context and institution: a Spanish university. English Medium Instruction (EMI) is a rapidly growing global phenomenon (Dearden, 2014), which is being fostered by universities across the world to promote their internationalization with an increasing number of courses taught through English both at graduate and postgraduate level. This has triggered a lot of scholarly attention in different aspects such as language policies, teachers' and students' perceptions and motivations, the language and interaction strategies used in the classroom, and learners' strategies, among others (Macaro, 2018). Recent attention has been paid to EMI professional development programmes (e.g. Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Costa, 2015; Cots, 2013; Morell et al., 2020; Morell & Volchenkova, 2021; O'Dowd, 2018; Pérez-Cañado, 2020; Sánchez-Pérez, 2020), as these tend to vary and be adjusted to the specific needs and contexts in which the lecturers work.

In line with this previous research, in the design of our professional development itinerary we aimed to address not only language and communicative competence aspects but also, very importantly, methodological aspects, including digital competences, contributing to developing participants' teaching skills. In fact, we sought to make our colleagues participating in the professional development programme aware of their need to adapt their methodology or adopt new teaching strategies and techniques to be effective in their teaching in an L2. Such a training programme goes beyond one-off courses, and has been developed working in collaboration with the Vice-Rectorship for Internationalisation and Cooperation at our institution. The objective was to promote training which could support bilingual teachers and could encourage some others to embark on it in the near future, with the overall aim to "strengthen the quality of the university's shift towards bilingualism" in line with professional development programmes in other European countries (Guarda & Helm, 2017, p. 900).

It is, thus, the aim of this article to contribute to the growing research on EMI teacher training programmes by describing and analyzing our teacher training itinerary, CLIC@unizar (Content and Language Integrated Competences

at Universidad de Zaragoza), based on ICLHE principles. We prefer the term ICLHE over EMI, as we strived to design, implement and evaluate a professional development programme that led content teachers to plan and design courses through the medium of English which pursue the development of both students' content and English language skills (Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018). We also focus on analyzing the use of digital tools in the training programme to develop higher education teachers' digital competences and to combine them with language and methodological competences to promote effective teaching skills in an ICLHE context.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 the theoretical framework on which our professional development programme rests is presented. Section 3 will be devoted to the detailed description and justification of said programme. In Section 4 we illustrate how communicative and pedagogical skills are developed in combination and, in so doing, use is made of diverse digital tools focusing on the provision of multimodal input and its processing, the promotion of participants' interaction and collaboration, and the facilitation of their production of output and of self-, peer- and teachers' assessment. Section 5 provides a brief qualitative evaluation of the programme as regards its combination of language and pedagogical skills, especially digital ones, drawing on participants' answers and comments. Finally, we draw some final conclusions, highlight some limitations and avenues for further research in Section 6.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Our design of the training itinerary rests on three pillars: previous research on EMI professional development programmes, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and methodological principles promoting the students' active role and their development of communication and digital skills.

Previous research on EMI training (e.g. Morell & Volchenkova, 2021; Pérez-Cañado, 2020; Sánchez-Pérez, 2020) stresses the importance of considering certain factors when designing and developing such programmes. First of all, the institutional promotion of EMI, as evidenced by university policies, needs to be accompanied by the provision of necessary resources and support. Secondly, it is of utmost importance for the programme to be effective to study bilingual teachers' needs and motivations. Thirdly, the focus of the training should be beyond language and communicative competence and seek to develop bilingual teachers' pedagogical competence: "[i]n a nutshell, language and pedagogy seem to play a major role in the design of a plurilingual teacher training program" (Rubio Alcalá & Mallorquín, 2020, p. 43).

It is well attested that students, not only non-native English speakers, but also native ones, face great challenges in the use of academic discourse when they enter university, as "they need to write and read unfamiliar genres and participate in novel speech events" (Hyland & Shaw, 2020, p. 2). Hence, it is important for university teachers in general, and especially for those teaching through the medium of English, to be aware of specific linguistic and discoursal features that academics use and require from students to support and promote their students' development of academic language. Previous descriptions of such academic language coming from English for Academic Purposes (EAP) should inform ICLHE professional development to develop bilingual teachers' knowledge and use of such language, and also to make them aware of the language requirements their teaching, their tasks and assessment place on students. This should be the first step in the necessary development of scaffolding and support for students' output production in the L2. This awareness is common among EAP practitioners and surely discourse analysts, linguists and language teachers, but not so much among teachers in other fields or disciplines. Indeed, content lecturers, as disciplinary insiders, need to understand and be able to offer support for students to understand and use disciplinary communicative practices which may be new and problematic for them (Airey, 2011), much more so when they need to master them in an L2. Similarly, previous English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which focuses on the language, skills, discourse and genres relevant to the disciplines and professions within those communities (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998), may well inform EMI training programmes (Manchó-Barés & Arnó-Macià, 2017).

As highlighted above, it is our intention with the designed training plan to combine language and pedagogical skills and to underline the need to make significant adaptations for ICLHE instruction in our institution and for it to be effective. Therefore, we conceive the language/content continuum depicted in Table 1 adapted from Airey (2020, p. 73).

TABLE1
OUR CONCEPTION OF ICLHE, ADAPTED FROM AIREY (2020, P. 73)

Only language	Language and content	Only content
EAP ESP	ICLHE	EMI

In our view, university content teachers need to be well equipped to be able to offer students opportunities to develop their language and communication skills in the L2. As will be argued later, digital resources can play a significant role in fostering these skills. In most courses taught through the medium of English in our institution, prior to the

development of the training programme described, students' English skills development was not specified as a learning outcome. There was no intentional planning for their development and therefore they were not given any attention, even though such achievement is expected by lecturers, students and policy makers (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018). It is thus believed that the training of ICLHE lecturers can lead to a more explicit, systematic thought about development of English language skills obtained thanks to a methodological turn and some exposure to models of good practice regarding these.

Our teacher training plan is further grounded on several methodological principles, namely, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Brown, 2010; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards, 2006), Task Based Learning (TBL) (Ellis, 2003; Long, 2015; Skehan, 1998; Willis & Willis, 2007), Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Cummins, 1979, 2008; Long, 1981, 2015; Swain, 1995, 2010), digital competences (Carrington, 2016; Puentedura, 2013), and Visible Learning (Hattie, 2012). Connections are established between TESOL and EMI (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018) as we believe thatstudents' language competence development should not just be expected, but planned and fostered.

CLT principles such as making a meaningful use of the language in the classroom, to foster pair and group work and communication promoting exchange of information and ideas and negotiation of meaning among peers (e.g.; Brown, 2010; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards, 2006) are followed in the design and implementation of the courses by presenting tasks and activities that require such interaction and use of the language. In addition, SLA principles are also borne in mind. We seek to make our colleagues be exposed to input that is comprehensible through given strategies and tools, especially when new, abstract or complex content is presented. These can work as scaffolding (Gibbons, 2015). But for language to be learnt and acquired, students need to be given opportunities to interact (Long, 1981, 2015) so that they can test their hypotheses and develop their interlanguage. Tasks are required that force them to produce output (Swain, 1995, 2010). We also consider the functions of language in an educational context, more specifically the need to develop CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) and BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication skills) (Cummins, 1979, 2008), although in this particular case we restrict these a great deal to the context of the university classroom.

Digital EdTech resources and the potential subsequent development of teachers' digital competence are an additional, valuable component of our specific professional development programme. This is especially relevant given the growing interest in developing and certifying teachers' digital competences, as attested by the proliferation of standards and frameworks, such as the ISTE Standards for Educators (https://www.iste.org/standards/for-educators) in the US or the Digital Competence Framework for Educators (DigCompEdu) (https://publications.jrc.ec.europa.eu/repository/handle/JRC107466) in Europe. This urge to upskill and reskill educators in their digital competence has been accelerated by the current context of open education and online learning. In our introduction of EdTech in the itinerary, we make use mainly of G-Suite (https://workspace.google.com/dashboard), including *Google Slides, Google Docs, Google Sheets, Google Forms*, and most importantly *HyperDocs* to guide and self-contain the learning process. Through *HyperDocs* (https://hyperdocs.co/) we can create multimodal text sets, that is, "collections of texts about a topic that includes a variety of information sources such as websites, articles, videos, images, quotes, and infographics" (Highfill et al., 2016, p. 65) in such a way that educators practice digital literacy skills and can subsequently apply and foster these in their classes to promote their students' skills. In addition, Puentedura's (2013) SAMR Model for technology integration in the classroom has been adopted in our professional development programme to incorporate these digital tools. This model comprises four levels of integration and use of technology in learning activities in the classroom: Substitution, Augmentation, Modification and Redefinition. The first two levels entail only a process of enhancement as technology is a substitute for other learning activities, without functional change (Substitution) or with some functional change (Augmentation). The last two levels entail a process of transformation, as technology allows the learning activities to be redesigned (Modification), or new tasks which would not have been possible without the use of this technology (Redefinition).

Finally, in our training itinerary, educators are made aware of what they are learning, why they are learning that, and how they can transfer that learning into their classes, through reflection and metacognition. Educators are led through different learning stages moving from activation to input, connection, planning, creating and publishing, and finally assessment and reflection. They are also led to realize what stage they are in and what our aims are, as well as the type of resources and activities used, promoting visible learning and teaching (Hattie, 2012). We use the tools and strategies to both teach them and to serve as models for their own applied teaching practices. In fact, we try to go beyond this experiential learning and implement loop input (Woodward, 2003) inasmuch as tutors demonstrate and practise the concepts through techniques and methods that are then discussed as possible additions to the participants' own repertoires.

III. OUR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR ICLHE TEACHERS

In order to respond to the need for ICLHE teachers' support and training, the Vice-Rectorship for Internationalisation and Cooperation at our institution commissioned a group of colleagues from the English Department to design a professional development programme. After studying the results of a survey on the teachers' perceptions of internationalisation, on their motivations to teach in English and their needs to do so efficiently, we designed the different courses in the itinerary, which we labelled CLIC@unizar (Content and Language Integrated Competences at

Universidad de Zaragoza). It is conceived within an institutional Plan for Internationalisation, and as such, it takes a broad international perspective, seeking to go beyond English language instruction and involving different stakeholders and agents (e.g. Dafouz, 2021; Fortanet-Gómez, 2013).

Our teacher development programme offers two routes (see Figure 1). The first, longer route, is offered for those university teachers who have a B2 level and no experience in EMI. It consists of a total of 115 hours of training, as they start in stage 0 with the course *English for Teaching Purposes* and then continue on to the rest of the itinerary. The second, shorter one, is available for those who begin with a C1 level or previous EMI experience and it consists of a total of 90 hours of training. Stage 1 comprises 30 hours of training provided in the course *General Training in ICLHE*, and Stage 2, another 30 hours provided in the course *Specific Training in ICLHE* in their content areas: Bio, Science and Engineering or Social Sciences and Humanities. The remaining 30 hours of training correspond to a varied crash course menu from which lecturers can make their own choices.
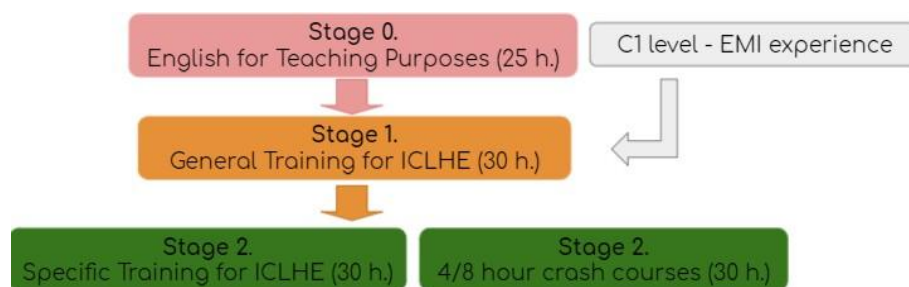

Figure 1. CLIC@unizar Professional Development Itinerary (https://internacional.unizar.es/apoyo-la-ensenanza-en-ingles)

It was conceived as an itinerary allowing for varied paths thanks to the different starting points and crash courses of the participants' choice. Crash courses are added and deleted in response to participants' evaluation and needs. These are some of the crash courses offered to date: *Designing checklists and rubrics, Engaging students: apps and tools, Designing visual support, Writing instructions and exam questions, Giving feedback, Interaction in the ICLHE classroom, Pronunciation for ICLHE Teaching I, Pronunciation for ICLHE Teaching II* and *Language functions for the ICLHE teacher*. The training programme can be completed at the teachers' own pace. Several editions of varied courses are offered every year. We regularly evaluate the plan and changes are introduced every year.

In the itinerary the first courses generally have a greater focus on developing ICLHE lecturers' or lecturers'-to-be language and communicative skills and confidence in their use of the English language for teaching purposes. Anxiety and uncertainty are reported to be some of the main challenges among our colleagues to undertake teaching through the medium of English, which seems to be a common concern at least among Spanish university teachers (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas & Fernández Barrera, 2021). In the course *English for Teaching Purposes*, which entails 25 hours of training, the focus is on developing participants' General Academic English working on Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979, 2008), as well as their language competence in the classroom focusing on classroom discourse. The course revolves around language functions that have been shown by EAP studies to be used frequently by academics, namely, Defining objects and concepts, Explaining processes and procedures, Describing events, devices and data in visuals, Presenting taxonomies and classifications, and Providing outlines, summaries and overviews. The course *General Training for ICLHE*, which entails 30 hours of training, is considered the cornerstone of the programme as all participants take it either after the *English for Teaching Purposes* course or as a first step in the itinerary. In the course a balance is struck between the development of language and pedagogical skills. Participants are made aware of language and communication aspects, as well as aspects related to teaching in an L2, such as making input comprehensible, checking students' understanding, analysing and evaluating lecture and seminar styles and exploring resources and techniques aimed at supporting students' L2 output and at promoting interaction in the ICLHE classroom. Contents are organised around three modules on Guiding input, Supporting output and Structuring interaction. Finally, in the course *Specific Training for ICLHE*, which entails 30 hours of training and which participants can only take upon successful completion of the General Training for ICLHE course, further attention is given to disciplinary cultures and discourse characteristics. Three different courses have been designed around related fields, namely, Social Sciences and Humanities, Science and Engineering, and Bio Sciences. Similar contents and objectives are established as in the previous course, but greater depth is gained offering further opportunities for application and analysis to their own specific teaching contexts and drawing participants' attention further to discourse and generic disciplinary specificities and to the development of students' disciplinary literacies (Airey, 2011; Zhang & Chan, 2020).

IV. THE CLIC@UNIZAR ITINERARY: DEVELOPING TEACHERS' COMMUNICATIVE AND DIGITAL COMPETENCES

After presenting the teacher training programme designed and implemented at our institution, we focus on the main tenets on which the training rests, seeking to develop participants' language and methodological skills focusing on how digital tools have been integrated to offer and process input, to promote interaction and collaboration among

participants and to guide their output.

As pointed out in Section 2, the courses in our CLIC@unizar programme are planned around *HyperDocs* which vertebrate the learning process, taking participants through different stages in each unit or module within the courses (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. A *HyperDoc* Template Used in our CLIC@unizar Professional Development Programme

In the Activation stage there is a two-fold purpose. First, university teachers are presented with the expected learning outcomes and are briefed not only on what they will be learning but also on how they will demonstrate their learning at the end of the sequence. Second, teachers' previous knowledge on the topic is established and mental schemata are activated. In the Input stage, critical comprehensible input is provided in multimodal means, and visual organizers are generally used to structure, facilitate the processing of the new learning, and promote visible learning (Hattie, 2012). In the Connection stage, participants are pushed to interact either with their peers, trainer or the material, and deepen their knowledge, establishing links with other aspects of the topic or delving further into their thinking. They are asked to participate and complete diverse tasks in which communication and interaction are essential, promoting exchange of ideas, negotiation of meaning and further learning (Long, 1981, 2015). In Planning, Creating and Publishing, participants begin to apply and transfer knowledge obtained by means of previous tasks (Ellis, 2003), pushing students' output (Swain, 1995, 2010) and facilitating the creation of a final product. These final products -such as recording themselves presenting a taxonomy that is relevant in their teaching contexts, completing a chart for a lecture plan, or designing their own rubrics or checklists for their students' performances- constitute the outcome of the module, learning sequence or task (Willis & Willis, 2007). In Assessment and Reflection, as a post-task phase lecturers look back at their learning process and share their reflections with other participants. Throughout all of the aforementioned stages, digital technologies are used as tools to help ICLHE teachers promote and register learning, completing tasks which require interaction and a meaningful use of the English language.

A. Curating and Creating Input

In order to provide the most effective input, relevant websites, EAP textbooks and available corpora were used to find, select and adapt different resources such as authentic texts, videos, or infographics as part of the curation process. Digital tools, for example, *Google Docs* and *Slides*, or video editors are employed to modify existing texts and to create our own versions of multimodal input. Both the curated and created materials are presented in a way that learners can process the new information and concepts facilitated by the design of organizers (Figure 3), charts and activities drawn up using *Google Forms, Docs, Slides*, or *Flippity*.

Figure 3. Example of Input Provided (a *HyperDoc* and a Linked *GoogleDoc* as Visual Organizer) Facilitating the Reception and Processing of New Information and Concepts

Following the SAMR model (Puentedura, 2013) explained in Section 2, this entails a modification of the tasks that we would have proposed analogically; that is, we are not just substituting screens for papers but these tools allow for some sort of functional change.

B. Promoting Interaction and Collaboration

Interaction and collaboration among participants and between participants and the trainers are promoted in our professional development programme especially thanks to the use of digital technology through the use of *Google Forms* to create tasks such as a questionnaire to collect and establish previous knowledge on the new topic at hand, which entails a substitution of an oral brainstorming that may occur in a non-technological classroom. Also, *Google Slides* provide an opportunity for computer-mediated interaction and collaboration, which is especially relevant in the context we were living in, where face-to face interaction needed to be reduced. By sharing editing permissions, *Google Slides* can be completed in a shared way (see Figure 4), to provide collective answers to questions. Also, each participant can be asked to not only edit the slides available but also to add their own particular slide so that everybody's output is registered and communicated.

Figure 4. Example of a Shared *Google Slides* to Promote Interaction

Images, videos and audios can also be part of the shared slides. Free access digital applications such as *Socrative* (https://www.socrative.com/) and *Mentimeter* (https://www.mentimeter.com/) allow teachers to check the shared understanding that develops as the class progresses with the advantage of being able to design questions adapted to the moment of teaching. Lastly, *Flippity* (https://www.flippity.net/), which is an add-on for *Google Sheets*, allows for the creation of study aids such as audio flashcards and vocabulary lists for students to encounter the new vocabulary for autonomous retrieval practice through the use of the gamified tools provided such as the Random Name Picker or the Badge Maker. This is particularly effective for the learning of content-specific material developing learners' CALP.

As the ICLHE lecturers encounter the different tools used in the training courses, they are also provided with a model for good strategies and techniques that they can implement in their own teaching contexts. In addition, emphasis is made on discussing the processes, activities, methods and resources used throughout the training, and evaluating the advantages and disadvantages from the students' and teachers' points of view, following Woodward's (2003) concept of loop input. Indeed, "allowing time for the decompression phase also involves participants in a detailed and very useful discussion of the steps, materials, content and participant experience of the activity from the inside out" (Woodward, 2003, p. 303).

C. Facilitating Learner Output and Assessment

Teachers can also develop their digital competences by being asked to produce their own output. Following Puentedura's (2013) SAMR model, *HyperDocs* augment the functions of a more traditional lesson plan or worksheet since they can structure the process and production of output. They enable the integration of guidelines, checklists and rubrics hyperlinked to the task so that learners can create their output with the specific goals and success criteria in mind and at hand (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Example of a *HyperDoc* Section to Facilitate Learner Output and Assessment

Other digital tools for voice recording such as Vocaroo (https://vocaroo.com/) or www.online-voice-recorder.com with very simple interfaces and technology allow learners to create an audio link or file with their oral productions and insert them via this link to any other type of document such as a *Google Slides* presentation. This allows teachers to collect and assess evidence of speaking competences that would have in the past required much more time to gather. Teachers can also make use of these simple digital recording tools to easily record and send oral feedback to participants, which they highly value.

Platforms which can host different posts and tasks such as *Padlet* (https://padlet.com/) and *Symbaloo* (https://www.symbaloo.com/) are also used to collect and share participants' output. They can upload videos, documents, audios, or other files so that others can see them. *Padlet* in particular also allows participants to comment on each others' uploads. The tasks thus designed are very different from a traditional task where only the teacher would read the answer and provide feedback, which entails a Redefinition process following Puentedura's (2013) SAMR model.

Exit tickets created using *Google Forms* or *Socrative* help to assess learning and to receive feedback on the process of teaching as well. This allows for the adaptation of our teaching to the changing needs of learners, for instance, by modifying the way that learners "hand-in" their productions and the ways in which teachers can assess these and give feedback.

V. QUALITATIVE EVALUATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Participants generally report high degrees of satisfaction with the courses completed, acknowledging their development of communicative skills and their reflection and adaptation of teaching practices, even if some resistance was encountered at the initial stages of the training by a few teachers, as regards the digital component of the training.

Participants enrolled in the different courses report to have been fully satisfied with it and they value all items specified in the official questionnaire very highly: content, approach, methodology, applicability, and current relevance. When evaluating the courses in a more specific manner, ICLHE teachers value specially the following items: reflecting

on their own teaching practices, working in collaborative teams in the classroom, interacting with their workmates, learning about how to promote interaction and collaboration, and using digital tools and applications. Participants are also encouraged to share their views through open comments in the evaluation questionnaires. In these comments, they appreciate and positively evaluate the communicative and pedagogical combined nature of the training received, as transpires from the following examples:

"The course combines tools for improving English [sic.] and also teaching methodologies" "I have more tools in order to teach my students".

"The activities made in these classes and homework help us to apply them in our classes (or at least, see how they could be applied and the potential gain when applying)".

"Being able to widen my skills and my teaching methodologies, also learning how to do it in case in the future I go somewhere else to teach".

"It's my first time in a class focused on english [sic] for teaching, so it has been interesting the way that we have used to work in different methodologies through english. I have think [sic] deeply on it and it will be useful at class[sic]".

"Me ha gustado que las actividades nos han permitido reflexionar acerca de cómo estructurar nuestras clases. Me llevo unas cuantas ideas, que espero poder aplicar a mi docencia cotidiana". [I really liked that the activities have allowed us to reflect on how to structure our classes. I take with me a few ideas, which I think will be able to apply in my everyday teaching practice].

These remarks seem to be in line with previous work on EMI teacher training programmes and their evaluation in different cultural contexts (e.g. Guarda & Helm, 2011; Morell et al., 2020). Guarda and Helm (2011) reported findings in an Italian context in which a participant stated that "'I have discovered new teaching pathways', which seems to be in line with those reported above by colleagues at our institution.

VI. FINAL REMARKS

Professional development training programmes that combine language and pedagogy are necessary to support ICLHE lecturers. These should go beyond one-off courses, be flexible and adapted to the participants' reported needs, but also to the needs which the literature on the topic has revealed, as well as on participants' likely lacks.

We believe that the design, development, implementation and evaluation of professional development training programmes have to be firmly grounded on theoretical principles and also pedagogical ones, since a methodological adaptation has to be undertaken by colleagues teaching in an ICLHE context. They need to be made aware of necessary and useful methodological adaptations when teaching through the medium of English. We believe this is achieved by putting teachers into the position of learners, experiencing the learning so that they can see the applicability and usefulness of such changes. By asking trainees (ICLHE lecturers) to process input, complete tasks and use digital tools in their professional training, they can design their own materials adapted to their specific teaching in the English-medium context. Training should not be limited to upgrading teachers' English proficiency (Macaro, 2018); methodological principles need to be not only followed but also made salient, drawing the participants' attention to them and reflecting on them (Woodward, 2003). In addition, drawing their attention to specific language and discourse aspects, we believe that we are working towards a symbiotic relationship between language learning and subject content objectives and moving from accidental to incidental, or even planned in the best cases, language teaching (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018).

There is still a lot of work ahead in developing ICLHE's lecturers support and training at our institution. It is our intention to develop a community of practice that meets and shares experiences in line with suggestions provided by Fortanet-Gómez (2020) and Morell et al. (2020), among others. We believe that creating trainees' digital production portfolios can also be an interesting learning experience for ICLHE lecturers who can then apply such resources and principles in their own English-medium teaching context. Most important of all, we envision continuing to carry out quantitative and qualitative studies on the overall impact of this training on lecturers' teaching experiences and students' learning, and more specifically on the extent to which the integration of digital tools in this professional development programme actually has an impact on the trainees' digital competences and those of their students taking courses through the medium of English.

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Demotivation Factors for Learning English (Students' Perspectives)[*]

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Abstract—**Demotivation is a topic that has lately received a lot of attention in the field of language acquisition. There is a shortage of research in Jordan that investigates demotivating variables impacting learning English among Jordanian undergraduate students. As a result, the purpose of this research is to look at the elements that influence Jordanian undergraduate students' acquisition of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The data was collected using a questionnaire adapted from Sakai and Kikuchi (2009). The survey comprised 35 questions on a five Point likert scale about six demotivation factors: class characteristics, teacher attitude, course contents and teaching materials, effects of poor grades, classroom atmosphere, and lack of self-confidence and interest. This study's sample included 110 undergraduate students from the faculty of arts at Zarqa University in Jordan. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The data showed that classroom environment is the most demotivating elements impacting Jordanian undergraduate students' EFL learning, while lack of self-confidence and interest were the least demotivating factors. As a result, further research into this topic is strongly suggested in order to acquire a better knowledge and deeper insights into this issue in order to aid ESL/EFL learners in learning English.**

Index Terms—**demotivation, EFL, undergraduate students, learning English**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

One of the main elements influencing L2 learners' success and performance in the language learning process is motivation, which is why instructors and academics are so concerned about it (Meşe & Sevilen, 2021). Previous study has identified motivation as a significant factor that may impact the language learning (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Bradford, 2007; Dornyei & Ushioda, 2021; Zawahreh & Al-Ali, 2020). The benefits of motivation on students' zeal for learning piqued the interest of motivation researchers. Motivation is crucial in the classroom since it is closely managed. A motivated learner may infuse the class with good vibes and enthusiasm, whereas a demotivated learner has a strong tendency to have the opposite effect on the other students (Dornyei & Murphey, 2003). English learners as a foreign language around the globe strive to develop their proficiency level in speaking English language in order to acquire a second or foreign language, motivation is essential. Previous research demonstrated that one of the important elements that might influence the process of language learning is motivation (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Bradford, 2007; Dornyei & Ushioda, 2021). However, the process of language learning may have a detrimental effect on learners (Almaagbh & Huwari, 2021). These unfavorable elements sometimes referred to as demotivating influences, have received little attention up until lately (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Demotivation has been extensively researched in the field of

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instructional communication and academic lecture presentations in many nations during the previous few decades (Al-Hoorie, 2018). The benefits of motivation that improve students' interest in learning were of particular interest to motivation researchers (Al-Hoorie & MacIntyre, 2020). However, there are unfavorable elements that can undermine motivation and impede any learning process, including language learning. Demotivating factors, as described by Dornyei (2001), are such factors. Demotivating influences progressively reduce motivation and obstruct efficient language acquisition, in contrast to motivating elements that can increase the motivation of language learners.

Students' academic performance is hampered by a lack of motivation. It is effective at all levels, including elementary, secondary, college, and university (Talpur et al., 2021; Ashraf & Lodhi, 2022). Alruzzi et al. (2022) stated that "English learners as a foreign language around the globe strive to develop their proficiency level in speaking" (p. 2458). English language demotivation can be thought of as motivation's passive antithesis. Demotivated learners are people who, for a variety of reasons, have lost the desire to study; these causes may be linked to external or internal resources that start to lessen their enthusiasm to learn English (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009). This study seeks to analyze the demotivating influences of Jordanian undergraduate students in light of the background on motivation research. The reason for doing the current study is because demotivating influences have gotten little attention in earlier studies. Previous studies concentrated on the motivational aspects of learning a second or foreign language. But when learning a language, students could experience unfavorable influences. These unfavorable elements known as demotivating influences have not given much attention until recent years (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). More critical papers are necessary in order to investigate the topic among Jordanian setting. This approach is also expected to be helpful in providing demotivates with practical solutions to their problems.

B. Research Questions

The present research aims to answer the following questions:
1. What factors demotivate university students from studying English?
2. What are the most and the least demotivating factors for university students to study English?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Demotivation

There is not a lot of literature on demotivation because it's a relatively recent notion in L2 motivation research (Amemori, 2012; Ghadirzadeh et al. 2013; Huwari, 2021). Demotivating elements are important aspects that have a detrimental impact on the learner's attitudes and behaviors, resulting in undesirable learning outcomes (Ghadirzadeh et al., 2013). Demotivation is a circumstance that generates many issues throughout the process of learning a language and may result in the learner's full rejection. Dörnyei was a well-known psycholinguist who worked on this topic. Demotivation is defined by Dörnyei (1998) as "extrinsic circumstances that undermine or minimize the motivational base of a behavioral goal or ongoing action" (p. 5). Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) disagree with Dörnyei and Ushioda's definition of motivation, stating that it "may need to be widened to include both internal (i.e. resulted from the learners themselves such as low self-confidence and attitude,) and external (i.e. resulted from outside factors such as teachers' attitude, and textbooks,) factors" (p. 58). Furthermore, Dornyei (2001) defined demotivation as "particular external influences that impair or lessen the motivational foundation of a behavioral intention or an ongoing activity" (p. 143). L2 demotivation may thus be described as a decrease in motivation for language acquisition caused by either external or internal factors.

After completing their educational level, Jordanian students have to speak English fluently. However, not every student is qualified or driven to study a language. According to Dornyei (1990), students' desire to learn a language is influenced by their needs for accomplishment, attributions regarding prior failures, an integrative motivational subsystem, and an instrumental motivational subsystem. Additionally, he lists four elements of the integrative motivational subsystem, including an interest in other people, cultures, and languages, a desire to widen one's perspective and avoid provincialism, and a need for stimulation and challenges.

Focusing on demotivation, the ineffective utilization of instructional resources and language-learning activities affects students' motivation to learn languages (Takase, 2004). The given language study material may be tedious, less appealing or fascinating, challenging or too long to read. Demotivation does not always imply that a student has entirely lost motivation, according to Dornyei (2001). This simply indicates that alternative positive motives are still available to be triggered when the current incentive is limited by a strong negative element. For instance, even if a student's professors were incompetent or malicious, they may nevertheless inspire them to study English as a global language. The present study at Zarqa University in Jordan looks at the elements that demotivate undergraduate students from studying English.

B. Demotivation Factors in Learning English

Demotivating influences are one factor that might dampen pupils' enthusiasm for learning a language. However, there are negative variables that might demotivate students and interrupt the learning process, including language learning. Demotivating factors were mentioned by Dornyei (2001). Demotivating elements sap motivation and impede successful language acquisition.

There are two types of demotivating influences: internal and external forces. According to Erdogan and Tunaz (2012), our stimulation is determined by both intrinsic and external factors. Intrinsic motivation is defined as the internal motivation for learning. The inherent motives for language acquisition include interest, curiosity, independent mastery and judgment, and internal success criteria. Extrinsic causes, on the other hand, are external variables that influence language development. Parents, instructors, grades, friends, incentives, learning environment, and cultural context are some of these elements.

Using an exploratory factor analysis of the Demotivation Questionnaire of English Language Learning, Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) identified five demotivation factors: (a) Learning Contents and Materials, (b) Teachers' Competence and Teaching Styles, (c) Inadequate School Facilities, (d) Lack of Intrinsic Motivation, and (e) Test Scores. The data indicated that many Japanese students were demotivated by the factors Learning Contents and Materials and Test Scores.

Al-Khasawneh (2017) conducted a study to investigate the factors influencing Saudi undergraduate students' English as a Foreign Language (EFL) acquisition. The data was collected using a questionnaire adapted from Sakai and Kikuchi (2009). 101 students from King Khalid University included in this study. The data acquired in the current study was analyzed using descriptive statistics and the T-test. The data showed that class characteristics were the most demotivating elements impacting Saudi undergraduate students' EFL learning. Krishnan and Pathan (2013) explored the variables that demotivate L2 Pakistani undergraduate students. 116 students used as a sample of this study. The outcomes revealed that all 6 criteria were identified by the participants, with the most cited ones being teaching approach, lack of facilities, and course content.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design & Sampling

This study employed a quantitative research design to evaluate demotivation factors for learning English by 110 undergraduate students enrolled in the Faculty of Arts at Zarqa University (ZU) for the academic year 2021/2022. Furthermore, the directorate chosen for the current investigation was picked at random. The participants were ranged from 18 to 24 years. They had also studied English as a required subject at their prior schools for 12 years.

B. Data Collection

A survey was selected as the most appropriate data collecting strategy since it allowed for both qualitative and quantitative investigation of demotivation. Furthermore, a typical questionnaire is a highly organized data gathering tool in which the majority of items ask for extremely precise information.

C. Research Instrument

As a research tool, a questionnaire adapted from Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) was used in this study. Six categories were identified in the survey: class features, teacher conduct, and course content and teaching materials, low score effects, classroom atmosphere, and loss of interest and self-confidence. A pilot study with 30 students was undertaken to test the reliability of the research instrument. SPSS version was used to test the reliability analysis (16.0). Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire was .901, indicating that the instrument used in this study is highly reliable.

D. Procedures

The current study's procedures lasted roughly two weeks. The information was gathered during the first semester of the school year (2021-2022). A total of 199 questionnaires were distributed to students for the purpose of the study. The researchers finished the administration and collecting of the questionnaire. The students were given a brief description of the research's objective and significance. Furthermore, the researchers conveyed that no correct answer is required. The pupils notified that their responses would be kept private. The researchers explained to the pupils how they can response to the questionnaire that asked for clarifications. The pupils will require around 20 minutes completing the questionnaire. Only 110 of the 199 distributed questionnaires were declared genuine for analytic methods.

E. Data Analysis

SPSS version (16.0) was used to analyze the data in this study. To determine the demotivating variables among Jordanian EFL students, descriptive statistics were used. Each item's means and standard deviation are included.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The current study's findings are presented.

A. Demotivating Factors

The purpose of this section is to respond on: *What factors demotivate university students from studying English*? To answer this study topic, the researchers calculated means and standard deviations (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
DEMOTIVATING FACTORS

Factors	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Environment	110	4.2253	.57522
Low Scores	110	4.1909	.55534
Characteristics	110	3.9273	.69739
Teachers	110	3.9152	.52158
Materials	110	3.8985	.68443
Interest	110	3.8114	.56074
Valid N (listwise)	110		

Jordanian undergraduate students indicated various demotivating circumstances that prevent them from learning English, as shown in Table 1.The majority of the criteria were identical to those in Sakai and Kikuchi's (2009) framework.

Previous research such as (Al-Khairy, 2013; Al-Khasawneh, 2017; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Krishnan & Pathan, 2013; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009) found that factors such as the environment, low scores, characteristics, teachers, materials, and interest influenced students' motivation to learn English. These are the same criteria addressed in this study, although in a different order or arrangement in their earlier investigations.

B. The Most Demotivating Factors

This part aims to respond on: *What are the most and the least motivating factors for university students to study English?* This question is answered in detail in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
THE MOST AFFECTIVE DEMOTIVATING FACTOR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I was often compared to my friends	110	4.6364	.61670
I could not keep up with my classmates	110	4.6000	.66636
I had no access to the Internet	110	4.5773	.59206
I received poor grades on tests	110	4.5636	.64292
I disliked my classmates	110	4.4300	.74693
We didn't have a language lab at school	110	4.4245	.85329
Pictures, movies, and the like were not used	110	4.4091	.83825
I had a hard time memorizing vocabulary and Idioms	110	4.3455	.99942
Tapes were not used	110	4.2909	1.02577
Grammar was the foundation of all instruction	110	4.2455	.91055
Computer software was not used	110	4.2455	.85870
English questions were not clear	110	4.2182	.99892
I was never given the chance to converse in English	110	4.2091	.91967
For self-study, a large number of textbooks and extra materials were assigned	110	4.0636	.98872
Teachers' were not able to speak English very well	110	4.0636	1.08600
I was supposed to write phrases that were devoid of errors	110	4.0273	1.02679
It was required to memorize and translate the sentences in the text book.	110	3.9636	1.04861
Teachers made fun of students' mistakes	110	3.9545	1.16040
I had lost interest in English	110	3.9455	1.03015
The speed of the lesson was insufficient	110	3.9455	1.17181
Saw no sense in studying English	110	3.9455	1.17181
The classes were too crowded	110	3.9364	1.06897
I was scolded by the teacher	110	3.9000	1.21119
Teachers used one-sided explanations far too frequently	110	3.8182	1.24283
Teachers were reluctant to teach well	110	3.8091	1.09624
I gave up on my ambition to become an English speaker	110	3.8091	1.09624
The topics of the English sections in the textbook were not culturally grounded	110	3.7727	1.03746
The English parts in the textbook were uninteresting	110	3.7091	1.13611
I was supposed to repeat sentences after the teacher	110	3.6727	1.14226
The English sentences covered in the lessons were difficult to comprehend	110	3.6545	1.07887
I was forced to study English	110	3.5455	1.41185
Almost majority of the classes were created to prepare students for the University admission test	110	3.5091	1.47608
The topics of the English excerpts utilized in the classes had become obsolete	110	3.4818	1.22461
My friends did not like English	110	3.2000	1.41292
I couldn't speak English	110	2.9636	1.41374
Valid N (listwise)	110		

The first affective demotivating factor was reported as the classroom environment (M=4.22, SD=.575); pupils thought to be due some causes for this element as *My friend did not like English* (M=3.200, SD= 1.412); *I dislike my classmates* (M=4.300, SD=.746); and *I did not have access to the Internet* (M=4.577, SD=.592). Dörnyei (1998) and Hirvonen (2010), who found that the classroom environment discourages students from effectively learning English supported this study. One of the aspects that influenced Saudi pupils, according to Al-Khasawneh (2017), was the

classroom environment. According to Jomairi (2011), a lack of facilities may result in a bad L2 learning environment; as a result, classrooms should have the right instructional technologies, including video projectors, data displays, and listening labs.

Low test results were identified as the second most effective demotivating reason for Jordanian undergraduate students to study English (M=4.19, SD=.555).Among the concerns connected to this element, the students said that *I received poor grades on tests* (M=4.56, SD=.642), and *I couldn't speak English* (M=2.96, SD=1.41). Low exam results have been identified as a demotivating issue for Iranian undergraduate students learning English, according to a research done by Jomairi (2011). Low test results, according to Sakai and Kikuchi (2009), have a significant influence on learners' willingness to study English. As a result, it is the teachers' responsibility to ensure that students are motivated to improve their test and examination scores (Krishnan & Pathan, 2013). Furthermore, low scores were one of the reasons that influenced Saudi pupils, according to Al-Khasawneh (2017).

The third demotivating factor in learning English was classroom characteristics (M=3.92, SD=.697).The students mentioned *I was never given the chance to converse in English* (M=4.20, SD=.919); they are also *Grammar was the foundation of all instruction* (M=4.24, SD=.910), and *It was required to memorize and translate the sentences in the text book* (M=3.963, SD=1.048). This conclusion is consistent with Sakai and Kikuchi's (2009) findings, which found that classroom features are a demotivating factor for Japanese students. Furthermore, Lehikoinen and Leinonen (2010) agreed that this factor demotivates Japanese pupils from studying English. One of the aspects that influenced Saudi pupils, according to Al-Khasawneh (2017), was classroom characteristics.

The fourth affective demotivating component appears to be teachers' conduct (M=3.915, SD=.521). Students said that *I was scolded by the teacher* (M=3.90, SD=1.21) was one of the factors. This conclusion backs with Kikuchi's (2011) findings, which revealed that the least emotionally demotivating element mentioned by Japanese high school pupils was instructors' conduct. In his study, Al-Khasawneh (2017) found that classroom characteristics were the least influenced demotivating elements among Saudi pupils.

Course content and materials were evaluated as the fifth affective demotivating factor (M=3.89, SD=.684), with students citing reasons like as *The topics of the English sections in the textbook were not culturally grounded* (M=3.77, SD=1.03), *English questions were not clear* (M=4.21, SD=.99), and *For self-study, a large number of textbooks and extra materials were assigned* (M=4.06, SD=.98). This result is in line with the findings of Afrough, Rahimi and Zarafshan (2014), who found this element to be a demotivating factor for Iranian high school pupils learning English. Additionally, this problem prevents Pakistani undergraduate students from learning English effectively, according to Krishnan and Pathan (2013). Al-Khasawneh (2017) discovered that the course materials and content were the most demotivating factors for Saudi students in his study. Richards and Renandya (2002) claim that by meeting their requirements and fostering a greater desire to learn a second language, well-designed instructional materials may motivate L2 learners. On the other hand, poorly designed educational materials would fall short of the learners' expectations and discourage them from effectively learning the second language (Krishnan & Pathan, 2013).

Finally, lack of interest (M=3.81, SD=.560) appears to be the sixth affective demotivating component with the reasons of *I had lost my interest in English* (M=3.94, SD=1.03), *Saw no sense in studying English* (M=3.94, SD=1.17), and *I gave up on my ambition to become an English speaker* (M=3.80, SD=1.09). This finding is consistent with Dörnyei's (1998) and Krishnan and Pathan's (2013) research. Teachers must establish a less stressful environment in which pupils can be encouraged and motivated to study English in this regard. Learners will be able to overcome their apprehensions about learning English in this way (Krishnan & Pathan, 2013).

V. Conclusion and Recommendation

The current study looked into the elements that make studying English difficult for Jordanian students at Zarqa University. The findings identified six elements that influence students' ability to learn English (i.e. classroom environment, effects of low test scores, characteristics of classes, teacher's behavior, course contents and teaching materials, and lack of self-confidence and interest). Because of the study's findings, English language instructors in Jordan will be better equipped to pinpoint the root reasons of their students' lack of desire and offer remedies. The findings of this study would be of great interest to Jordanian academics studying motivation and demotivation. Therefore, more study on this subject is definitely advised in order to gain better understanding into this problem to support ESL/EFL students in learning English.

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Adjective Phrases in Initial Burst of Small Talk Influence Purchasing Decisions?

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Abstract—**This work aims to analyze the influence of adjective phrases in small talk on the purchasing decision in the Badung traditional market. Data were analyzed using measures adapted from Creswell (2007). In analyzing the data is based on the small talk classification of apologies, condole, congratulate, greet, thanks, bid, accept, and reject speech functions. As a result, most of the sellers in the Badung traditional market did not use adjective phrases in small talk to influence purchasing decisions. They have various strategies to greet and influence the buyer in small talk. In small talk, sellers and buyers can make negotiations and change purchasing decisions. During the data analysis, the researcher concluded that in doing small talk, the speaker must ensure that the interlocutor understands every utterance conveyed. Thus, there is a clear understanding. The conclusion is small talk does not only function as a greeting but also as a tool to create an ongoing communication relationship.**

Index Terms—**adjective phrase, small talk, purchasing decision, traditional market**

I. INTRODUCTION

Badung traditional market is a traditional market located in Bali, Indonesia. Balinese people, both sellers and buyers, dominate this traditional market. Generally, sellers and buyers in this traditional market communicate using the local language, Balinese. In other words, Balinese is the primary communication tool for various activities such as bidding on prices, selling products, promoting goods, and other transactions. Regarding traditional markets, several studies have identified that there has been a decline in traditional markets (see Gonzaléz & Dawson, 2015; Lee, 2017; Poesoro et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2016). First, product quality tends to be difficult to obtain. Usually, sellers in traditional markets sell out the goods at lower prices while the quality is not guaranteed (see Nelson, 1970). Furthermore, products in traditional markets are unorganized and dirty (Davies et al., 2022; Rusli, 2011). In modern markets, all products are usually neatly arranged and have transparent prices. Thus, buyers prefer shopping in modern markets (see Duch-Brown et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, traditional markets have a bargaining system or negotiation process between sellers and buyers, which can increase sales; this case is also found in Badung traditional markets. The consumers reach a decision when the information is clear in the bargaining process. Providing information about the products can influence consumer decisions to purchase. A purchase decision involves a sequence of choices formed by a consumer before making a purchase (Hanaysha, 2018). In other words, to reach an agreement between the seller and the buyer, small talk usually occurs in communication. According to Bose and Sgroi (2022), small talk makes individuals send messages that relate to future decision-making. In addition, she added that in a period of negotiation, there is often an initial burst of small talk.

Small talk is informal communication, situational, subconscious, habit-driven, and spontaneous (Pullin, 2010; Subramanian, 2006; Fleming, 2018). Usually, it starts with icebreakers or just to break the ice, such as greetings, general observations, and questions (Morel, 2005; Yang, 2012). Greeting and parting exchanges typically occur in the opening and closing phases of interactions and are obvious manifestations of small talk (Coupland, 2014; Justine, 2014; Holmes, 2000). Particularly, Balinese often greet by *rahajeng semeng* (good morning), *rahajeng siang* (good afternoon), *benjang kacumduk malih* (see you again), and *suksma* (thank you). After observing each other, Balinese generally say *kenken kabare?* (how are you?), *kude niki?* (how much is this?), *dados Kirang?* (can the price go down?), and so on.

Thus, small talk can state information about products that influence consumer decisions. As mentioned above, adjective phrases in the initial burst of small talk influence purchasing decisions. According to Abdul-Munim (2019), one practical use of the adjective phrase is to provide more information about the referent. An adjective phrase is a phrase that modifies a noun or pronoun (Frank, 1972). The adjective phrase has a complement, attribute, and adjunct (Leech & Svartvik, 1975). They stressed a complement completes the meaning, an attribute used to characterize, and an adjunct states detailed information on the state of the condition. One example of adjective phrases in small talk found in Badung traditional market is "*Tolih ne bawang ne kene jegeg ne*" (look at these, how beautiful the onions are).

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Especially the adjective phrase *"kene jegeg ne"* (how beautiful the onions) is an adjunct, stating information about the condition (onions). The point is that the adjective phrase in small talk encourages increased purchases in traditional markets because, in small talk, there is information buyers need, and in the end, the buyer decides to buy it. Therefore, this study addresses to analyze the influence of adjective phrases in small talk on the purchasing decision in the Badung traditional market and the variation of the Balinese lexicon used in the adjective phrase.

II. CONCEPT AND THEORY

This research is categorized as a pragmatic study. Pragmatics study focuses on the meaning of words or sentences attached to the context and analysis of speech acts. In this case, this study analyzes speech acts between sellers and buyers in doing small talk. According to Bublitz and Norrick (2011), pragmatics is frequently conceptualized as the science of language use, the study of context-dependent meaning and the study of speaker intended meaning, presupposing the existence of language, language user, and context on the one hand, and context-independent meaning on the other. Likewise, Yule and Widdowson (1996) stated that pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or a writer) and interpreted by a listener (or a reader). In line with Leech (1983) figured out that pragmatics is the study of meaning with situations (speech situations). The context of the speech determines the process of speech act because pragmatics is the study of meaning bound by context. In other words, pragmatics deals with the speaker's meaning, contextual meaning, implicature, politeness, presupposition, entailment, and speech act. According to Griffiths (2006), pragmatics is about the interaction of semantic knowledge with knowledge of the world, which considers the contexts of use; pragmatics is the study of language meaning.

In this sense, a small talk is a form of communication that is often done based on context. Small talk is an expression used to show courtesy and social etiquette in the social circle of society. According to Arifin (1984), small talk is a collection of words used to break the silence and maintain a preserved atmosphere. It means that small talk is more than just a language used to convey feelings or thoughts, discuss a problem, persuade, seduce, and so on. Even small talk is part of the custom of politeness in the language (Sugiono, 2009). Language politeness is closely related to the selection of language codes, social norms, and cultural systems that apply in a society (Chaer & Agustina, 2004). Likewise, Schneider (1988) also defined a feature type for small talk. It simply covers ice-breaking and silent features. Icebreaker features target interactions between strangers if other identified features apply to many constellation types. The function of simply breaking the ice is the first statement to start the next small story in response. It can also warm people socially, fuel the circle of interpersonal relationships, and advance conversations positively.

Furthermore, small talk is classified as an illocution speech act because small talk is an opening, framing, and social maintenance in a conversation situation that is classified as acknowledgment (Ibrahim, 1993). Acknowledgment is a speech used to express certain feelings to a speech partner or interlocutor (cf. Rahayuni et al., 2022; Soares et al., 2022). The utterances that include acknowledgments are:

1. Apologize
   Apologize is a speech that functions to express regret. This utterance shows that the speaker regrets the mistake against the interlocutor.
2. Condole
   Condole is a speech that functions to show sympathy for the disaster that someone has experienced. The utterance shows that the speaker sympathizes with the interlocutor's disaster.
3. Congratulate
   Congratulate is a speech that functions to express joy and happiness because of good news. This utterance refers to the speaker being happy to hear the interlocutor's achievement.
4. Greet
   Greet is a speech that functions to express sympathy and happiness because of meeting people.
5. Thanks
   Thanks is a speech that functions to express gratitude, such as getting assistance or information. This utterance also shows respect and joy for something that the interlocutor has done.
6. Bid
   The bid is a speech that functions to express good wishes, hopes, and offers to someone related to the future.
7. Accept
   Accept is a speech that functions to receive a message from an interlocutor. This utterance shows that the speaker respects something done by the interlocutor.
8. Reject
   Reject is a speech that functions to express a rejection (violate) from the interlocutor. This utterance indicates the speaker is less appreciative of something the interlocutor expects.

III. METHODS

The location of the research is Badung traditional market, Bali. Badung market is the largest traditional market in Bali. The uniqueness in this traditional market is not only in sellers dominated by Balinese but in communication

between sellers and buyers who predominantly use small talk before reaching an agreement. This study used a qualitative approach. According to Bogdan and Biklen (1982), qualitative research is descriptive; data is collected using words and pictures rather than numbers. Likewise, Kothari (2004) revealed that descriptive research studies are those that describe the characteristics of a particular individual or group. Qualitative research has a natural setting as a direct data source, focusing on the process rather than outcomes and products. Therefore, the type of data is oral (utterances). The data was obtained using observation, especially the conversation between sellers and buyers. Besides that, a tape recorder also was used to get the complete conversation. A tape recorder was useful to avoid missing conversations (main data). Then, data were analyzed using measures adapted from Creswell (2007), namely (a) record all data obtained from documentation and observation, (b) marking the form of pleasantries and phatic communion used, (c) describe the function of pleasantries in communication practice, (d) examine the use of the stales to see the valid data mode, (f) identify the form of the bases stale and phatic communion markers that appear dominant, and (g) write down points main findings as a conclusion.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the researchers displayed the data in a dialogue form. In the dialogue, there are several types of adjective phrases used by sellers and buyers when doing the small talk. Each data is interpreted based on the classification of speech acts and their functions: apologize, condole, congratulate, greet, thanks, bid, accept, and reject.

Overall, the data shown below is obtained from the field of Badung traditional market, which focuses on interactive communication between seller and buyer.

A. Reject Speech Function

The utterances below are included in the rejection category. However, the expression serves as a greeting between interlocutors.

Data 1:

Seller : *Apalagi nak-e? Jeruk nak-e? ada jeruk manis, mare alapan*
What else PART orange PART exist orange sweet just now tree
'What else do you want? Do you want orange? There are orange, just picked from the tree

Buyer : *Ampura, ndak dulu gek*
Sorry NEG Period (now) girl
'Sorry, not this time sis'

In data 1, the word "*ampura*" (sorry) refers to saying no or rejecting the offer. It does not mean to express sorry or apologize. Although the word *ampura* lexically means sorry, this context shows the rejection of the request submitted, where the refusal is done mildly. The initial burst of small talk in Data 1 has not yet influenced the buyer's purchasing decisions. However, it can be concluded that through small talk, there is a chance to persuade the buyer. Moreover, the information about the oranges' condition was stated by the seller "*Ade juuk manis, mare alapan*" (There are sweet oranges picked from the tree). In this case, the buyer will consider the offer.

Data 2:

Buyer : *Pas ne? aji kude niki pas ne?*
Fixed this Sir how this fixed this?
'How much is this, sir? How much this price exactly?'

Seller : *Pas ne 45*
Fixed this forty-five
'This is forty-five exactly'

Buyer : *45? mare 35 ngorang*
Forty-five just now thirty-five say
'Forty-five? You just say thirty-five'

Seller : *ane ken 35? memih dewa ratu*
REL which thirty-five oh my god!
'Which one is 35, oh my god! (shock)'

Buyer : *Tunian jero ngorang 35*
Before 3S say thirty-five
'You said thirty-five before'

The utterance *"mare 35 ngorang"* in data 2 conveyed by the seller confused the interlocutor. In the beginning, the buyer expected that the seller sure set the price. Then, *ane ken 35 memih dewa ratu* (oh my god!) indicates that the seller denies the utterances about the price. In addition, the buyer tried to remind her, "*Tunian jero ngorang 35*" (You

said thirty-five before). This utterance indicates that the buyer is trying to convince the seller to change the price to 35. From this conversation, small talk influences purchasing decision.

Data 3:

Seller   : *45   Jero*
                Forty-five 3S
                'It was forty-five, mam'

Buyer   : *Tuni   tingalin 35*
                Before   see   thirty-five
                'I see before (it was) thirty-five'

Seller   : *Niki juang be 40   be pas   ne*
                This take   it   forty it   fixed this
                'Just take, it is forty, it is fixed price'

Buyer   : *Sing   meli bawang nu   mael*
                NEG buy onion   still expensive
                'I don't buy onion, it is still expensive'

The *"tuni tingalin 35"* in Data 3 is a phatic phrase. In this context, the utterance refers to rejection. The expression is to disagree with the information heard or experienced previously. However, the seller tried to offer a lower price by saying, *"niki juang be 40 be pas ne"* (Just take, it is forty, it is the exact price). This utterance is intended to influence the interlocutor's purchasing decision. In this case, the buyer considers before deciding not to buy.

Data 4:

Buyer   : *Ten dapat 20   bu?*
                No   get   twenty mam
                'Can't I get twenty, mam?'

Seller   : *Ten, niki ampun paling mudah*
                No,   this already most   cheap
                'No, it's already the cheapest'

Small talk between seller and buyer in data 4 expresses rejection. The buyer uses the word negation to beg for the price of these goods to decrease. The use of negation on the request shows the attitude of the interlocutor that he is ready to buy it. As a result, the seller confidently says *"Ten"* (no). Instead, the seller provides specific information to show the final decision. In other words, there is no change in the purchasing decision. In this situation, small talk serves as a bridge to change the position, especially in purchasing decisions.

Data 5:

Buyer   : *Ten dados kirang?*
                No   can   less (down)
                'Can't be less?'

Seller   : *Niki ampun harga pas*
                This already price fixed
                'This is already fixed price'

Similar to the previous small talk, data 5 is identified as a rejection utterance, in which the interlocutor refuses the speaker's expectation in bargaining the price.

Data 6:

Buyer   : *Nyari ¼   manten bu. Kasi 15   ribu   nggih*
                Look for quarter only   mam. Give fifteen thousand please
                'I take quarter only mam. Please, give fifteen thousand'

Seller   : *Pas   ne   ampun, niki gek cantik.   Ibu   kasih dah 20*
                Fixed this already, this girl beautiful. Mam give ok   twenty
                'It's already fixed price pretty girl. I will give twenty'

Data 6 shows the process of bargaining between buyers and sellers. The utterance *Nyari ¼ manten bu. Kasi 15 ribu nggih"* (I take quarter only, mam. Please, give fifteen thousand) is expressed by the buyer to confirm that he is ready to purchase if the seller says yes. Unfortunately, the seller replied that *"Pas ne ampun niki gek cantik"* (It's fixed price already, girl). Pragmatically, this expression is to refuse the buyer's request actually; however, by adding *"gek cantik"* (pretty girl), speaker aims to attract the buyer's attention. The adjective phrase serves as a verbal compliment. Through this small talk, the seller switches the situation unconsciously and creates an opportunity to change the purchasing decisions, which, finally, the buyer decides to buy.

B. Thanks Speech Function

The following utterances are concluded in the thanks category. However, the expression serves as a greeting between interlocutors.

Data 7:
Buyer : *¼ bu ngihh*
     quarter mam please
     'quarter please'

Seller : *Suksma gek*
     Thank you girl
     'Thank you girl'

Data 8:
Seller : *Niki ampun luung, niki ampun nggih*
     This already good this already please
     'This is already good, here you go'

Buyer : *Suksma bu.*
     Thank you mam
     'Thank you mam'

The utterances in data 7 and 8 are classified as part of the thanks speech function. In particular, the adjective phrase "*Suksma*" refers to saying "Thank you," while "*gek*" is a personal deixis that is indicated for a younger woman. In Balinese, "*gek*" is used to show politeness and respect (see data 10). Thus, in this small talk, the seller implicitly uses "gek" to show respect and get the buyer's attention and not switch to other traders. In this case, the buyer will consider and decide to buy finally.

C. Accept Speech Function

The utterances below are included in the accept category. However, the expression serves as a greeting between interlocutors.

Data 9:
Buyer : *Sekilo bu. Dados milih bu nggih?*
     1Kg mam. Can choose mam please
     'One Kg mam. Can I choose (by myself) mam, please?'

Seller : *Niki lebih akeh nggih, dados pilih – pilih ten kenapi. Pilih ampun niki akeh*
     This more many yes, can select   NEG never mind Choose already this many
     'Yes, this is more, you can select it. It doesn't matter, choose this. These are many'

Communication that occurs in data 9 is included in the accept speech function. In this case, the two speakers who made small talk understood each other. It can be seen when the buyer is asked to choose the things by herself, *"dados milih bu nggih"* (Can I choose by myself, mam, please?). Then, the seller said, "*dados pilih-pilih ten kenapi*" (never mind, you can select it). Contextually, it is expressing agreement toward a buyer who decides to buy.

Data 10:
Seller : *Pas ne ampun niki gek cantik. Ibu kasih dah 20*
     Fixed this already this girl beautiful. Mam give ok twenty
     'This is already exactly beautiful g
irl. Mam give you twenty, ok'

Buyer : *¼ bu ngihh*
     quarter mam alright
     '(alright), quarter mam'

Data 11:
Seller : *Niki aji 35   akilo, kasi 35   nah. Paling mudah ampun niki*
     This price thirty-five per-kg, give thirty-five yes. Most cheap already this
     'This price is thirty-five per kg, (I) give thirty-five yes'. This is already cheapest'

Buyer : *Nggih bu, akilo nggih*
     Alright mam one Kg please
     'alright mam, one kg please'

Data 10 and 11 above are expressions of acceptance. An agreement is established between the speaker and the interlocutor as in the dialogue, and the buyer says *Pas ne ampun niki gek cantic. Ibu kasi dah 20*" (This is already exactly beautiful girl. Mam give you twenty, ok). Then, the buyer said, "*nggih bu akilo nggih*" (alright, mam, one Kg, please). Through the small talk, it can be concluded that stating prices directly to buyers can increase purchases. Therefore, stating prices directly and giving compliments are great marketing techniques (see data 10).

D. Bid Speech Function

The utterances below are included in the bid category. The expression referred to here is an expression of persuading, hoping, and offering to someone. Furthermore, the data is displayed in the following.

Data 12:

Seller   : *Tolih   ne   bawang   ne   kene   jegeg   ne*
           See   this   onion,   this   like this   good   this
           'Look at this onions, these are good'

Buyer   : *Pas   ne   aji,   kude   niki   pas   ne?*
           Exact   this   sir   how much   this   exact   this?
           'Exact this sir, how much exactly is this?'

Data 12 is identified as a bid speech function. In this case, *"Tolih je bawang ne kene jegeg ne"* (Look at these onions, these are good) is conveyed by the seller to persuade the buyer's attraction. Thus, buyers are enthusiastic to see the onions mentioned. An offer occurs in this communication; as seen in the above dialogue, the buyer says how much exactly is this?

Data 13:

Seller   : *Cari   apa   gek? Mai   gek   cantik.*
           Look for   what   girl   come here   girl   beautiful
           'What are you looking for, girl? Come here, pretty girl'

Buyer   : *Yang   ini   berapa   bu?*
           How   this   much   mam?
           'How much is this madam'

Data 14:

Seller   : *Napi   gek   cantik,   nyari   apa,   cabe?*
           What   girl   beautiful   search   what   chili?
           'What pretty girl? what are you looking for, chili?'

Buyer   : *Kude   ¼   bu?*
           How much   quarter   mam?
           'How much quarter mam?'

Contextually, the two speakers above are conducting bargaining activities (see data 13). It can be seen in the dialogue that the seller says, *"cari apa gek? Mai gek cantik"* (what are you looking for, girl? Come here, pretty girl). The seller, in this communication, tries to influence the buyer by giving a verbal compliment, *"mai gek cantik"* (come here, pretty girl). Then, the buyer responds by directly pointing to the item she is looking for. Likewise, in data 14, the seller mentions the item's name directly, namely *"cabe"* (chili), to get the buyer's attention. It can be ensured that there is a buying decision.

Data 15:

Seller   : *Mangga   12   ribu   1   kilo,   manis,   udah   mudah*
           Mango   twelve   thousand   one   Kilo   sweet   already   cheap
           'Mango twelve thousand per Kg, it is sweet and cheap'

Buyer   : *Mangga   napi   niki   bu?*
           Mango   what   this   mam?
           'what mango is this, mam?'

In line with data 15, the seller directly mentions the goods' name and the price, namely "*Mangga 12 ribu 1 Kilo, Manis, udah mudah*" (Mango is twelve thousand per Kg, it is sweet and cheap). Pragmatically, the seller wants to give a good impression on the seller and persuade buyers by emphasizing that this is cheap and sweet.

Data 16:

Seller   : *Ngalih   tabye   ne,   juang   ne   pang   patuh   care   dibelakang*
           Look for   chili   this   take   this   so   same   as   behind
           'Are you looking for chili? Take this. It is the same as the behind'

           ne   kene   ngidang   ngadep 60.   Ne   kene   sg   ngidang   ngadep.

                              This   this   can   sell   sixty. This   this   NEG can   sell
                              'This can be sell 60. While this cannot be sold'

    Buyer   : *ngindang   meli   ane   kene   gen?*
                              Can   buy   that   this   only
                              'Can I only buy this'

The utterance above is part of the bid speech function. In that situation, the seller offers the goods to the buyer by comparing them, namely *"ne juang ne pang patuh care dibelakang"* (the same as the behind). This expression intends to encourage the buyer to buy without hesitation. By providing comparisons, buyers assume that all goods available in these traditional markets are priced similarly. In other words, buyers do not need to waste time checking other items and decide to buy.

Data 17:
Seller   : *Meriki   dek   meli susu, gek 1,   gus 1   bangiang   seger   oger*
                              Come here younger buy   milk   girl one boy one so that   fresh   fit
                              'Come here buy milk younger girl one, boy one so that you will fresh and fit'

    Buyer   : *siki   manten   bu*
                              One   only   mam
                              'Only one mam'

The expression above is identified as a bid speech function. The seller offers her goods by mentioning the uses and functions of milk when consuming it. Thus, the interlocutor who hears the information feels a great need for the item. Of course, the way for each seller to persuade customers is various, but, in this case, it can be concluded that a seller is smart because she has a unique way of increasing sales.

Apart from the data obtained in Balinese, there is also data spoken in Indonesian. Then, they are categorized into small talk based on their type and function, especially data 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22. All of the data was obtained from interactive conversations between sellers and buyers in Badung traditional markets, as described below.

E. Accept Speech Function

The expressions below are included in the accept category.
Data 18:
Buyer   : *Lagi   mahal   ya?*
                              Still   expensive yes?
                              'Still expensive yes?'

    Seller   : *Iya,   kalo lagi   murah   banyak   dapet*
                              Yes,   if   still   cheap   a lot   get
                              'Yes, if it is still cheap, it gets a lot

The data above is identified as accept speech function. The phrase *"Iya, kalo lagi murah banyak dapat"* (Yes, if it is cheap, it gets a lot). The expression indicates approval of the speech delivered by the speaker.

Data 19:
Seller   : *wah,   ndak   ada   5   ribu…   bentar… niki   ada   gek,   stok   lama ini,*
                              INTJ NEG available five   thousand wait   here available girl   stock old   this
                              'Wah, it is not available for five thousand, wait… here it is girl, this is old stock,

                              kasih   dah   karna   nyampek   dapat   segitu.
                              Take   please because arrive   get   like that
                              'Please, take it because when arrived (you) got like that'

    Buyer   : *Masih   bagus,   bu?*
                              Still   good   mam
                              'Is it still good mam?'

    Seller   : *Bagus…masih   bisa   ini*
                              Good   still   can   this
                              'Good… It can still be used'

It can be seen from data 19 there is a negotiation between the seller and the buyer about the condition of the goods. In this position, the buyer asks *"masih bagus, bu?"* (is it still good, mam?). Then, the seller confirmed that *"bagus…masih bisa ini"* (good… It can still be used). Therefore, this expression is identified as an acceptance speech function. In a contextual sense, the seller aims to persuade the buyer.

Data 20:
Buyer   : *bisa   beli   segini?*

Can   buy   like this?
'Can I buy like this?

Seller   : *Bisa kok.   Kalo   gak   bisa,   ya   gak   jualan,   gak   dapat   uang   saya*
Can   PART   if   no   can   PART no   sell,   no   get   money   1S
'You can. If it cannot, I'm not selling, I will not get money'

The response from the interlocutor, *"bisa kok"* (yes, it can be), serves as an agreement for the speaker. In addition, the interlocutor emphasized that "*kalo gak bisa ya gak jualan, gak dapat uang saya*" (If it could not, I'm not selling, I will not get money). Therefore, this utterance categorizes as an acceptance speech function.

Data 21:
Seller   : *Harga   cabe   lagi   maut   sekarang*
Price   chili   still   expensive now
'Now, the price of chili still expensive'

Buyer   : *Harga   cabe   lagi   maut   ya?*
Price   chili   still   expensive PART
'The price of chili is still expensive?'

Seller   : *Iya*
Yes
'yes'

Buyer   : *Biasanya   dapat   segini   tuh*
Usually   get   like this PART
'Usually, I get like this'

Seller   : *Mau   gimana   lagi,   soalnya,   harga   segini.*
Will   how   more   because   price   like this
'What can I do, because the price is like this'

Biasanya   bisa   beli   2   tas,   sekarang   cuma   satu.
Usually   can   buy   two   bag   now   only   one
'Usually it can buy two bags, now only one'

This expression is categorized as agreement speech. It can be seen from the communication above that there is a negotiation between the seller and the buyer to reach an agreement as stated by the seller "*harga cabe lagi maut sekarang?*" (Now, the price of chili is still expensive). The word "*maut*" conveyed by the seller means death, but in Balinese, it refers to costly goods. Then, the buyer replies, *"biasanya dapat segini tuh"* (usually, I get like this) while pointing to the goods. Finally, the seller confirmed that "*Biasanya bisa beli 2 tas, sekarang cuma satu*" (Usually, it can buy two bags, now only one).

F. Reject Speech Function

The utterance is included in the reject category because the expression conveyed by the interlocutor does not match the speaker's expectations, as shown in data 22 below.
Data 22:
Seller   : *Halo,   apa   non?*
Hello,   what   Sis?
'Hello, what (are you looking for) sis?'

Buyer   : *Ada   mie   ABC?*
Exist noodles ABC?
'is there noodle ABC?'

Seller   : *Enggak,   jarang   disini,   enggak   laku,   supermarket   adanya*
NEG,   rare   here   NEG   salable   supermarket   exist
'No, it is rare here, it is not salable, exist in supermarket'

The phatic communion above, it can be seen that the buyer received an answer to her request beyond her expectation. In the dialogue, the buyer says, *"ada mie ABC?"* (is there noodle ABC?). Then, the seller said that "No, it's rare here, it's not salable, it exists in supermarkets." In this dialogue, implicitly, there is a rejection from the seller. So, it can be ascertained that there is no purchase decision.

V. CONCLUSION

To summarize, small talk is a way or strategy to influence purchasing decisions (see Coupland, 2014; Kimps et al., 2014; Makice, 2009; Schneider, 1989). In addition, small talk is a way to make a good impression, especially at the beginning of communication. Through small talk, a good communication relationship is created between the seller and the buyer. The analysis results found that the use of adjective phrases in small talk influences purchasing decisions, although not significantly. Especially adjective phrases such as *gek cantik* (pretty girl)*, gus yang baik hati* (a kind boy), *minum susu biar segar* (drinking milk can be fresh)*, buah manis untuk orang yang manis* (sweet fruit for sweet one) and so on. Literally, all of these phrases are verbal compliments to buyers, but contextually these phrases are marketing strategies and tools that can increase sales (see Lu et al., 2019; Yates & Major, 2015). Once again, small talk does not only function as a greeting but also as a tool to create an ongoing communication relationship. This research has yet to reveal Balinese adjective phrases that can influence purchasing decisions. Further research is needed to disclose Balinese adjective phrases that can influence purchasing decisions for Balinese people.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Perceptions of Linguistic and Professional Competences of Postgraduate Students in Bilingual Education

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Abstract—In the last two decades, the number of bilingual schools has increased considerably. The main objective of our research was to find out the perception of the competences acquired after Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) teaching among the students of a subject of the Master's Degree in Teacher Training[1], specialising in Physical Education (PE), at the University of Granada. The second objective was to analyse this information in order to establish improvements in the subject. To evaluate this study, 5 semi-structured interviews were conducted at the end of the course. After a first overall analysis of the interviews, the main categories that emerged were the improvement of language and teaching competences both at the macro-level in relation to the subject in general and at the micro-level in relation to their performance and to the practical PE session. The present research has already contributed to improving the organisation of the subject and improvements have been made, such as establishing the role of the PE teacher individually and restructuring the role of the organisation of the subject.

Index Terms—CLIL, ICLHE, bilingual education, bilingualism

I. INTRODUCTION

Nearly three decades have passed since the introduction of bilingual education in Europe following the White Paper on Education and Training (European Commission, 1995). However, the goal of learning at least two foreign languages in addition to one's mother tongue is still being pursued, at least in Spain. Although the introduction of bilingual programmes was quickly adopted by the different Autonomous Communities, there is still no national legislation setting minimum learning standards. The central government delegates these competences to the different Autonomous Communities and, consequently, we could say that Spain currently has 17 different bilingual education programmes.

Content and Language Integration Learning (CLIL) methodology is presented as a unifying factor and is spreading rapidly throughout the country. CLIL can be defined as a "dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Marsh et al., 2010, p. 2). Thus, although the primary objective will always be linked to the learning of content, language plays an important role in learning. Throughout the scientific literature, we can observe how the application of CLIL has produced different benefits both at primary (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas & Ruiz Cordero, 2018) and secondary education level (Lancaster, 2016; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Prieto-Arranz et al., 2015). However, some authors still argue the need for quality studies showing the benefits of CLIL at all educational levels (Goris et al., 2019; Pérez-Cañado, 2012).

CLIL methodology is increasingly being used in bilingual education as the best option for second language (L2) learning in schools. Specifically, in Andalusia, according to the Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia. Horizon 2020, PEDLA (Junta de Andalucía, 2016), there is great importance given to teacher training in CLIL methodology.

However, we are faced with the large-scale problem of CLIL teacher training that still demands a lot of improvements. A study carried out by Fernández-Sanjuro et al. (2019) showed that those primary school students who took part in the CLIL programme obtained lower values than their peers who did not participate in the programme. According to the author, a possible explanation could be the lack of teacher training involved in the application of these methodologies, as they did not receive any. In this line, different authors also point the lack of quality training for

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bilingual teachers so that they can implement quality education for their students with the accuracy needed (Aguilar & Rodríguez, 2012; Barrios & Milla Lara, 2018; Dafouz et al., 2007; Delicado Puerto & Pavón Vázquez, 2015; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Tsuchiya & Murillo, 2015).

In this vein, we may highlight a study carried out by the Bilingual Education Association in 2021, where 851 teachers (420 primary and 431 secondary school teachers) completed a questionnaire (Gisbert da Cruz et al., 2021). Approximately 65% of the respondents considered both the amount of linguistic and methodological training to be insufficient. On the other hand, approximately 53% of the participants considered receiving an insufficient quality of both linguistic and methodological training. In addition, we observe that teacher training is mainly carried out for teachers who are already working as bilingual teachers, forgetting the initial training for pre-service teachers.

In this study, we focus on the importance of covering the demand for training in bilingual teaching. This study considers the importance of training future teachers studying the Master's Degree in Teacher Training to acquire a minimum content through activities and strategies in communicative competences in English and competences related to CLIL methodology. As these students are postgraduate students, we implement the so-called ICLHE methodology (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education), a term used to refer to the application of CLIL adapted to the characteristics of higher education (Costa & Coleman, 2013; Méndez & Casal, 2018). The present study is part of a pilot study which analyses the perceptions after implementing a teaching-learning process using ICLHE in post-graduate students who may be future bilingual PE teachers. It is relevant to highlight this speciality since PE is a subject generally chosen to implement multilingual initiatives as CLIL in the schools (Salvador-García et al., 2019). It is important to note that Physical Education was bilingual with English as a second language in 74.03% of the total of bilingual public secondary schools in Andalusian (the autonomous community where this study takes place) in the school year 2020/2021 (Portal PID@, Junta de Andalucía). Therefore, it is needed to introduce bilingual education content in the training of future teachers.

The intervention of the current study is innovative: using the ICLHE methodology, we will teach the students how to apply CLIL in their future as teachers. It was decided to use the ICLHE methodology for two main reasons. Firstly, this methodology allows a flexible adaption to the linguistic competences of the Master's students, which are heterogeneous, ranging from B1 to C1 certification levels. Secondly, this methodology provides students with linguistic and methodological training useful for their professional future as bilingual teachers in secondary education levels, where the CLIL methodology is always used. Consequently, the students will learn concepts through their own experience to extrapolate in their future practice as teachers.

II. OBJECTIVE

The main objective of our research was to find out the perceived linguistic and professional competences acquired after applying the ICLHE approach among the students of a subject of the Master's Degree in Teacher Training, specialising in PE, at the University of Granada. The second objective was to analyse this information in order to establish improvements in the subject.

In the subject, the students participated in an intervention through several lessons where they assumed different roles that encouraged them to: a) improve communicative language competences in English (hereinafter called linguistic competences), specifically oral and written expression, oral and written comprehension and mediation, and; b) enhance their PE teaching competences (hereinafter called professional competences) included in the curriculum of the subject where teaching skills are developed.

III. METHODOLOGY

The methodology is explained focusing on the participants and context, the study design and procedure, and the description of the intervention.

A. Participants and Context

This study involved a total of 10 participants (40% women and 60% men) who were part of a group class of 33 students who participated for 3 months in the subject of *Learning and Teaching Physical Education* as part of the Master's Degree in Teacher Training at the University of Granada, where the ICLHE methodology was used. Regarding the initial English level, 4 participants (40%) had a B1 level, 2 participants (20%) had a B2 level, and 4 participants (40%) had a C1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

The sample size selected for the interviews was decided according to information-power criteria (Malterud et al., 2015). Thus, the main criteria were to be adequate informants and to include representation of each of the roles, so that we could gather all perspectives. The interviews were in Spanish so students could easily express their opinions. The selection of the participants for the interview was done by the teacher, who knew the students from the subject and, could therefore, choose the best candidates to help answer our research questions and, consequently, help her to improve the subject.

B. Study Design and Procedure

The design is an action-research study with one intervention group that includes a 3-month period of a specific intervention of bilingual teaching using the ICLHE methodology. After it, interviews were carried out to delve into the students' perception about their potential improvements within their linguistic and professional competences, and secondly, to set some improvements in the subject. Prior to the study, the participants were informed about the study and signed an informed consent form regarding the processing of data in the research according to the Helsinki Declaration and the indications of the Ethics Committee of the University of Granada. In addition, at the beginning of the interview, they were reminded of the ethical precepts of qualitative research, such as the confidential treatment of their data assuring anonymity.

After finishing the intervention, all the students within the class group completed a questionnaire (that has not been included in the present article), and then, 5 semi-structured interviews were carried out with the participation of two students within each of them. The interviewers were two researchers with expertise on both qualitative research and bilingual education at university level. The interviews, performed in Spanish, offered an opportunity to delve into different topics for which the questionnaire had proved to be limiting, such as the development of their linguistic and professional competences, the motivation behind the students' answers to the questionnaire, and their experience within the subject. After each interview, the interviewers made a brief analysis to facilitate the emergence of new potential themes and areas of interest that were included as new research questions in the following interviews, in order to gather a wider range of information. The coding of the interviews was carried out using the MAXQDA22 software. The codes were analysed and grouped into themes. Subsequently, these themes were contrasted with the research questions to check if the generated information answered the research questions.

C. Description of the ICLHE Intervention

The intervention occurred for 7.5 hours/week (3 sessions/week on Monday, Wednesdays and Thursday from 16:00h to 18:30h), for 3 months, from December 2020 to February 2021, in the School of Sport Sciences at University of Granada. Theory and practical lessons were conducted using the English language as the priority communicative language within the full intervention. Nevertheless, different ICLHE strategies were implemented to accomplish the acquisition of the content and language, such as: a) the use of translanguaging[2], mostly in the first theoretical lessons and in the different sessions designed by the students and; b) the use of the scaffolding language performed by both teacher and students, through visual tools like the whiteboard, images and the emphasis on key words during the course of the subject.

During the intervention the students assumed two roles: a) "Role of the PE teacher", and b) "Role of the organization of the subject". Regarding the first role, students had to carry out a practical PE session in pairs, acting as a teacher to their peers, who acted as pupils. As for the second role, the students divided into groups contributed to the dynamics of the subject by fulfilling an organisational function in the subject, thus making them active participants in the process. The different roles performed in class by the students are explained below:

a. **Teacher's collaborators.** It is highly demanding, and it requires working closely with the teacher. Specific activities include monitoring attendance, providing feedback to their colleagues and assessing the activities carried out in class.

b. **Superintendents.** It consists of assessing the role of the physical education teacher that each student assumes during a session. Specific activities include designing an assessment tool in English for the PE teacher (usually a rubric), providing feedback and assessing the final work of the PE session.

c. **Administration staff.** It consists of managing the group's communication and sharing the resources created for the rest of the group. Specific activities include organising a communication system within the group, creating and maintaining a profile of the subject on social networks, and creating a virtual space to house all the materials produced during the subject.

d. **Language teachers.** It consists of being the English language teachers in the subject. Specific activities include making a glossary of physical education terms learned in each session throughout the course, making posts with the vocabulary learned and helping during the classes to find unknown vocabulary or expressions.

e. **Diary group.** It consists of preparing a diary that includes relevant aspects of the subject content in each PE session. Specific activities include taking note of the feedback provided by the teacher and superintendents in all PE sessions and preparing a visual diary of each PE session with this learning.

f. **Final activity.** It consists of creating a final activity as a surprise for the group in the last session. The activity is configured in exclusive consultation with the teacher, in order to maintain the surprise factor. It is an emotional activity, as a farewell that serves to end the classes of this subject and the classes of the Master's Degree in Teacher Training. Moreover, for many of them, it will also be the last class at the University and perhaps of their educational stage.

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[2] Adopting Vogel and Garcia's (2017) meaning, we understand translanguaging here as a unitary system in which the entire linguistic repertoire of a person as a bilingual is consciously used.

IV. RESULTS

The main objective of the current study was to identify the perceptions of the students related to their linguistic and professional competences, which will be presented together in the results. Each participant was assigned a code that will appear in parentheses at the end of each transcript, e.g. (P_213), in order to preserve the anonymity of the respondents. After the analysis of the different interviews, we observed the difficulty of the students to differentiate how they independently improved each of the two competences, since both are closely interrelated. Nevertheless, this is a preliminary and positive result which is highly related to the main objective of ICLHE, where learners must feel that they have worked on both content and language together. Therefore, the results are presented below, differentiated by the roles played by the students (role of PE teacher and role of the organization of the subject), showing together both the student́s perceived linguistic and professional competences.

A. Perceptions of Linguistic and Professional Competences in the Role of the PE Teacher

The students perceived improvements in their linguistic and professional competences after performing their role as a bilingual PE teacher during the session. They perceived the experience of teaching a session (i.e., playing the role of a bilingual PE teacher), as something quite positive involving the practice of the language skills in English; actually, they perceived an improvement in the development of their linguistic competences. Additionally, the experience of being as close as possible to the reality of a PE teacher is also perceived as something positive for their future, including a perceived improvement in their professional competence. The participants P_211 and P_216 express with the following words:

"I think the fact of having to teach a PE class in English, the fact of having to attend the PE classes of the rest of your classmates because you have to [...] be aware of what they tell you, of what they explain to you, of the activities, of listening to the video that they had uploaded on Instagram so that you know the content of the session, of creating your own worksheet that you have to hand in with all the exercises, so all of that I think contributes to both, English and what a PE teacher is." (P_211)

"In the end, I mean, seeing the experience, it makes you more aware of the reality of what you are going to find in the classroom. That's why I say that it's been the other way round, experiencing practical classes and having to present and so on. Well, look, this is what I'm going to find in a school where there are kids who, for the most part, have practically no idea of English and I had to be able to adapt and have to take forward the contents of PE over English, even though it's my working tool, so that's why I say that I liked the experience. I said at first, I didn't think about it and in the end, I liked the experience a lot." (P_216)

Regarding the perceived improvement in language skills, we can highlight a more specific development of speaking and listening skills, but with a special emphasis on the learning of PE specific contents. Therefore, both competences are improved, as the P_213 explains to us:

"During the project we improved our bilingualism skills, especially in the specific area of PE because there was a lot of vocabulary that we were looking at that I had no idea about, maybe I would have made up any word that I could have understood but not the specific vocabulary, and those are little things that you learn or the rubrics or when it comes to giving feedback as superintendents, as they themselves were also making progress, I was just not practising it myself, but I can see that the boy is improving at the same time as he is using a certain vocabulary. You listen to different people speaking, it is not the same to listen to someone who has a C1 in English as it could be, for example, the Hulk[3] who spoke [...], and he goes from one word to another and I don't understand him, and The Teacher starts to talk and The Teacher is like a typical Spanish person who speaks English, do you understand me?" (P_213)

It seems that conducting a bilingual PE session was a challenge for the students, especially for those with a slightly lower level of English. Consequently, some participants indicated the need to memorise and be well prepared to avoid improvisation, which is a key aspect in the development of students' professional competences. We can highlight how P_212 and P_214 dealt with the challenge by carrying out a good planning:

"So, the fact of doing it in English is true that I was much more nervous than I would have been on a normal day, but it also helped me to realise that I could do it because I did it and nothing happened, so I realised that if I prepare it well then, I can also do it in English. It helped me a lot that day and I realised that I could do it well and that nothing would happen." (P_212)

"I prepared the session word by word, as I am stricter, so I learnt it and let it go. Thanks to that I did well." (P_214)

An interesting result is that some students, despite being more nervous about conducting the session in English, did not perceive that their level of English affected the quality and type of session that they could teach. However, some participants felt that their English level, lower or higher, did affect their results in the evaluation of the session, even though it was not a criterion to be assessed.

"For example, our session was better than another one and we got lower marks because, maybe, we didn't have a good English pronunciation". (P_219)

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[3] The names represented with Marvel characters correspond to people who are not part of the interviews, except for the main teacher of the subject who is represented with The Teacher.

"In fact, what caught my attention is that there is a superintendent whose level was not… (…), he was not the best and when he had to evaluate a couple who spoke super well, he told them to be careful because you speak so well that you are doing it too fast, [what you say cannot be] not understood and the one who spoke "badly" was very good because he understood you. Because it depends on the evaluator, if your level is lower than the one you are evaluating, you haven't understood anything, but you are doing great. And when it's the turn of one who has your level, you say it's great because you have been understood, so that shocked me a bit, well it didn't influence but...also you should value that the others are doing it, that you haven't understood it, but don't put it as a negative part of it, hey you speak so well that nobody has understood it." (P_218)

Lastly, although the general participants' perceptions are in agreement with the fact that both linguistic and professional competences are improved through the role of PE teacher, they felt that the experience would be more realistic if it were carried out individually rather than in pairs.

"Well, it's a bit modified, it's a session, it's not the real thing that you're going to experience later on. Firstly, because there were a lot of students, secondly because we were two teachers and thirdly because they were university students. So, it helps you to relax, but then what you find is what happened to Thor, Thor is going to tell you that the session was great and now he arrives at the high school and says this is what it is." (P_218)

"For example, we don't think it's appropriate to have two people teaching a class, because of course, it's not the same for a group to be attentive to one person, but now imagine that you're doing an exercise and the superintendents say "change to you" (P_219 points to the partner), so now suddenly someone comes out who wasn't the current teacher, and of course, you have to always be attentive to what they're doing. And it's not the same as being aware of the same group and that group being aware of you, that the person is changing and so on. I didn't like it in that sense." (P_219)

"It's good to give the session, but I think it's true that it's better to do it individually, to do it yourself and you are the protagonist. But well, it could have been divided or it could have been done that way." (P_2110)

B. Perceptions of Linguistic and Professional Competences in the Role of the Organization of the Subject

Regarding the perceptions of both linguistic and professional competence improvements within the role of organisation of the subject, we can clearly find different opinions depending on the role they were assigned. This is due to the fact that some roles required more commitment and work than others. In the case of those roles that required a higher level of involvement in the subject, we can underline that they perceived an improvement in their linguistic competences, as they were able to practise their language skills more, and in their professional competences, as they were able to carry out activities proper of a teacher, thanks to the performance of the role.

"The fact of doing many different things, of evaluating, of going to tutorials, of being in contact with people, listening to their ideas and I like that a lot and I think I have improved a lot in many aspects that before maybe I was ashamed of. The fact of speaking to the public I already speak perfectly, I mean, I get nervous normally, but I have improved a lot, the way of communicating, the fact of being clearer in what I say." (P_211)

"In the end, I really liked the superintendent role because it makes you be attentive and empathise not only with your situation as a teacher, but also with that of all your classmates. So of course, you're in the middle of the session, you're not just playing a game, you're watching from the outside what's happening to your classmate [who is playing the role of] the teacher, so you say, well, this could happen to me tomorrow, so of course you're learning from your mistakes and their mistakes. So, of course, I think you learn more than in other roles in that sense." (P_216)

"Being more aware of the specific words, because we actually prepared the glossary and we uploaded it, but surely not everyone checked the vocabulary, the words every day, [...] we had to prepare it, well, you know, it's more [...] in your mind, and I think we have worked on it more. So I recognise, or I am able to recognise these words more easily, or they come to my mind, because I have worked on them, not just seen them." (P_218)

"And then I also like the diary, I really like to be attentive in the classes, because of what you said about the teacher, because you notice the mistakes and then that helps us to improve ourselves. And if you can give a "take home message" to others and that is also useful to them, well, that's why we chose it." [...] *"well, above all, in looking at the children, the problems they may have in terms of attention, or the lack of feedback or in placing the children in the space in that sense, how to distribute the class, that I didn't get the technical name in that aspect."* (P_219)

However, we found that those participants who participated in a less involved role of the organization of the subject did not perceive any improvement in either their linguistic or professional competences, as indicated by P_213 on several occasions in the interview and P_212:

"So our work has not been three months like in the case of our colleagues, because maybe the superintendents or the issue of the glossary and all that stuff, they have been constantly in each session having to do work at home. [...] A week passed, another week passed, March has arrived and two weeks before it was "look, guys, you do this or this, come on, a week to organise."(P_213)

"In terms of the role we have played, we think it has been like... the one with the least participation in the whole project in terms of English or bilingualism."(P_213)

"We didn't really do anything, we just talked in the group and said, man, it's been two months and we still haven't done anything."(P_213)

"Then, in my role, I haven't learnt anything about the subject because in the end, I uploaded videos, I uploaded photos which is fun but no, I think it depends on the role you have in the subject you learn more or less because it's not the same to be a Teacher Collaborator which is what she was doing than what I was doing, so it depends a lot." (P_212)

V. MAIN CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusion answers the first objective of our research, which consisted in finding out the perception of the linguistic and professional competences acquired after the intervention using ICLHE methodology. We can conclude that the students perceived high improvements in both their linguistic and professional competences after finishing the subject using the ICLHE approach.

The second objective was to analyse this information in order to establish improvements in the subject. Nowadays, we can confirm that the results obtained in the interview were provided to the teacher and she included several improvements in the subject in the following academic year. These improvements were focused on reorganizing some aspects of the subject regarding the role of PE teacher and the role of the organization of the subject.

Regarding the role of PE teacher, the students confirmed that teaching the PE session encouraged them to reflect on their own linguistic competence. In order to carry out this session in a comprehensible way, the students had to search for resources that allowed them to express themselves and be understood, regardless of their English level. The students stated that, in reality, they work individually and not in pairs, and they proposed to have the full "PE teacher" session individually. Since the role as a bilingual PE teacher is an enriching experience and highly useful for the students, as they reported, the teacher decided to implement the "PE teacher" sessions in the next academic year individually instead of in pairs.

In terms of the roles of the organization of the subject, there are, according to the results, some roles that promote a higher development of linguistic competences than others, because they have a more active involvement. This also affected the professional competence, where some roles were more encouraged to improve this competence compared to others. In addition, there are some roles that were not as relevant as expected. For these reasons, in the following academic year, some updates were implemented in the roles of the organization of the subject. The roles that required less involvement were deleted, and the number of participants in the more involved roles increased, which allowed a more equal distribution of the work among the students.

In this publication, we have focused on the results related to the teaching practice. However, this research has provided other useful information regarding the role of PE teacher, which may be used as a reflective process of his/her own practice. In the future, we would like to approach this same methodology from other perspectives asking for other research interests, and generate a multicase study that includes the results concluded from the groups in different academic years within the subject with the aim of making this project transferable to other contexts.

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Saudi EFL Teachers' and Students' Perceptions Towards Using English-Arabic Code Switching as a Teaching and Learning Strategy

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers' and students' perceptions towards using CS (code-switching) in teaching and learning English at Saudi secondary schools. It also attempted to identify EFL teachers and students' reasons for using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools. The sample of the study consisted of 100 teachers and 122 students who were randomly selected from secondary schools in the city of Riyadh. The data of the study were collected via a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. Moreover, this instrument was validated by ten university EFL professors, and its reliability was achieved by calculating Cronbach Alpha formula. The findings of the study revealed that teachers and students believed that CS was an effective strategy in helping students to understand unfamiliar topics, facilitating students' learning of new grammatical structures, increasing student-teacher interaction, and enlivening the atmosphere of the class. Finally, teachers and students agreed that the most important reasons behind using CS were increasing comprehension, avoiding misunderstanding, eliciting better responses from students, and filling gaps in a classroom conversation.

Index Terms—code- switching, perceptions, questionnaire, teaching, learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Interest in teaching English has become essential in Saudi Arabia because of its geographical, political, and economic importance as the world's largest oil producer. Hence, in 2011 there was a tendency to expand the teaching of English from kindergarten to university, relying on the pressing need of the Kingdom for that language. Therefore, the education system experienced a renovation in 2011 with the decision of the Ministry of Education to implement the start of teaching English from grade four instead of grade six. Then the Ministry of Education resolved to start the teaching of English in the second and third grades in 2018. The Ministry of Education has adopted high quality English language curricula that meet modern national standards for teaching English as part of an English language development project (Assulaimani, 2019). Although teachers are expected to use English in classrooms, they use Arabic in their language teaching classes (Dykhanova, 2015). This phenomenon where teachers or students switch between languages is defined as code switching (CS).

"CS is a characteristic feature of the speech of bilingual and multilingual speakers irrespective of geographical location" (Yaseen et al., 2021, p. 110). Myers (2008) describes CS as "a linguistic term usually used when learners of a second language (L2) include elements of their mother tongue in their speech" (p. 43). Muysken (1995) suggests that CS is a very common and widespread form of bilingual interaction, demanding a considerable amount of linguistic competence in two languages.

It is likely that CS in EFL classrooms is a contentious issue among linguists, educators and decision makers (Chen & Ting, 2011). Teachers of English confront challenges in teaching low level learners for they still have not achieved a strong foundation in the language (Lee, 2016). Furthermore, many teachers admit that they continue to exploit CS as a strategy to maximize comprehension and produce a better natural learning environment (Setati, 1998).

Nowadays, a new trend considers CS to be a natural act which seems to have certain functions in the conversation done by bilinguals and multilinguals (Rabab'ah & Al-Yasin, 2017). Some recent studies suggest that CS performs an important role in L2 acquisition and that its use might be an important competence when used correctly by speakers of several languages (Yulandari et al., 2019). Since this phenomenon is considered universal, it is no wonder that it occurs in the speech of EFL students and teachers whose native language is not English. Willis (1996) asserts that teachers could permit the first language in the classroom if (a) students have queries and could not state them in English; (b) the teacher asks about the exact equivalent of vocabulary in L1; (c) the teacher has to quickly clarify a concept; (d) the students compare L2 to L1; and (e) the students are doing translation activities.

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II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although the policy of Saudi Ministry of Education stresses the need to promote EFL students' communicative competence through utilizing only L2 in the classroom, the real practice in the classrooms is different. CS is a strategy which is still practiced by teachers of English to facilitate the learning process for students when faced with a communication breakdown in English, particularly with students with limited language proficiency. Therefore, the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms presents a phenomenon which has not been explored thoroughly in the Saudi high school context.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The researchers hope that the results of this study will provide valuable feedback for EFL teachers, supervisors, curricula designers, and students in order to improve the efficiency of teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools. Besides, this study will pave the way for carrying out more studies in this important field.

IV. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study attempted to investigate EFL teachers and students' perceptions towards using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools. It also aimed to identify EFL teachers and students' reasons for using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools.

V. QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study aims to address the following questions:
1. What are EFL teachers' and students' perceptions towards using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools?
2. What are the EFL teachers' and students' reasons for using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools?

VI. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Recent Studies on Code-Switching

Yaseen et al. (2021) conducted a study to investigate the frequency and the functions of code switching in informal conversations among Jordanian pilots. Moreover, it examined the most frequent English expressions that the pilots switch to in their informal Arabic discourse. The sample consisted of eight Jordanian pilots. The data of the study were collected by tape-recording their informal conversations in three sessions. The findings of the study revealed that the pilots used cod-switching for the following reasons: to compensate for the lack of exact equivalent words in Arabic, to avoid interruption of communication, to replace long Arabic technical phrases with short English acronyms, to talk about aviation titles, to quote some expressions from speakers, to say numbers, to talk about names of institutions and paces, and to use English formulaic phrases.

Al Tale' and AlQahtani (2022) examined the effectiveness of code-switching versus target-language-only teaching strategies on beginner students' learning and affective sustenance of reading comprehension from their points of views. It also explored the reasons for students' preference of receiving instruction via code-switching or L2 only. The sample of the study consisted of 52 female EFL Saudi University students. Furthermore, the data were collected via a questionnaire and interviews. Moreover, the results of the study showed that students advocated using code-switching as a teaching strategy in their reading comprehension classes. Finally, the study recommended adopting code-switching for EFL beginners to facilitate learning.

Patmasari et al. (2022) carried out a study to explore teachers' and students' perceptions towards using code-switching in the EFL learning. The sample of the study was composed of two teachers and forty students. The study was conducted I a senior high school in Indonesia. In addition, the data of the study was collected through a questionnaire and semi-structured interview. The data was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results of the study indicated that teachers rarely use code-switching in the EFL classroom. However, students had positive attitudes towards the use of code-switching.

B. Approaches to Code Switching

There are three theoretical approaches to CS which have evolved over the last few decades: the sociolinguistic, the structural, and the psycholinguistic approaches. The sociolinguistic approach analyzes the relation between language and society (Piantari et al., 2011). According to Hymes (1972), the speaker's choice of "a particular language or language variety" in a conversation is determined by the social circumstances, norms of interaction, and areas of conversation. Sociolinguistics does not emphasize the structure of a language, but it emphasizes on "how the language is used in its social and cultural context", as well as the role of social factors behind CS. Gardner-Chloros (2009) presents three factors which are associated with CS from a sociolinguistic perspective: factors independent of speakers which impact the speakers in a certain community, "factors dependent on the speakers," and factors within the

conversation. The Structural Approach concentrates on identifying the syntactic and morphosyntactic constraints on CS (Al-Hourani, 2016; Boztepe, 2003). It tries to identify the structural features of morphosyntactic patterns underlying the grammar of CS (Boztepe, 2003). Research in this area focuses on the varieties of CS structures at which the switching between languages is possible (Othman, 2016). According to Poplack and Meechan (1995), CS is the "juxtaposition of sentences or sentence fragments, each of which is internally consistent with the morphological and syntactic (and optionally, phonological) rules of its lexifier language" (p. 200).

An important term in the structural approach to CS is constraint, "a condition restricting the combination of two languages" in a single sentence (Keller, 2020). Poplack (1980) suggests three types of constraints to the production of CS. First, "the equivalence constraint" which indicates that CS occurs "at points where juxtaposition of L1 and L2 elements does not violate a syntactic rule of either language" (p. 585). The second constraint is "size-of-constituent" which suggests that higher-levels components like "sentences and clauses" are switched more often than lower-levels components such as nouns and verbs (p. 586). Third, "the free morpheme constraint" where the "codes may be switched after any constituent in discourse provided that constituent is not a bound morpheme" (p. 586).

The psycholinguistic approach considers CS a cognitive action by which "several languages are stored and simultaneously processed in one human brain" (Schmidt, 2014). Researchers who studied CS practices under this approach covered topics such as the brain responses to CS, the comprehension of language switches, and the links between CS and the cognitive lexicon (Wang & Liu, 2016). According to Omar et al. (2012), the psycholinguistic approach, however, regards CS as being intrapersonal, focusing on individual's internal and cognitive processes. This approach to CS deals with "language alternation that is stimulated not by the intentions of the speaker but by the specific conditions of language production" (Othman, 2016, p. 14). This means, the focus of the psycholinguistic approach is not on how the language is used (the sociolinguistic approach) nor the system (the structural approach) "but the processes taking place in the speaker's brain: lexical items that are similar or identical in both languages can function as a trigger for the alternation from one language to another" (Othman, 2016, p. 14).

C. Types of Code Switching

Poplack (1980) conducted the first concrete and in-depth research on types of CS. He recognized three different types of CS including: "inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and tag-switching" (p. 614). According to Poplack (1980), inter-sentential CS involves switching utterances from one language to another, where complete sentences from two languages occur at sentence or clause boundaries (a complete sentence or clause in L1 complements a sentence or clause in L2). Hoffmann (1991) defines inter-sentential switching as the switching which takes place between sentences, where each sentence is in different language. As in the following example, in which the speaker switches between Arabic (in *italics*) and English (in **bold**): *Endi Fekrah*. It's amazing! (Translation: I have an idea. It's amazing!).

The second type, intra-sentential, is using two languages "within a single sentence" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 101). According to Lipski (1985), the switching is "done in the middle of the sentence with no interruptions, hesitations, or pauses" (p. 19). This type of switching is considered to be the highest complicated type of switching as "the switch to a different language can either occur within clause boundary or even within the word boundary" (Nguyen, 2015, p. 15). Moreover, the complexity of this type comes from "the high probability of violation of syntactic rules, as well as the requirement of a great knowledge of both grammars and how they map onto each other" (Othman, 2016). In the following example, the speaker switches between Arabic (in *italics*) and English (in **bold**): *Al-Mawdoo3* **is more complicated than I expected**. (Translation: The issue is more complicated than I expected.).

Tag-switching, otherwise known as extra-sentential or emblematic CS "involves the insertion of a tag from one language into an utterance in the other language" (Romaine, 1995, p. 122). Tag- switching can be "an exclamation, a tag, or a parenthetical in another language than the rest of the sentence" (Appel & Muysken, 1987, p. 118). Tag-switching is a simple type of CS that can occur at a number of locations in utterances "without violating the syntactic rules" (Romaine, 1995, p. 122), in contrast with intra-sentential switching which involves high syntactic risk of violating grammar rules (Schmidt, 2014, p. 25). Poplack (1980) asserts that tag-switching includes small units from a language (tags and fillers) that are inserted to larger units in another language. For example, someone could switch from English (in **bold**) to Arabic (in *italics*) as follows: **You shouldn't use your cell phone in the class**. *Tamam!* (Translation: You should not use your cell phone in the class. Okay!).

D. Views Supporting Code Switching

A number of educators concluded that CS must not be viewed as a teacher's weakness but as an educating technique (Dash, 2002; Tang, 2002). Ellis and Shintani (2013) argue that instructors frequently relate their usage of CS to what they believe to be "a response to the demands in the classroom," and not as a result of its cognitive importance in the learning of the target language. Miles (2004) states that it may not necessarily be productive to exclude the first language of the students so as to improve the exposure of the students to the target language. Most notably, many instructors found it difficult or almost difficult to teach the L2 without occasional recourse to the students' first language (Cook, 2002).

Lee (2016) discovered that the majority of ESL instructors assume that CS needs to be exploited in teaching since it allows students to learn English. However, instructors feel that it should only be utilized when there is a necessity, suggesting that teachers favor to limit CS use. Similarly, Brown (2006) equally supports taking advantage of the first

language to facilitate the mastering of the target language and to harmonize different capacities of language competency. Likewise, Cook (2002) declares that teachers' CS in the class helps resemble the outside world. In a similar way, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) report numerous CS positive functions such as enhancing vocabulary and grammar, besides relaxing students and fostering their comprehension.

E. Views Opposing Code Switching

The negative impact of CS has been discussed extensively in the literature (Then & Ting, 2011). Many scholars think that using CS in the classroom may indicate that the teaching strategy is going wrong (Willis, 1996). Similarly, Cook (2001) and Richards and Rodgers (2001), assert that CS reduces the exposure to target language. Eldridge (1996) suggests decreasing CS and expanding the usage of L2 in the classroom. He does not encourage utilizing mother tongue in the classroom because it hinders target language learning. The amount of the foreign language input is particularly vital because very small chances exist for access to target language away from the classroom (Duff & Polio, 1990). In the naturalistic approach to learning, learners should be immersed in L2, and educators should allow "the opportunity for students to be fully exposed to the target language" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

Cook (2002) states that if there is not one shared L1 language to communicate with all students, and if the teacher could not speak the learners' L1, CS in such classrooms definitely seems impossible. Along the same lines, Miles (2004) confirms that in multilingual classrooms where students have multiple first languages, which the teachers do not know and could not utilize in their classrooms, the use of first language would certainly not be advantageous. Martin (2004) criticized CS indicating that "the use of a local language alongside the 'official language' of the lesson is a well-known phenomenon and yet it is often lambasted as 'bad practice', blamed on the teacher's lack of English language competence" (p. 88). In language classrooms, where learners utilize L2 to learn it, CS can be viewed as deducting from the volume of exposure to L2 and presenting "a bad language model for students" (Thornbury, 1999). CS may indeed lead to lack of fluency in target language (Sert, 2005).

VII. METHOD

A. Participants

The population of the study consisted of all EFL female teachers and students enrolled in secondary public schools in the city of Riyadh in the first semester of the academic year 2020- 2021. Besides, the sample of the study was composed of 100 teachers and 122 students; all of the participants were randomly selected. The average age of the participants was 40 years for teachers and 17 years for students.

B. Instrument

The researchers developed a questionnaire utilizing the free online tool 'Google Form' for the teachers, whereas a paper-based questionnaire for the students. Although the teachers' questionnaire was designed online, it was distributed by the researchers in person to explain the objectives of the study and to invite teachers to participate. The aim of the electronic distribution was to ensure that all the questionnaire items were answered in addition to statistical considerations. The questionnaire used a 'five-point Likert scale' (ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree; to 5 = Strongly Agree). The questionnaire listed 22 items which were divided into two sections. The first section which included 10 items aimed at gathering data about teachers and students' perceptions towards using English-Arabic CS as a teaching and learning strategy. The second section which included 12 items aimed at gathering the statistics on teachers and students' reasons for using English-Arabic CS.

C. Validity and Reliability

To ensure content validity, the instrument was given to a validation committee consisting of ten EFL professors. The professors evaluated the questionnaire items in terms of appropriateness, comprehensibility, clarity, and overall quality. In accordance with their comments and suggestions, the wording of some items was modified before it was put into practice. To achieve the reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was carried out on 21 teachers and 33 students who were excluded from the study sample. The aim of the pilot study was to examine the feasibility of the questionnaire and to ascertain if any extra modifications would be required before the main application. The pilot study on students revealed difficulty for students in understanding the meaning of CS. Accordingly, the phrase was modified from 'code switching' to 'using the Arabic language in English language classes', which seemed easier for the students to understand. Cronbach's Alpha reliability was computed for the whole items of the questionnaire. The results demonstrated the reliability and suitability of the instrument for the purpose of the study since Cronbach's Alpha was 88% for all items of the teachers' questionnaire, and 86% for students.

D. Procedure

For the implementation of the questionnaire, the researchers prepared a list that included all high schools in the city of Riyadh. The researchers then recorded the names of the schools on slips of paper, folded them and placed them in a box, reshuffled them and then picked the required number of schools randomly. Then the researchers developed a convenient schedule to visit the selected schools. After that, the researchers visited the nominated schools and met the

school principals, the teachers of English, and students of the secondary level. After explaining the purpose of study, the researchers asked the teachers and the randomly-selected students to participate in filling out the questionnaire. Teachers and students were requested to read each item carefully and then choose the answers that best represented their perceptions.

In cases when the researchers were unable to meet teachers and students at a school or if teachers or students were unwilling to participate, the researchers picked new names of schools from the box. No missing data occurred in the teachers' questionnaires as the electronic feature of the questionnaire prevented any item skipping. Similarly, the researchers checked the students' questionnaires for unanswered items after each participant finished filling up the questionnaire. Hence, based on the collected data, the responses of the participants to the questionnaire items were statistically analyzed using the SPSS. Means (M), standard deviations (SD), frequencies, and percentages were utilized. Additionally, Cronbach's Alpha reliability for the pilot study was calculated to ensure the reliability of the instrument for conducting the study.

VIII. FINDINGS

A. Findings Related to the First Question

To answer the first question, "What are EFL teachers and students' perceptions towards using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools?" means and standard deviations of teachers and students' responses were computed. Findings related to this question are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

TABLE 1
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS USING ENGLISH-ARABIC CS AS A TEACHING AND LEARNING STRATEGY

No.	Statement	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
1	CS is an effective teaching and learning strategy.	100	384	3.84	1.245	5
2	CS creates positive attitudes among students towards learning English.	100	386	3.86	1.073	4
3	CS increases student-teacher interaction.	100	390	3.90	1.106	3
4	CS enlivens the atmosphere of the class.	100	382	3.82	1.067	6
5	CS helps students to gain better results in exams.	100	373	3.73	1.127	7
6	CS should not be used excessively in the EFL classroom.	100	223	2.23	1.179	10
7	CS helps students to understand unfamiliar topics.	100	421	4.21	.9020	1
8	CS facilitates students' learning of new grammatical structures.	100	404	4.04	1.053	2
9	CS enhances students' co-operative learning.	100	360	3.60	1.064	8
10	CS is necessary to explain cultural differences.	100	295	2.95	1.666	9
	Total			3.61	1.148	

It is obvious from Table 1 that teachers believe CS is an effective strategy in introducing unfamiliar topics. This finding is drawn from statement 7 which scored the highest mean score (4.21) and was ranked the first. Moreover, teachers think that CS is useful in learning new structures. This finding is taken from statement 8 which had a very high mean (4.04) and got the second rank. Another important finding is that CS increases student-teacher interaction. This is reflected in statement 3 which was ranked the third and had a high mean (3.90). In addition, according to teachers, CS is an effective teaching and learning strategy. It creates positive attitudes among students towards learning English and enlivens the atmosphere of the class. These results are drawn from statements 2, 1, and 4 which were ranked the fourth, the fifth, and the sixth with high means (3.86, 3.84, and 3.82 respectively).

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS USING ENGLISH-ARABIC CS AS A TEACHING AND LEARNING STRATEGY

No.	Statement	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
1	CS is an effective teaching and learning strategy.	122	453	3.71	1.243	8
2	CS creates positive attitudes among students towards learning English.	122	448	3.67	1.181	9
3	CS increases student-teacher interaction.	122	512	4.20	0.985	2
4	CS enlivens the atmosphere of the class.	122	493	4.04	1.007	5
5	CS helps students to gain better results in exams.	122	506	4.15	1.088	4
6	CS should not be used excessively in the EFL classroom.	122	310	2.54	1.274	10
7	CS helps students to understand unfamiliar topics.	122	553	4.53	0.718	1
8	CS facilitates students' learning of new grammatical structures.	122	510	4.18	0.971	3
9	CS enhances students' co-operative learning.	122	474	3.89	1.092	6
10	CS is necessary to explain cultural differences.	122	457	3.75	1.125	7
	Total			3.86	1.068	

Table 2 reveals that students agree that CS is a useful strategy in introducing unfamiliar topics. This finding is deduced from statement 7 which scored the highest mean score (4.53) and was ranked the first. Furthermore, students support the claim that CS increases student-teacher interaction, learning of new grammatical structures, and opportunities of better results in exams. These results are drawn from statements 3, 8, and 5 which were ranked the second, third, and the fourth with very high means (4.20, 4.18, and 4.15 respectively). Besides, students believe that CS

enlivens the atmosphere of the class and enhances students' co-operative learning. These results are taken from statements 4 and 9 which got the fifth and sixth rank with high means (4.04 and 3.89).

B. Findings Related to the Second Question

To answer the second question, "What are the EFL teachers and students' reasons for using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools?", means and standard deviations of teachers and students' responses were calculated. Findings related to this question are presented in Table 3 and Table 4.

TABLE 3
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHERS' REASONS FOR USING ENGLISH-ARABIC CS AS A TEACHING AND LEARNING STRATEGY

No.	Statement	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
1	Explain new abstract words and concepts.	100	417	4.17	0.842	1
2	Save time and effort.	100	385	3.85	1.095	4
3	Increase comprehension.	100	398	3.98	0.953	2
4	Elicit better responses from students.	100	397	3.97	1.000	3
5	Avoid the embarrassment of memory lapses.	100	351	3.51	1.185	9
6	Avoid misunderstanding.	100	383	3.83	1.035	5
7	Maintain discipline.	100	287	2.87	1.220	12
8	Reduce students' anxiety in the classroom.	100	299	2.99	1.508	11
9	Elucidate assignment guidelines.	100	375	3.75	1.067	7
10	Acclaim students well.	100	311	3.11	1.348	10
11	Correct students' errors.	100	354	3.54	1.176	8
12	Fill gaps in a classroom conversation.	100	379	3.79	1.104	6
	Total			3.61	1.127	

It is clear from Table 3 that teachers agree that the most important reason of using CS is to explain new abstract words and concepts. This finding is taken from statement 1 which had the first rank and the highest mean (4.17). In addition, teachers also believe that CS is used to increase comprehension, elicit better responses from students, and save time and effort. These results are reflected in statements 3, 4, and 2 which were ranked the second, the third, and the fourth with very high means (3.98, 3.97, and 3.85). Moreover, other important reasons according to teachers are to avoid misunderstanding and fill gaps in a classroom conversation. These results are clear in statements 6 and 12 which scored high means (3.83 and 3.79) were ranked the fifth and the sixth. On the other hand, teachers do not believe that CS is used to reduce students' anxiety in the classroom and to maintain discipline. This finding is taken from statements 8 and 7 which had the lowest means (2.99 and 2.87) and the lowest ranks (the eleventh and the twelfth).

TABLE 4
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF STUDENTS' REASONS FOR USING ENGLISH-ARABIC CS AS A TEACHING AND LEARNING STRATEGY

No.	Statement	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
1	Explain new abstract words and concepts.	122	484	3.97	.9350	7
2	Save time and effort.	122	429	3.52	1.166	11
3	Increase comprehension.	122	537	4.40	.8400	1
4	Elicit better responses from students.	122	515	4.22	.9400	3
5	Avoid the embarrassment of memory lapses.	122	473	3.88	1.302	9
6	Avoid misunderstanding.	122	506	4.15	1.050	4
7	Maintain discipline.	122	399	3.27	1.336	12
8	Reduce students' anxiety in the classroom.	122	516	4.23	1.097	2
9	Elucidate assignment guidelines.	122	481	3.94	1.187	8
10	Acclaim students well.	122	433	3.55	1.373	10
11	Correct students' errors.	122	492	4.03	1.128	6
12	Fill gaps in a classroom conversation.	122	494	4.05	1.027	5
	Total			3.93	1.115	

It is evident from Table 4 that students believe that increasing comprehension, reducing students' anxiety in the classroom, and eliciting better responses are the most important reasons behind using CS in the EFL classroom. These results are drawn from items 3, 8, and 4 which are ranked the first, the second, and the third with the highest means (4.40, 4.23, and 4.22 respectively). Furthermore, the other important reasons according to students are avoiding misunderstanding, filling gaps in a classroom conversation, and correcting students' errors. These results are represented in statements 6, 12, and 11 which scored high means (4.15, 4.05, and 4.03 respectively) with the fourth, the fifth, and the sixth ranks.

IX. DISCUSSION

Concerning the first question, the results indicated that teachers and students alike advocated using CS to help students understand unfamiliar topics. This result is in line with the findings of Cahyani et al. (2018) and Yaseen et al. (2021). Besides, this result is consistent with Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) who found that the participant teachers used CS to perform various classroom functions including checking for understanding and explaining unfamiliar words. However, it is contrast with the findings of Cook (2001), Martin (2004), Sert (2005), Thornbury (1999).

A second important finding is that teachers and students stressed that CS is an effective strategy in learning new grammatical structure. This finding is in agreement with Samani and Narafshan (2016) who showed that CS was more advantageous to teaching grammar and writing than to teaching speaking. To some extent, this result is not particularly consistent with the finding of Alhassoon (2013).

In addition, the results of the current study revealed that both teachers and students believed that CS increases student-teacher interaction. This result is in harmony with Muslim et al. (2018) and Shafi et al. (2020). It is also in compliance with Gil's (2007) study in which the researcher observed that CS in teacher–student interaction in the EFL classroom facilitated interaction and promoted foreign language proficiency. This result is supported by Alghamdi (2017) and Melwani (2017). Alghamdi (2017) believed that "English-only classes do not suit beginners and mid-level students because they need to understand what they are ought to do in class" (p. 85). This is also in line with the main conclusion from Melwani (2017) declares, "the notion that L1 plays a significant role in classroom interaction" (p. 62).

A final important perception shared by the participants is that CS enlivens the atmosphere of the class. This finding is supported by a study conducted by Yao (2011) "most participant teachers reported that they would switch to Chinese to tell a joke or short story to enliven the atmosphere of their classes" (p. 23). According to Bo (2017), in EFL classes, when students "doze off occasionally," teachers have to find some solutions. According to Bo, timely CS will enliven the atmosphere and make English classes "colorful and fun". Dykhanova (2015) confirmed that CS creates "relaxing and warm atmosphere in the class and easy comprehension" (p. 14). This finding is in line with the findings of Patmasari et al. (2022).

With respect to the second question of the study, "What are the EFL teachers and students' reasons for using CS in teaching and learning English in Saudi high schools?", the results revealed that teachers and students agreed that the most important reason behind using CS was increasing comprehension. This finding is compatible with many previous studies (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Alkatheery, 2014; Suryadi, 2019). Particularly, this result is consistent with that mentioned by Rabab'ah and Al-Yasin (2017), who found that teachers who participated in their study believed that the most important reason of CS was "to help students improve comprehension" (p. 315). Similarly, the influential role of CS in increasing comprehension is in accordance with Alshammari's (2011) results, which affirm the usefulness of CS for enhancing language learning and increasing students' comprehension.

Moreover, the findings of this study showed that teachers and students highly agreed that CS is used to avoid misunderstanding. This result is in congruence with existing research in this area (Guataquira, 2018; Rabab'ah & Al-Yasin, 2017; Sert, 2005). For instance, Sert (2005) claimed that CS is a strategy used to render the intended meaning. Moreover, Ramasari and Kumalasari (2018) stated that CS is critical to keeping the interaction run smoothly and avoiding besides, the participants tended to use CS to avoid misunderstanding during conversations.

In addition, the results of this study revealed that there are other reasons for using CS that obtained high rating by the participants, including eliciting better responses from students and filling gaps in a classroom conversation. The latter point, gap-filling, may be explained in accordance with the tag-switching approach. This approach to CS entails the insertion of a small tag from a language into a conversation in another language (Romaine, 1995). Poplack (1980) called the small insertions from a language "tags and fillers" that are inserted into larger units in another language. Romaine (1995) stated that this is "a simple type of CS that can occur at a number of points in utterances without violating the syntactic rules" (p. 122).

X. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study concluded that CS is as an effective teaching strategy for EFL high school students. It serves a plethora of functions and reasons such as understanding unfamiliar topics and increasing comprehension, which might be helpful in improving English language learning. However, in foreign language learning contexts where the teacher is the only source of target language for students, exposure to L2 is pivotal to ensure successful learning of the foreign language. Accordingly, teachers should be aware of the benefits and drawbacks of CS in the EFL classroom; and they should use CS judiciously and avoid overuse of the students' mother tongue.

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Blending Creative Approaches to English Language Learning: Shaping Critical Thinkers

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Abstract—The primary objective of this study is to assess whether or not there has been an increase in the students' capacity for creative and critical thinking as a direct result of the focus that has been placed on critical thinking and communication. The following hypotheses will guide our research: (H1) that original thinking is not included in the prescribed syllabus at the graduate level; and (H2) that Paul's E&S of critical thinking can promote creative writing skills among graduate Arab learners in the Department of English & Translation at Ar Rass, Qassim University. Both quantitative and qualitative research approaches were used by the researchers in this study with a cross-sectional design. Quantitative analysis was performed on a total of two hundred forty (240) research papers. Twelve instructors from the English and Translation Department at Qassim University's Ar Rass campus contributed the descriptive information that was used. A Paired Samples t-test was carried out for the purpose of investigating the hypotheses. The null hypothesis was validated using the $p\ 0.05$ threshold of significance. This entails that the curriculum for the Bachelor of Arts degree must include some forms of innovative problem solving. The second hypothesis was validated using the $p0.05$ and $p0.01$ thresholds of significance, respectively. That is to say, Paul's E&S line of thinking can be included into Research Writing in order to nurture and support students' creative thinking.

Index Terms—Communicative Teaching Approach, creative thinking, English curriculum, original thought, inventive teaching strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

This study examines graduating Arab students of English and Translation at Qassim University to see whether or not they are able to think creatively or in a novel manner. Researchers employ Bloom's Taxonomy (2019) as the organizing principle for their research into creative thinking in order to better equip Arab students with the ability to produce original ideas.

This study investigates the question of whether or not the English curriculum at the graduate level at Qassim University poses any obstacles to original thought, and it then makes recommendations for how to more effectively incorporate original thought into English language instruction in order to foster creative writing abilities among Arab graduate students. During the course of the winter, spring, and summer of the academic year 2020-21, a total of (140) students who were in their fourth year at Ar Rass English and Translation Department at Qassim University, made responses. The primary objective was to investigate whether or not Arab students who are studying at the graduate level exhibit signs of original thought in their writing and whether or not the curriculum that is intended for these students genuinely supports unique thought. The participants in this study (n=280) were given the task of writing an essay, and the goal of the research was to establish what percentage of participants were capable of coming up with original ideas and concepts. In order to assess the hypotheses, we made use of both descriptive statistics and a t-test on paired samples. Taking into consideration the findings, the research offered some suggestions for developing inventive teaching strategies in ELT (English Language Teaching) programs at the graduate level. It was hypothesized that the English language professors working in the Department of English and Translation at Ar Rass, Qassim University could play a significant role in the development of self-reflective linguistic habits of mind in the students who were expected to obtain BA degree in English language and translation. Students are likely to increase both their language abilities and their overall level of competency if they are able to mix their writing with innovative thoughts.

Research Questions

The research mainly targeting to obtain answers to the following questions to help Arab graduate students enhance their creative writing abilities:

a) Does the prescribed course of study present a sufficient challenge to the breadth of original thought at the graduate level?

b) How might innovative thought be incorporated into ELT classrooms?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been proposed by the researchers to gain a deeper understanding of these study topics:

(H1) Graduate level curriculum does not contain any opportunity for creative problem solving. (H2) Paul's E&S of critical thinking can be beneficial to creative writing among graduate Arab students at Qassim University.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The great Greek philosopher Socrates is credited with popularizing the method of original thought known as Socratic questioning, which was used by many of his students and disciples to guide ancient logic and is still utilized by modern linguists today. If we look back far enough in history, we can see that Socrates popularized this method of original thought.

Dewey (1933, p. 6) was the first scholar to bring the concept of original thought into the classroom with his definition of critical thinking as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds on which it is based; and the further conclusion to which it tends". Paul et al. (1993, p. 56) also discovered methods that were comparable to "judge the credibility of sources of information," "analyze or evaluate arguments, interpretations, beliefs, or ideas," and "create or assess solutions".

Based on the three fundamental domains proposed by Benjamin Bloom in 1956 and some of his followers, the ELTs (English Language Teachers) can split education into three broad groups:

1. Information that contains the individual's mental capabilities.

2. Character, which is developed via inner growth and maturation.

3. The capacity to move one's own body or to motivate oneself; the psychomotor talents fall under this group.

As they pursue their educational goals, students should keep these three areas in the forefront of their minds (Bloom, 1956). The purpose of this study is to provide a solution to the question, "Does the prescribed curriculum promote the goals of the learning process?" and, if the answer is no, to provide some suggestions for how Saudi students of English can be encouraged to engage then in creative problem-solving. In order to determine whether or not students at the Department of English and Translation in College of Science and Arts at Ar Rass (Qassim University) have developed proficiency in one or more of these three areas by the time they graduate. The purpose of this research is to determine whether or not they have.

The findings of this study provide credence to the concept that students' capacity to think creatively when writing essays not only enriches their experience of learning a language but also affords them an opportunity to learn more about themselves. According to Day (2003, p. 26), characteristics that are beneficial to creative thought include "the use of intuition, creating unusual connections, originality, flexibility, objectivity, reason, and willingness to take chances". Openness, curiosity, and fearlessness are just a few examples of the kinds of personality attributes that foster the development of creative or original thought. These characteristic features are assigned by psychologists and educators to a mode of thought known as "divergent thinking," in which an individual's thoughts and reasoning are allowed to "roam" freely and evaluate a number of different ways to a certain situation. The ability to think in unexpected ways may be taught, just like any other skill you might learn. As opposed to merely guiding students through the many lessons in the curriculum, Lipman (2003) asserted that the fundamental responsibility of teachers should be to cultivate students' capacity for critical thinking. According to Brown (2004), the goals of an ideal academic English program should go beyond language issues and nurture the skill of original thought rather than simply focusing on the language itself. Teachers of a language have a responsibility to advance their students higher along Bloom's Taxonomy (1956) of Learner Tasks to properly teach the language.

According to Bloom's taxonomy of learning, which was developed in 1956, it is possible for the knowledge gained during the process of learning to encompass not only the development of mental or cognitive abilities but also the recognition or recall of facts that have been stated in the past. This is one of the possibilities. According to Bloom's taxonomy, the six categories that make up this domain are listed below, starting with the least difficult and working their way up to the most challenging ones.

a) Be able to recall specifics such as statistics or facts

b) Being able to understand what is being said and being able to translate, extrapolate, interpret, and apply what is being stated to find solutions to problems, describing a situation into a particular setting using one's own terminology.

c) Application: making use of a concept in a novel setting or unintentionally using an abstraction in a setting where it was not intended to be used. The student is required to apply classroom information in unexpected professional settings.

d) Deconstructs the information or the ideas such that their structure can be understood by breaking them down into their component parts. Examines the information or data to determine its patterns so that the user can observe them and be able to recognize the difference between facts and assumptions and then acts consequently.

e) Synthesis is the process of putting together a whole from its component elements. Construct a final product out of its constituent parts while keeping an eye out for any innovative linkages or frameworks that might emerge.

f) Evaluate the merits of anything, such as an idea or a piece of information.

In order for students to become innovative and critical language users of the English language, it is proposed that teachers of the English language may employ a variety of different teaching strategies, some of which may involve exercises that can encourage practicing some forms of the original thought. This enables students to learn the language and this can be accomplished with the support of skills in interaction, analysis, and criticism.

In spite of the broad recognition that critical thinking skills are important, their use is restricted for a number of reasons, one of which is the absence of defined levels of thinking in ELT. In order to counteract this difficulty, English language instructors frequently resort to exercises that push students to interact with one another, think imaginatively, and communicate with one another. As a result, children would develop the key skills necessary for learning a language. When Paul et al. (1993) stated that "every student who learns the logic of a discipline must build that logic in his or her own mind," he is referring to this idea. There is no way to generate the logic for the learner or to simply "give," "transfer," or "inject" the logic in prepackaged form; rather, each step of the production process requires the presence of critical thought and judgment. There is no way to generate the logic for the learner or to simply "give," "transfer," or "inject" the logic in prepackaged form.

The process of learning is not instantaneous; rather, students should make an effort to make use of their own thoughts to critically scrutinize and analyze the information that is presented to them, which will ultimately lead to the construction of their own personal understanding of the language Wallace (2005, p. 67). Students in the Department of English and Translation at Qassim University are expected to be able to think critically and creatively by analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating the information they encounter. The communicative approach is the most effective method for stimulating the learning of English because the language contains four core abilities (speaking, reading, listening, and writing), and teaching them is based on the application of analytical thought. Therefore, the communicative approach is the most effective method for stimulating the learning of English. According to what Moore et al. (2001, p. 1) said, "Critical thinking presents students with the opportunity to strengthen their language abilities communicatively". This is due to the fact that, in his words, "reading is viewed as actively constructing meanings on the basis of the material," which requires the reader to investigate and evaluate the concepts included within the text. It is an excellent tool for generating ideas for any form of writing and finding connections between different ideas. According to Hare (1998, pp. 41-42), the Communicative Teaching Approach and creative thinking have the following goals:

1. Making an effort to encourage the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning, which is an endeavor that requires the participation of the students.

2. Inspiring students to participate in meaningful dialogue by posing questions for clarification, expressing their own viewpoints, and expressing whether they agree or disagree with the perspectives of their peers.

3. Enabling activities in the classroom that foster the students' individual language development.

4. Students are better able to reap the benefits of the interplay between various linguistic features when their language learning experiences are placed into bigger settings, such as units of conversation, which are examples of such contexts.

Examining the English essays that were produced by (240) students for the purpose of determining whether or not the students' use of critical thinking and communicative approaches has resulted in an increase in creative problem solving is the major objective of this research. In addition, the development of writing talents requires the development of two key sub-skills: the ability to organize information and the ability to formulate ideas. Finding linkages, arranging issues, and generating connections between ideas are key components of both creative thinking and good writing. Furthermore, achieving these objectives requires original thought Epstein (2019, p. 73).

III. METHODOLOGY

Two hypotheses guide this research: H1: Graduate-level coursework does not include opportunities for original thought; and H2: Paul's E&S of critical thinking can improve creative writing abilities among Arab students at Qassim University.

Both assumptions were tested over the course of ten months of research conducted in the Department of English & Translation at Ar Rass, Qassim University. The population of this study consisted of senior students (n = 140).

Over the course of three seasons (Fall, Spring, and Summer), (140) students submitted a total of (280) essays that were assessed for evidence of creative writing. Teachers of English in the Department of English Language and Translation were given a Likert-scale close-ended questionnaire to assess whether or not the current curriculum of English taught at the graduate level in Qassim University promotes original thinking among the Arabs learners during their graduation years. The statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) was used to measure the level of original thinking among these Arabs learners. Careful analysis of the collected data revealed the Arab students' views on the limits of creative thinking and brought attention to the efficacy of the required graduate-level curriculum in English language teaching.

In this cross-sectional study, researchers employed both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Using the quantitative approach described by Paul's English and Style, a random sample of (240) English essays was assessed in five areas:

1. Readability of the Text
2. Evaluation of the author's argument
3. Evaluation of the author's use of supporting evidence
4. Evaluation of the paper's overall organization (coherence and cohesion)
5. Evaluation of grammar and syntax

Originality in scholastic research writing was evaluated by pre- and post-tests. Prior to Post-tests I and II, students in the course "Research methods: code: ENG 446" were instructed in research writing using Paul's E&S of original thought during the Fall, Spring, and Summer of the 2020/21 academic year. Twelve instructors from the English and Translation Department of Ar Rass, Qassim University provided descriptive information. In order to put H1 to the test, we gave each teacher a 5-minute interview in which we asked about whether or not the required curriculum includes elements that encourage creative thinking among Arab students. The first and second post-tests were designed to evaluate H2, which hypothesizes that Arab students can be taught to think creatively through the development of research writing skills.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were taken to complete these project's objectives. For the purpose of administering the five-point scale questionnaire, a sample group consisting of twelve educators was chosen. They were given the task of writing down their thoughts on whether or not skills in critical thinking were included in the required curriculum for the Bachelor of Arts degree. For the purpose of putting the hypothesis to the test, descriptive statistics and the paired sample t-test were utilized (H1).

Using a quantitative method, we were able to measure the amount of progress made between Post-test I and Post-test II. In order to assess the degree of progress in original thought brought about by research writing, a sample of 140 subjects was selected. During the pre-test, the participants were given prompts on contemporary topics such as global warming, suicide bombing, the message of Islam, smoking, school punishment, and whether or not computers can take the role of teachers. They were required to write between 200 and 250 words on each topic. The research searched for indications that the participants had improved their composition skills, such as greater clarity of writing, level of analysis, use of supporting information, arrangement of ideas, and accuracy of grammar and syntax. Quantitative analysis of the subjects' writing abilities was performed with the help of a rubric that Paul (1997) had developed.

Data Analysis

Table 1 shows data gathered from the English language teachers.

TABLE 1
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF TEACHERS OF DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE & TRANSLATION, AR RASS

Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Cronbatch's alpha
41.12	12	15.68	-15.677	51	.000	0.60

Cronbatch's alpha shows 0.60 reliability level in the questionnaire. The Mean Score (MS) was (41.12) with (15.67) Standard Deviation (SD). The t-test value (-15.67) was found to be significant at $p \leq 0.05$. The result was also found significant at $p \geq 0.01$ level of significance.

This outcome disproved hypothesis H1 and provided proof that the mandated curriculum is structured in such a way that it can improve learners' ability to improve their original thinking if and only if it is taught effectively.

In order to generate a triangulation in the results and test the hypotheses discussed earlier, quantitative data was collected from a total of (140) subjects. In order to obtain the results, we carried out three separate tests: the Pre-test, the Post-test I, and the Post-test II. In Table 2, the data was quantified using a scale that ranged from 0 to 4 grade points for Low-range Achievers, Mid-range Achieves, and High-range Achievers respectively. Between the Pre-test and Post-test I & II, as well as between the Post-test I & II comparisons, we used the DS and PS t-tests to examine the effects of the critical thinking instructions provided through EEW.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON BETWEEN THE THREE TYPES OF TESTS

	High-range achievers	Mid-range achievers	Low-range achievers
Pre-test	3.64	2.50	2.15
Post-test I	3.67	3.25	2.90
Post-test II	3.75	3.50	3.35

Table 3 and Figure 1 show the comparison between five rubrics over three executions: Pre-test, Post-test I and Post-test II.

TABLE 3
SUBJECTS' ENGLISH RESEARCH WRITING PERFORMANCE IN THREE EXECUTIONS

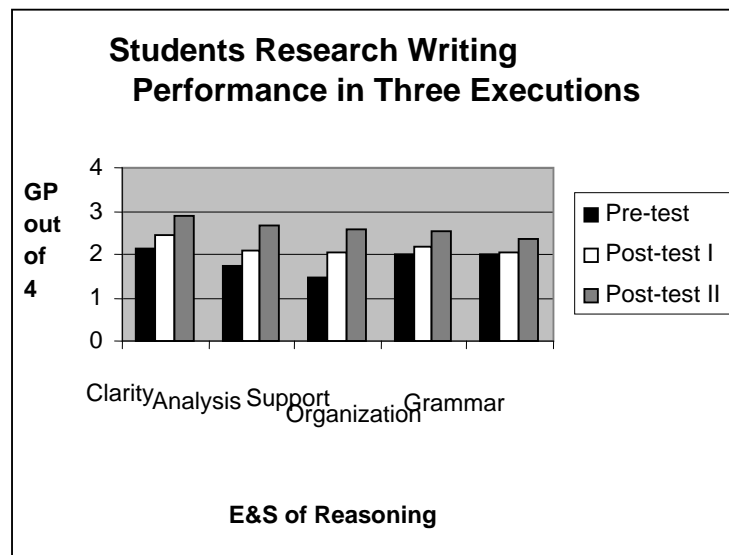|	Pre-test	Post-test I	Post-test II
Clarity	2.15	2.43	2.87
Analysis	1.75	2.08	2.65
Support	1.47	2.03	2.57
Organization	1.98	2.18	2.54
Grammar	1.99	2.04	2.37

Figure 1. Students Research Writing Performance in Three Executions

The score on all of the available rubrics was lower than (2.00 GP), with the exception of the Clarity rubric; nonetheless, the Support rubric had the lowest score (1.47 GP) when it came to the pre-test. During the Post-test I, the score for each of the five different categories of measurement was above (2.00). The Support category received the lowest possible score of (2.03 GP), while the Clarity category received the highest possible score of (2.43 GP).

On the Post-test II, the score for all of the rubrics was higher than (2.50 GP), with the exception of Grammar, which received a score of (2.37 GP). The Clarity category yielded the highest score possible (2.87 GP). Over the course of the three iterations, the participants' level of critical thinking ability in EEW showed steady progress.
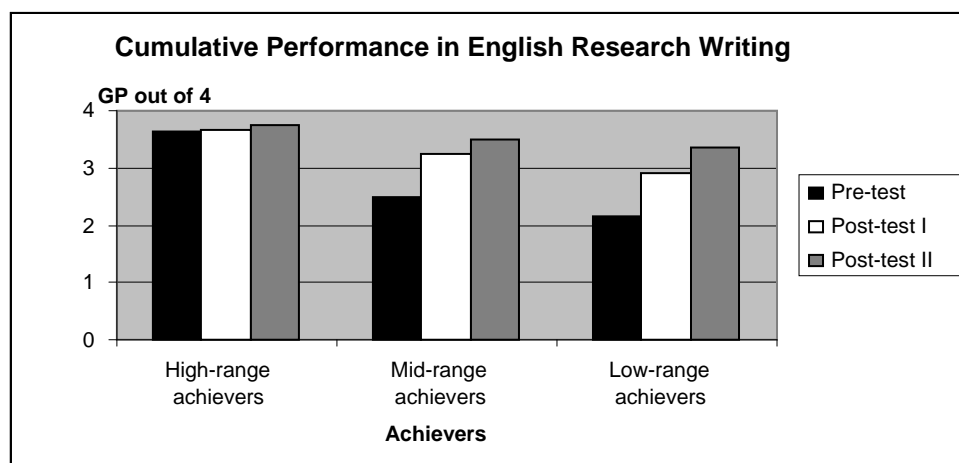
Figure 2. Cumulative Performance in English Research Writing

A comparison of the test scores of those who scored in the high range, those who scored in the midrange, and those who scored in the low range is presented in Figure 2. The cumulative score for the High-range achievers on the pre-test was (3.64 GP), the score for the Mid-range achievers was (2.50 GP), and the score for the Low-range achievers was (2.15 GP). On the Post-test I, the High-range Achievers received a score of (3.67) General Performance, whereas the Mid-range Achievers received a score of (3.25) General Performance, and the Low-range Achievers received a score of (2.90) General Performance. On the Post-test II, those who achieved in the Highest Range received a grade point total

of (3.75), those who achieved in the Midrange received (3.50), and those who achieved in the Lowest Range received (3.35). Even though the High-range Achievers got the highest-grade points (3.75), their performance didn't change much at all; on the other hand, the Low-range Achievers had a notable change in their grade point average (1.20) in their critical thinking ability across all five rubrics in each of the tests. The students who scored in the middle of the distribution showed a significant improvement in critical thinking on the first post-test, but on the second post-test, their performance was relatively unchanged.

V. DISCUSSION

The Low-range achievers experienced a notable shift in their original thinking capacity on five rubrics throughout all of the tests, whereas the High-range achievers maintained a performance that was rather consistent despite having the highest-grade point total (3.75). Mid-range achievers exhibited a significant improvement in their critical thinking during the Post-test I, but during the Post-test II, their performance was relatively unchanged. According to the findings of the study, the use of critical thinking pedagogy had a greater impact on students whose grades fell in the Low-range, Mid-range, and High-Range categories.

Low-range achievers had a low affective filter for the assimilation of critical thinking pedagogy. High-range achievers, on the other hand, exhibited a high affective filter, which prevented them from making a major development in their critical writing skill. It was hypothesized that the Low-range performers gained the most from the original thinking pedagogy, followed by the Mid-range achievers, and then the High-range achievers. The low-range achievers had high motivation, high self-esteem, and a low emotional filter, all of which assisted them in improving their critical writing ability.

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current research was to find answers to two questions: (a) to what extent does the graduate curriculum challenge students to think critically and (b) how can unique thinking be integrated in ELT to enhance creative writing skills among Arab graduate students? A Paired Samples t-test was carried out for the purpose of investigating the hypotheses. The null hypothesis was validated using the $p\ 0.05$ threshold of significance. What this entails is that the curriculum for the Bachelor of Arts degree must include some form of innovative problem solving. The alternative hypothesis was supported when $p\ 0.05$ and $p\ 0.01$ were used as significance criteria. That is to say, developing and supporting students' ability for creative thought can be facilitated by bringing Paul's E&S of reasoning into the teaching of English Essay Writing. This can be done in a number of different ways. The results of the students drastically improved as a direct consequence of being instructed to think creatively for the purposes of their research writing (mean score of 41.26). There was a statistically significant difference between Post-test I's results and Post-test II's results. To put this another way, this demonstrates that improving students' critical thinking skills through the use of Paul's E&S of original thought in the context of the English Research Writing curriculum is beneficial.

The subjects demonstrated a constant improvement in their critical thinking skills between the first and second post-tests that were administered to them. Low-range performers saw improvements in critical thinking that were much lower (1.20 cumulative GP) compared to High-range and Mid-range achievers. The students who scored in the Low-range Achievers demonstrated significant growth in their capacity for innovative thinking across all five rubrics, whereas the students who scored in the High-range Achievers maintained a rather consistent performance across all examinations. At the end of the first post-test, the Midachievers' critical thinking had greatly improved, but at the end of the second post-test, it had not been changed at all. These conclusions are in line with what was obtained by Ennis (1991), Fairclough (2001), Brown (2004) and Cottrell (2005).

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Uncovering Teachers' Needs in the Quest for Quality Bilingual Education

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Abstract—This article identifies the training needs of primary school teachers within the area of bilingual education related to their daily work, viewed through the lens of effective professional practice. Using a mixed methods research design, a self-assessment questionnaire was constructed based on comparative document analysis, a discussion group, and expert opinion. The purpose of this questionnaire was to determine the existing discrepancy between what is perceived as the reality of classroom performance and how it should be in order to ensure the delivery of quality bilingual education, supported by the parameters of school effectiveness. The questionnaire was completed by teachers from the Spanish region of Andalusia. The priority training demands detected pertain to the creation and maintenance of a local and external network of contacts for the purposes of collaboration, the promotion of intercultural communication, and the evaluation, selection, adaptation, and use of existing CLIL materials. On the basis of such demands, several considerations are proposed in the development of ongoing training that will enable bilingual education teachers to carry out their work effectively.

Index Terms—bilingual education, effective teaching, needs analysis, teacher training, quality education

I. INTRODUCTION

The goal of preserving and promoting a multilingual and multicultural society, pursued through a series of language policies developed by the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the early 1990s, led to the emergence of bilingual education within schools (García & Lin, 2017). Due to the nature of this type of educational setting, teachers who deliver school subjects in two languages require a number of specific professional skills to do their job effectively.

Just as there are profiles defined for teachers within Primary Education, Physical Education, Music, or Languages (Order ECI/3857/2007), the profile of a bilingual education teacher, requiring a compendium of competencies spanning several specialities in addition to certain characteristics derived from this specific pedagogical challenge, should have its own structuring and segmentation in terms of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to carry out this work in the best possible way (Melara-Gutiérrez & González-López, 2016).

Defining the profile of teachers has been a key topic within educational research for years. Some studies have focused on characteristic traits or components of this profile, others on the skills required, on the actions developed in the classroom, on the development of tasks, on expected results, or on criteria of professionalism (Rodríguez-Espinar, 2003). This area of research into teacher training and professional development has largely been dominated by two different, somewhat opposing positions: a competency-based approach and a reflexive approach (Cremers et al., 2013). In Europe, the broad consensus defines teaching profiles based on professional competencies, since these are the ones that improve teaching performance (Sánchez-Tarazaga, 2016).

García et al. (2017) clearly express the fundamental role teachers play in education, pointing out that, without educators, schools cannot be transformed, and the academic world acknowledges that educating bilingual teachers so that they truly understand multilingualism is paramount if efforts to improve bilingual education are to be successful. As noted by Kirss et al. (2021), research on school effectiveness and research on bilingual education have largely developed as separate research paradigms. Therefore, current studies on effective education do not provide clear evidence or conclusions about bilingual education and its effectiveness, lacking a systematic approach.

The aim of this paper is to contribute to reducing this research gap by systematically reviewing existing evidence and providing new knowledge in the field of effective teaching in bilingual education, specifically around the figure of the teacher and their training.

II. OBJECTIVE

The research presented here pursued a dual objective. Firstly, to develop a tool that identifies the educational needs perceived by teachers within bilingual primary schools in relation to their daily work, in order to understand their teaching performance as effective professional practice. This paper addresses the concept of need based on the definition of Kaufman (2006), who sees it as a discrepancy between current and desired results. Compiling all these

gaps will provide the necessary information and the order of priority required to achieve the second objective: the experimental identification of training needs that will provide a foundation to design training plans focusing on the areas required to achieve the teaching goal designed: effective bilingual teaching. This led to the launch of an exploratory sequential two-phase study consisting of the two empirical moments described below.

III. PHASE 1: DESIGN A TOOL TO DETECT THE TRAINING NEEDS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHERS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING

This phase entailed constructing and finding scientific guarantees for a tool capable of analysing the educational needs of bilingual teachers, considering this work from the paradigm of school effectiveness.

A. Data Collection and Analysis Method

To design the structure of the tool, we used the scale format present in Kaufman (2006) and validated in Melara-Gutiérrez and González-López (2021), which allows us to obtain data to identify the distances or gaps (need) between current perceived reality and the expected reality for the achievement of a given objective. The structure involves placing the elements of analysis in a central space and subjecting them to a dual process of opinion expressed by teachers on a five-point scale, in relation to how that reality is ("describe how you see yourself currently operating in your teaching role") and should be ("describe how you think you should be operating in your teaching role), where 1 means rarely, 2 occasionally, 3 at times, 4 often, and 5 consistently. The instrument is made up of 41 elements that define the figure of the effective bilingual education teacher (Melara-Gutiérrez, 2022).

The target population encompassed primary education teachers from bilingual school settings in the city of Córdoba (Spain). Intentional sampling recruited 50 professionals, a number valid for the purposes intended at this stage, as stated by McMillan and Schumacher (2006). The majority of the participants were women (74% women, 26% men) with a mean age of 43 (SD=8.441). Their average teaching experience in primary education is 16 years (SD=8.144), falling to 7 years for teaching experience within bilingual education (SD=4.918). It was interesting to see the level of foreign language proficiency, which is essential to access these teaching roles. The data showed that 50% had a B2 level, 36% had a C1 level, 12% had a B1 level and only 2% had a C2 level.

B. Results

The accuracy of the data obtained with the questionnaire applied to this teaching group and the stability of the measurement given in different applications of the questionnaire is one of the basic elements that must be fulfilled by the instrument designed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is why the information collected must take account of a number of factors that guarantee its scientific veracity and do not compromise the study (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In other words, it must be reliable and valid, consistent over time, and make contributions relating to the construct measured.

The procedure used to determine reliability is Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Upon initial evaluation of the results obtained (see Table 1), we see that the values corresponding to each of the scales described (alpha values above .9) indicate that the relationships between the different elements of the tool are very high (Jisu et al., 2006). For its part, the total Alpha value (.976), considering the two constituent scales as a single unit, indicates high guarantee of reliability.

TABLE 1
ALPHA COEFFICIENTS FOR THE SCALES

Scale	Alpha Coefficient	N
What I do	.969	41
What I should do	.979	41
Total	.976	82

On the other hand, the behaviour of each of the instrument items reveals homogeneity indices all with values greater than .50 and a positive sign, so each item measures a portion of the trait studied, and therefore the instrument is reliable (Henson, 2001). This is confirmed by the Alpha coefficient. If we eliminate all the elements, reliability decreases or is maintained, except for element six in the subscale "What I should do", where element 6 (*I use the cultural patterns of the country/countries where the foreign language is spoken in the teaching of non-language subjects*) presents values for homogeneity (-.073) and the alpha coefficient (.982) that give the impression of inadequate statistical behaviour. However, due to its relevance for the objectives of the study, this characteristic is maintained in its original format.

Subsequently, the validity of the content of the elements that make up the instrument was estimated by finding the discriminatory power of the elements included in the scales. To carry out this task, the items from the two subscales were recoded into three groups (1: Low, 2: Medium and 3: High). Applying Student's t test (n.s.=.05) between the low and high groups indicates that all the elements, except number 6 in the subscale "What I should do" (t=-0.303, p=.764), meet the objectives set for each of the questions, reflecting the existence of an internal structure in the questionnaire capable of responding to the demands raised. In conclusion, the tool designed meets the scientific guarantees required for application.

IV. PHASE 2: ANALYSIS OF THE TRAINING NEEDS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHERS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING

The tool for detecting the training needs of bilingual teachers was constructed under the parameters of school effectiveness. The information gathered from the 50 participating teachers was analysed to detect the aforementioned needs and put them in order of priority so that they provide the empirical foundation to design training actions for primary education teachers in bilingual settings, grounded in the principles of effective teaching.

A. Data Collection and Analysis Method

The data collected from the participating teaching group have been analysed using different statistical procedures of central tendency and dispersion for each of the two subscales considered. Furthermore, the effect size has been calculated in each element (Cohen's *d*) to identify, from an empirical point of view, the specific weight and order of priority of each of the demands detected.

B. Results

Based on the concept of need defined by Kaufman (2006), these have been identified, as shown in Table 2, as the difference between what I should do and what I do. Cohen's *d* index has been used to measure the effect size of these differences, to quantify the distance between what is and what should be (Coe & Merino, 2003). Cohen (1988) established that values below .2 were understood as "null," 0.2 to 0.5 small, 0.5 to 0.8 medium, and high from 0.8 onwards. In all cases, perceived success is always higher than professional reality, with a significant effect size, which validates the previous expressions.

TABLE 2
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF EACH ELEMENT, IDENTIFICATION OF NEEDS, AND DIFFERENCE OF MEANS BETWEEN SCALES

Characteristics of effective bilingual teaching	What I do		What I should do		Need	Cohen's d
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1. I use the foreign language to convey the contents of non-language subjects.	3.52	1.054	4.16	0.850	0.64	-.660
2. I reflect on the language learning process.	3.66	0.848	4.24	0.778	0.58	-.600
3. I implement the teaching process in an organised and structured way.	4.10	0.789	4.49	0.767	0.39	-.400
4. I integrate the curriculum content of non-language subjects with language content and learning strategies.	3.40	1.107	4.14	0.979	0.74	-.760
5. I adapt the language component in the development of non-language subjects.	3.72	1.070	4.14	0.979	0.42	-.440
6. I use the cultural patterns of the country/countries where the foreign language is spoken in the teaching of non-language subjects.	3.08	1.158	3.76	1.071	0.68	-.700
7. I use strategies for the teaching of foreign languages.	3.84	0.976	4.27	0.730	0.43	-.440
8. I evaluate, select, adapt, and use existing CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) materials.	3.18	1.155	3.96	1.040	0.78	-.800
9. I design communicative and interdisciplinary tasks.	3.42	1.126	4.14	0.913	0.72	-.740
10. I manage the classroom efficiently: organisation of classroom spaces and resources, efficient use of class time, and management of student behaviour.	3.96	0.925	4.27	0.953	0.31	-.320
11. I promote communication in the foreign language.	3.92	0.986	4.35	0.830	0.43	-.440
12. I generate bilingual environments.	3.44	1.013	4.20	0.841	0.76	-.780
13. I promote intercultural communication.	3.24	1.153	4.04	1.060	0.80	-.820
14. I use an active methodology.	4.22	0.840	4.49	0.711	0.27	-.280
15. I develop metacognitive strategies among students.	3.38	1.028	4.00	0.957	0.62	-.640
16. I promote creativity among students.	3.86	0.926	4.39	0.731	0.53	-.540
17. I encourage cooperative learning among students.	3.68	0.935	4.14	0.842	0.46	-.480
18. I develop critical thinking among students.	3.84	0.976	4.27	0.836	0.43	-.440
19. I have a clear understanding of teaching objectives: both those relating to non-language and language subjects.	3.84	1.149	4.39	0.909	0.55	-.560
20. I address higher- and lower-level cognitive objectives.	3.58	1.032	3.92	0.932	0.34	-.360
21. I promote independent learning among students.	3.96	0.856	4.37	0.727	0.41	-.420

22. I promote project-based learning among students.	2.76	1.153	3.49	1.003	0.73	-.760
23. I develop significant learning among students.	4.00	0.926	4.39	0.812	0.39	-.400
24. I work as a team with other teachers.	3.70	1.129	4.22	0.985	0.52	-.540
25. I establish good relationships with students.	4.56	0.733	4.59	0.705	0.03	-.040
26. I create good relationships between students.	4.56	0.733	4.65	0.694	0.09	-.100
27. I work with families on the education of their children.	4.00	0.948	4.41	0.814	0.41	-.420
28. I collaborate with the School Management Team.	4.26	0.922	4.41	0,888	0.15	-.160
29. I create and maintain a local and external network of contacts to work with.	2.82	1.224	3.65	1.217	0.83	-.860
30. I work with specific bilingual education professionals (e.g. conversation assistants, bilingual programme coordinators, etc.).	3.74	1.175	4.29	0.913	0.55	-.560
31. I provide all students with opportunities to access the curriculum.	4.12	0.849	4.33	0.826	0.21	-.220
32. I adapt the teaching-learning process to students' needs and previous knowledge.	4.12	0.872	4.51	0.739	0.39	-.400
33. I convey cultural diversity to students, both local and global.	3.98	1.020	4.29	0.791	0.31	-.320
34. I provide regular feedback to students regarding understanding the content of non-language subjects.	3.92	1.085	4.18	0.993	0.26	-.280
35. I provide regular feedback to students on language proficiency.	3.82	1.044	4.14	0.957	0.32	-.340
36. I provide regular feedback to students on their self-assessment process.	3.32	1.077	3.86	1.061	0.54	-.560
37. I take responsibility for student outcomes, both in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency.	4.22	0.932	4.37	0.834	0.15	-.160
38. I convey to students what is expected of them, in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency..	3.80	1.107	4.24	0.925	0.44	-.460
39. I have high expectations of students both in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency.	3.44	1.072	3.96	1.040	0.52	-.520
40. I maximise and optimise both academic and non-academic time devoted to the teaching-learning process.	3.88	0.961	4.29	0.842	0.41	-.420
41. I am continually training and developing professionally.	4.04	0.968	4.20	1.000	0.16	-.164

Having estimated the size of the difference, it is particularly relevant to see that, of the 41 assessment indicators, 12 of them (29.27%) do not have discriminatory power in establishing their difference (10, 14, 20, 25, 26, 28, 31, 33, 34, 35, 37 and 41). Based on the average values obtained and their gain in the need identified as ideal (what should be done), we deduce that they are deemed to be relevant to the exercise of effective teaching and that, therefore, they tend to do so in their daily work.

The effect size allows us to identify and prioritise training demands, taking as a reference Cohen's index explained previously. Therefore, in Table 3, we can see, in order of priority, the training needs detected by the participating teachers and their level of relevance, in support of understanding teaching work in bilingual education settings from the perspective of effective teaching.

TABLE 3
TRAINING NEEDS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

Characteristics of effective bilingual education teachers	Cohen's d	Priority	Size of difference
29. I create and maintain a local and external network of contacts to work with.	-.860	1	Large
13. I promote intercultural communication.	-.820	2	
8. I evaluate, select, adapt, and use existing CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) materials.	-.800	3	
12. I create bilingual environments.	-.780	4	Medium
4. I integrate the curriculum content of non-language subjects with language content and learning strategies.	-.760	5	
22. I promote project-based learning among students.	-.760	6	
9. I design communicative and interdisciplinary tasks.	-.740	7	
6. I use the cultural patterns of the country/countries where the foreign language is spoken in the teaching of non-language subjects.	-.700	8	
1. I use the foreign language to convey the contents of non-language subjects.	-.660	9	
15. I develop metacognitive strategies among students.	-.640	10	
2. I reflect on the language learning process.	-.600	11	
19. I have a clear understanding of teaching objectives: both those relating to non-language and language subjects.	-.560	12	

30. I work with specific bilingual education professionals (e.g., conversation assistants, bilingual programme coordinators, etc.).	-.560	13	
36. I provide regular feedback to students on their self-assessment process.	-.560	14	
16. I promote creativity among students.	-.540	15	
24. I work as a team with other teachers.	-.540	16	
39. I have high expectations of students both in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency.	-.520	17	
17. I encourage cooperative learning among students.	-.480	18	Small
38. I convey to students what is expected of them, in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency.	-.460	19	
5. I adapt the language component in the development of non-language subjects.	-.440	20	
7. I use strategies for the teaching of foreign languages.	-.440	21	
11. I promote communication in the foreign language.	-.440	22	
18. I develop critical thinking among students.	-.440	23	
21. I promote independent learning among students.	-.420	24	
27. I work with families on the education of their children.	-.420	25	
40. I maximise and optimise both academic and non-academic time devoted to the teaching-learning process.	-.420	26	
3. I implement the teaching process in an organised and structured way.	-.400	27	
23. I develop significant learning among students.	-.400	28	
32. I adapt the teaching-learning process to students' needs and previous knowledge.	-.400	29	
20. I address higher- and lower-level cognitive objectives.	-.360	30	
35. I provide regular feedback to students on language proficiency.	-.340	31	
10. I manage the classroom efficiently: organisation of classroom spaces and resources, efficient use of class time, and management of student behaviour.	-.320	32	
33. I convey cultural diversity to students, both local and global	-.320	33	
14. I use an active methodology.	-.280	34	
34. I provide regular feedback to students regarding understanding the content of non-language subjects.	-.280	35	
31. I provide all students with opportunities to access the curriculum.	-.220	36	
41. I am continually training and developing professionally.	-.164	37	Null
28. I collaborate with the School Management Team.	-.160	38	
37. I take responsibility for student outcomes, both in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency.	-.160	39	
26. I create good relationships between students.	-.100	40	
25. I establish good relationships with students.	-.040	41	

There are three priority demands. The first two allude to the element of communication with other cultures, both at the level of the teachers and the students: *I create and maintain a local and external network of contacts to work with,* and *I promote intercultural communication.* The third demand identified as being highly relevant alludes to the action of *evaluating, selecting, and adapting existing CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) materials.*

Fourteen of the indicators have been categorised as a medium level of demand. Those furthest from training needs include: *encouraging creativity among students; working as a team with other teachers*; and *having high expectations of the students both in terms of non-language content and language proficiency.* However, there are four elements that are situated very close to those deemed to be of high need. The most important is *creating bilingual environments*, followed by *integrating the curricular content of non-language subjects and language content* and *encouraging students to learn through project-based work.* In fourth place is *designing communicative and interdisciplinary tasks.*

All training needs pertaining to the 19 indicators of effective bilingual teaching categorised as having a small size of difference lack practically any relevance for the teachers in the study group. The lowest scores were obtained for: *using an active methodology; providing students with regular feedback about understanding of non-language content;* and *providing all students with opportunities to access the curriculum.* The two closest to a medium size of difference are: *promoting cooperative learning among students* and *communicating to students what is expected of them, both in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency.*

Finally, the sample shows that teachers feel that the following training requirements are already covered: *I am continually training and developing professionally; I collaborate with the School Management Team; I take responsibility for student outcomes, both in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency; I create good relationships between students;* and *I establish good relationships with students.* The relevance of these indicators for the design of future training actions is, therefore, null.

Based on this information, we can infer the training actions that will guide recommendations for the development of future training plans. The main gaps detected by teachers in their daily teaching to ensure its effectiveness are framed within six dimensions that define the model of an effective bilingual teacher outlined in this paper (see table 4):

teachers' language proficiency, methodology, interaction with participants in the education process, addressing diversity, assessment, and teachers' expectations of students.

TABLE 4
TRAINING NEEDS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHERS BY DIMENSION AND PRIORITY

Dimension	Indicator of effective teaching in bilingual education	Priority
Teachers' language proficiency	I use the foreign language to convey the contents of non-language subjects.	9
	I reflect on the language learning process.	11
Methodology	I promote intercultural communication.	2
	I evaluate, select, adapt, and use existing CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) materials.	3
	I create bilingual environments.	4
	I integrate the curriculum content of non-language subjects with language content and learning strategies.	5
	I promote project-based learning among students.	6
	I design communicative and interdisciplinary tasks.	7
	I use the cultural patterns of the country/countries where the foreign language is spoken in the teaching of non-language subjects.	8
	I develop metacognitive strategies among students.	10
	I have a clear understanding of teaching objectives: both those relating to non-language and language subjects.	12
	I promote creativity among students.	15
Interaction with participants in the education process	I create and maintain a local and external network of contacts to work with.	1
	I work as a team with other teachers.	16
Addressing diversity	I work with specific bilingual education professionals (e.g., conversation assistants, bilingual programme coordinators, etc.).	13
Assessment	I provide regular feedback to students on their self-assessment process.	14
Teachers' expectations of students.	I have high expectations of students both in terms of non-language subjects and language proficiency.	17

The area of action most in demand among the participating teachers is methodology. The most requested element, however, pertains to training on *interaction with participants in the education process*, in addition to *teamwork with teachers*. As well as the level of language proficiency required to be a bilingual teacher (Resolution of 26 October 2020), the teachers involved in this research feel that they need training on the other two components of the dimension that encompasses teachers' language proficiency: *using the foreign language to convey the contents of non-language subject* and *reflecting on the language learning process.*

In relation to assessment, the participating teachers feel that the only training that will help them be more effective in their bilingual classrooms currently is related to *providing regular feedback to students about their process of self-assessment.* In terms of addressing diversity, they feel they need training in *working with specific bilingual education professionals (e.g., conversation assistants, bilingual programme coordinators, etc.).* And finally, we see the need to work with the participants on the area of their own *expectations of their students,* in order to achieve the effectiveness pursued in bilingual learning processes.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

When seeking to guarantee a strong performance among all students, the quality of the teaching staff must be maintained or improved as a matter of priority. Various studies have found that well-designed systems to evaluate teaching performance, aligned with their professional development, help to improve teaching quality and students' academic performance (Looney, 2009).

Although the design of evaluation systems for teaching performance varies dramatically depending on the context, the most widely used approaches are observations and the measurement of student outcomes (Grissom & Bartanen, 2022; Whitehurst et al., 2014). However, within the context of Andalusia's education system, we believe that the conceptions of need and training developed by Gairń (1996) and Kaufman (2006) have a better fit. Training plans must be based on the needs perceived by teachers, seeking to fulfil an unmet and essential requirement that allows them to function under normal conditions and achieve their goal.

The concept of need put forward by Kaufman (2006), understood as the gap between what we perceive it is and what we perceive it should be, has helped to create a tool to provide relevant information to design bespoke training for the group of bilingual primary teachers we are working with. The high results achieved for the reliability and validity of the tool indicate that the information obtained presents sufficient levels of quality so that they can and should be taken into account when creating training to meet the needs detected in the groups of teachers taking part in this study.

Based on this needs analysis, we can conclude that, of the 41 elements measured, only three of the training needs have been identified as high priority by the participating teachers. Of these, the first two make reference to intercultural communication and the third pertains to the action of evaluating, selecting, adapting, and using existing CLIL materials. In relation to intercultural communication, as mentioned previously, we must remember that these indicators or competencies were not identified initially by the participating teachers in the discussion group, and yet, years later, teachers from the same setting perceive them to be gaps in their training. The third demand is fairly relevant, since its

identifying element is part of the model of competencies of bilingual education teachers, as well as of the characteristics that describe effective teaching. The use of existing resources by teachers gives them more time to devote to the more important task of working directly with students, instead of having to design them.

Within the needs understood to represent a medium priority, the line of action most in demand among the participating teachers was once again methodology. Furthermore, as mentioned in the results, the teachers involved in this study feel that they need training in two of the components of language proficiency: using the foreign language to convey the contents of non-language subjects and reflecting on the language learning process. Creating bilingual environments and the ability to integrate the curriculum content of non-language subjects with language content and learning strategies are still in high demand among teachers. This requires reflection on the type of training offered to teachers and its efficacy since these bilingual education programmes were first launched in the 1990s.

Clearly, the education policies and strategies developed by Andalusia provide teachers with sufficient opportunities for continued training and professional development since they do not feel that this is an unfulfilled need or gap; in other words, this is something they do regularly. What was also particularly striking was that the group of teachers taking part in this final part of the study feel they have no training needs in relation to elements such as collaborating with the management team, taking responsibility for student outcomes, or creating and maintaining good relationships with them. In these circumstances, it would be interesting to analyse the perceptions of different parties to confirm unanimity of opinion.

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Protest in the Digital Era: A Critical Analysis of Facebook Posts of the Fourth Circle Protests in Jordan

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Abstract—This study critically investigates the discourse of Facebook posts on Jordan's Fourth Circle protests. The Facebook posts are considered to be protest discourse, with ideological imprints of positive "we" in-group representations and negative "they" out-group descriptions. Utilizing a critical-discourse analysis method, this study reveals that Facebook posts were efficiently used to define the ethnonational identity of the participants and to describe their goals and activities, as well as to provide continual updates on the protests. The activists used linguistic strategies (e.g., rural terms, pronouns, and humorous posts). The activists purposefully used the indigenous dialect (i.e., the rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect) to express solidarity and address indigenous ethnic aspirations. Consequently, the success of the Fourth Circle protests can be summarized in three great achievements, which are: (1) Prime Minister Hani Mulki's resignation; (2) cancellation of the income-tax law; and (3) solutions that reduced the cost of living to a more acceptable rate.

Index Terms—online discourse, Facebook, Jordanian protests, online activism, social media

I. INTRODUCTION

On May 31, 2018, thousands of Jordanians took to the streets across the kingdom to protest the price hikes of fuel derivatives and electricity. The protests (henceforth referred to as the "Fourth Circle protests") soon became widespread across most of the country, with cities rejecting the government's decision, as well as the income-tax draft law that would have increased taxes on employees by 5% (Prieto, 2018). For five consecutive days, tens of thousands of protesters gathered at the Fourth Circle, where the prime minister's office is located, and chanted, "No, no to corruption," "We are not a milk cow," "Hani al-Mulki's government is ruled by thieves," "Where has the people's money disappeared to?", "We are here until we bring the downfall of the bill," "This government is shameful!", "Our demands are legitimate," and "Bread, freedom, and social justice!" (Aljazeera, 2018). On June 4, 2018, the fifth day of the demonstrations, Jordan's Prime Minister Hani Mulki submitted his government's resignation to the king.

During the demonstrations, many Jordanian protesters used Facebook as an alternative media channel to report the events and share their views. As Ahmad (2014) said, "The [opinions are] posted to other anonymous [inter]net readers; [the posts] speak to an audience, who is assumed to share this feeling of disgust." Therefore, Jordanian protesters in the Fourth Circle used Facebook to post their opinions and videos, which motivated the Jordanians to join their protests. They tried to reclaim their rights and prevent the Mulki government from establishing the new income-tax law.

Accordingly, the language created via Facebook status messages (FSMs) represented society's response to various social and political events. Therefore, examining FSMs as they were posted by Jordanian protesters was an appropriate tool with which to conduct such research.

Hence, the present study aims to shed light on the answers to the following research questions: (1) What strategies in online discourse were repeated in the posts to highlight certain ideologies?; and (2) To what extent did the Jordanian activists mobilize the Fourth Circle protests via social, cultural, and linguistic knowledge as a discourse strategy?

Generally speaking, analyzing the Jordanian protests' online discourse was not a new task. According to Mongiello (2016), political protests via a range of social movements have been examined extensively, but few studies have focused on the language of online protests. In the Jordanian context, most of the linguistic studies focused on the same matter, pertaining to a cross-linguistic or interlingual study of specific speech acts (e.g., an apology Huwari, 2018; Banikalef et al., 2015; refusal Al-shboul, 2016; compliment Al-khatib, 2006 or request Al-Ali & Alawneh, 2010). To establish the present study, the next section will briefly review the latest related research.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

The "Arab Spring" refers to the uprisings, demonstrations, and political actions that occurred in Egypt, Tunisia, Libya, Syria, and Yemen beginning in December 2011. Social researchers (e.g., Acemoglu et al., 2017), and Farhan and Varghese (2018) have raised the question, "How did social media—particularly, Facebook—pave the way for the Arab Spring?" Among all social-network sites (SNS), Facebook is used by 74% of social-media users in the Middle East (Dennis et al., 2017). This high level of Facebook use began when the uprising broke out in most Arab countries (e.g., Tunisia, Egypt, and Syria).

Farhan and Varghese (2018) examined how the Yemeni youth used Facebook to attract more supporters and keep their spirits up. The study found that most Arab Spring activists (78.3%) had been using Facebook for more than 3 years. They stated that Facebook served as a crucial tool to connect Yemeni users and keep them informed about the events in Yemen.

In research about the communicative functions of status updates on Facebook, Banikalef and Bataineh (2017) sought to explore the types of speech acts in the status updates posted by young Jordanian Facebook users. 4092 messages were collected from 200 students aged between 19 and 24 years. Findings revealed that there are three new speech acts emerged from the data and were added to Searle's taxonomy, namely, God's invocation, humor, and quotation. The researchers suggested that these new speech acts are inherently related to the participants' socio-cultural backgrounds. The authors concluded that the cultural norms and religious background have strong effects on the participants' linguistic choices in their native language.

Shepperson and Price (1958) claimed that Chilembwe's rebellion in January 1915 in Malawi against the British Empire was just one example of how the Indigenous language mobilized people to resist colonialism. Similar to the Jordanian protesters, the original Malawians represented themselves by using original indicators (e.g., folk music or cultural songs). They deliberately used Indigenous indicators to distinguish themselves from others and assert their primary role in their country.

In conclusion, protest language via Facebook status messages is still understudied and must be more thoroughly explored. Therefore, it is worthy to consider Facebook to be an ongoing database of social and political attitudes, with new data being added in real-time. These data will help researchers add a new dimension to Jordanian sociolinguistic studies by examining the Jordanian protesters' opinions on the Facebook platform.

A View on the Jordanian Uprising

Bebawi et al. (2014) theorized that social-media platforms "such as Twitter, Facebook, and blogs that provided coverage of the events" were more effective than mainstream journalism during the Arab Spring. Even mainstream journalists found themselves following the wave of social media when following up on the latest events of the uprising. Therefore, social media played a major role as a free platform used by protestors to contact each other quickly across far distances. Jenzen et al. (2020) stated that Twitter has emerged as a signifier of contemporary protest and an extended public space for protest expressions. The results found by Jenzen et al. (2020) support the assumption of this research, which reinforce the power of social media. It is considered to be a trusted platform that protestors worldwide use to effectively manage their protests.

In conclusion, social media is a powerful source of news for protesters and a tool they can use to communicate and manage their uprisings.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Sociopragmatics

The scope of sociopragmatics is wide, and it covers different areas [e.g., interactional sociolinguistics (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992), linguistics anthropology (Duranti, 2009), and variational pragmatics (Schneider & Barron, 2008)]. However, the current study focuses on specific sociopragmatic phenomena that take an ethnomethodological perspective (Andersen & Aijme, 2012). This perspective seeks to investigate how individuals construct, prolong, and maintain their realities. Garfinke (2002) states that ethnomethodology aims to "discover [what people] in particular situations do [and] the methods they use to create the patterned orderliness of [their] social [lives]".

In this context, "ideology" refers to how a group of people in certain situations represent themselves or are represented by others. Ideological discourse usually examines the representations of group members (hereafter referred to as "actors") and their associated actions. Thus, the actors must recognize and represent themselves as group members to function as group members (Fiske & Taylor, 2013). In this study, the actors are therefore determined to be either one of "us" (e.g., the ordinary public) or one of "them" (e.g., the government) Chiluwa (2015) and Dijk (1997). Consequently, the protest discourse in the current study clarifies Van Dijk's (1997) ideological square. The core of Van Dijk's strategy is the differentiation between "us" and "them," which includes a positive in-group description and a negative out-group description.

Therefore, an ideological square would:

"Emphasize 'our' good properties/actions.
Emphasize 'their' bad properties/ actions.
Mitigate 'our' bad properties/actions.

Mitigate 'their' good properties/actions."
— (Dijk, 1997, p. 33)

Following the CDA approach and Dijk's (1997) ideological square, this study investigates the Facebook content of the Fourth Circle protests that occurred in Jordan on May 31, 2018 and went on for five days. All this forms a theoretical framework to analyze the Facebook status messages. It is likewise significant to show the nature of the participants and their activities, both in terms of culture and linguistics, to accurately provide situational context to the protests.

B. The Discourse of Protests in Jordanian Standard Arabic and Jordanian Colloquial Arabic

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is a small country in the Middle East. It locates between Palestine to the west, Syria to the north, Iraq to the east, and Saudi Arabia to the south. 92% of Jordanians are Muslims, 6% are Christians from various sects, and 2% have a different religion (Hendriks & Baker, 2008). The capital of Jordan is Amman. Its population consists of two groups: the Jordanians and the Palestinians. According to Frisch (2004), the population of Palestinian origin is believed to constitute at least 58% of Jordan's total population. Jordanian culture is based on the fact that Jordan is a tribal society with a robust sense of Arab identity rooted in Jordanians' cultural system, particularly in the areas from which the data for this study have been collected (Al-Adaileh, 2007). Tribalism as a main part of modern Jordanian society still has an important control over how Jordanians live, eat, celebrate, dress, solve conflicts, and make decisions (Banikalef et al., 2015).

According to Banikalef and Maros (2013), there is no comprehensive description of any Jordanian dialect to date.

These dialects are as follows:

Modern Standard Arabic (MSA): It is mostly used in most formal speech and writing (e.g., literary texts, news broadcasts, and high-register speech).

Urban or Ammani Dialect (UD): Most of its speakers (around 95%) are new to Amman and have moved in and settled there after the Arab–Israeli Wars of 1948 and 1967 (Abd-el-Jawad, 1986). One of this dialect's major features is its pronunciation of / q/ as [ʔ] (i.e., glottal stop). For most women, this dialect is considered to be "soft" and "prestigious." This "softness" or "prestigiousness" is only a social classification that has been established due to the differences between femininity and masculinity. According to Banikalef and Maros (2013), most Jordanian females believe the urban dialect is socially acceptable only for the most prestigious social class.

Rural Dialect: It is spoken by native village dwellers—especially in Irbid, Ajloun, and Jerash—as well as by the peasants of Madaba, Amman, Karak, Shobak, and Tafila, with differences in pronunciation. One of the main features of this dialect is the pronunciation of /q/ as [g] and /k/ as mostly [ʧ] (Al-Raba'a, 2016).

Bedouin Dialects (BD): It is spoken by about 2 million nomadic tribes (e.g., Huwaytat, Alababid, and Bani Hassan). One of the major features of this dialect is the pronunciation of /q/ as mostly [ʤ] (i.e., voiced post-alveolar affricate).

Britain and Cheshire (2003, p. 60) found that the competing linguistic features in Jordan were part of the urban Palestinian dialect on the one hand, and of the rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect on the other. These dialects can also be easily distinguishable from one another, and consequently, the regional background of a speaker can simply be determined through the pronunciation of some phonemes (e.g., /q/ and /ʔ/ in the rural and urban dialects).

The rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect and urban Palestinian dialect have linguistic differences that are clearest at the phonological level (Al-Tamimi, 2001). For example, while the standard phonemes /ʤ/ (i.e., voiced postalveolar affricate, /k/ (i.e., voiceless velar stop), and /q/ (i.e., voiceless uvular stop) are pronounced as [ʤ], [ʧ] (i.e., voiceless postalveolar affricate), and [g] (i.e., voiced velar stop) in the rural dialect, they are pronounced as [ʒ] (i.e., voiced postalveolar fricative), [k], and [ʔ] (i.e., glottal stop) in the urban dialect.

These differences are not only on the pronunciation level but also on the lexicon level. Although the two dialects share a large proportion of the same vocabulary, some words are more specific to the rural dialect, and some are more specific to the urban dialect. For example, "jidiy versus sayidi garnd father," "hassa versus hallaʔ" "now, bisawwi versus biʕmal, ""to do, bidesh versus mabadi, I don't want," "ʕayyaṭ versus baka, he cried," and "sih versus sarikh, he shouts," respectively.

The Jordanian colloquial Arabic (normally, rural dialect and urban dialect) is used on a much wider scale in Jordan than the MSA or BD and therefore is a commonly used communication medium across social-media sites (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, and Google+) (Gelbukh, 2014). Since the Jordanian colloquial Arabic has also been frequently used in everyday communication, it developed as a feature of the protest language on Facebook. This study reveals that the Jordanian protesters deliberately used the Indigenous languages (e.g., the rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect) to address and voice Indigenous cultural aspirations since the protests were initially seen as addressing "national" concerns, in line with an overall "national interest." Using the rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect provided the protesters with the flexibility of self-expression and of saying what must be said. Furthermore, specific social terms and definitions that are more accurately expressed in the rural dialect, as their meaning is expressed more effectively and efficiently, both socially and culturally, which in turn leads to better communication. This can be said about the use of "sahij" (i.e., a person who blindly or unquestioningly follows the government), which lacks a direct English translation.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Jordanian protesters created Facebook pages and groups to allow anyone with shared interests to join and participate in discussion forums and threads. These Facebook tools (e.g., pages, groups, or personal profiles) are open to anyone with a Facebook account, including Facebook "friends" from Jordan and throughout the world. Through these Facebook tools, users joined the movement, thereby initiating online protests that moved offline and prompting a series of large-scale protests. This study examines the Fourth Circle protests' discourse that was posted on Facebook. These posts reflected the impact on ideological thinking of the positive, inclusive "us" representation and the negative, exclusive "they" representation.

The data consist of Facebook status messages posted publicly by Jordanian Facebook users (e.g., individuals, social activists, and professional associations). The data represents posts that highlight social, political, and cultural problems specific to Jordanian society. Some of them voice identity-based concerns that are local to Jordan. For example, a Facebook group titled "m?nash" (we are penniless) was created by Jordanian young adults. Data collection was conducted between May 31, 2018 and June 4, 2018, during which the protests were taking place. During this period, a total of 125 Facebook status messages were gathered from 35 Facebook profiles. They are comprised of posts from Facebook personal profiles, groups, and pages. Table 1 below summarizes the corpus data. The Facebook status messages are numbered P1-P125 ('P' refers to the participant).

The current study used a qualitative critical-discourse analysis method (CDA) as a baseline for the research design. When analyzing the data, applying the interpretive CDA indicates the role of ideology in the Jordanian Facebook protesters' opinions. The pragmatic functions and rhetorical tactics used by the protesters to construct their posts were also investigated.

TABLE 1
DETAILS OF THE FACEBOOK CORPUS

Type of Account	Number of Status Messages	Percentage (%)
Facebook Personal Profile	55	44
Facebook Group	40	32
Facebook Page	30	24
Total	125	100

V. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Due to the limited word count of this research, we can only analyze a limited number of posts that clearly highlight the ideological stances—especially those which fall under some of the categories mentioned previously (e.g., self-identification and descriptions of the different actors). In these examples, posts involved the rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect (RD), urban Palestinian dialect (UD), and Bedouin dialects (BD) are highlighted and classified according to their frequency of occurrence.

A. Self-Identity and Actor Description

Table 2 below shows that 81.6% of the data were written in the rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect, while UR accounted for 10.4%, and BD for 8% of the total status messages in the sample. This reduction in UD could be due to the inherent properties of the dialect itself. Several studies found that the urban dialect is usually associated with the speakers, who originally descended from Palestinian origins (Abd-el-Jawad, 1986; Al-Wer, 1991; Suleiman, 1985). The Fourth Circle protests were originally perceived as exclusive to the Jordanian Indigenous dwellers, who pursued their own vision of their national interest. As such, the Jordanians who participated in the Fourth Circle protests came from rural areas, where most Indigenous people live. Similarly, the online Jordanian activists deliberately updated their Facebook status messages by using their own distinctive dialect (i.e., RD), which revitalized their Indigenous roots and embodied their political views, as well as their cultural, ethnic, social, economic, and religious backgrounds.

Another justification for the frequent occurrence of RD, as compared to the low frequency of BD, was given by Al-Sughayer (1990). He considered Jordan's rural dialect to be "Fusha" (i.e., the standard Arabic variety), which translates "clarity of articulation," as compared to BD and UD (1990, p. 6). According to him, there is a possible historical connection between RD and MSA under the assumption that RD evolved from classical Arabic, and accordingly is a sister language to MSA. Therefore, in comparison to BD, RD is a standard spoken dialect that is commonly accepted and understood by all Jordanian speakers. Thus, it may be easily chosen for writing on Facebook and other social media platforms.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY OF EACH DIALECT'S OCCURRENCE

Type of Dialect	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Rural Dialect	102	81.6
Urban Dialect	13	10.4
Bedouin Dialect	10	8
Total	125	100

Self-identification is characteristic of the ideology-based discourse of protests. In this case, the actors engaging in discourse described their identities (e.g., who they are, where they belong, what their characteristics are, and who their enemies and friends are). This is where "us" (e.g., the people) versus "them" (e.g., the government) can be found. The results showed that the pronoun "nḥn" (we) occurs 82 times across the data. This pronoun is commonly used to represent either the public, the Jordanian working class, or the Indigenous Jordanians.

Consider the following examples:

احنا اولاد الحراثين قلولي انتوا مين.

P.8. We are the sons of the plowmen. Tell me who you are.

احنا اولاد البلد بنحكي لهون وبكفي.

P.16. We are sons of this soil, saying it is enough.

نحن عامة الشعب ......

P.23. We are the public...

Throughout many of the posts, it can be observed that in-grouping is a common topic, in which the primary focus of the language is on "us" as the most significant element of the problem. This commonly holds the power to keep the audience's focus only on the in-group and influences their opinion to align with them—particularly, by emphasizing the complementary aspects of the in-group. For example, in P.8, the in-group is defined as "the sons of the plowmen, who have their own honest and distinct voice." In the context of Jordan, to be described as "the sons of the plowmen" usually means Indigenous Jordanians, who are typically from the farming and working classes of rural people, and in the case of this research, they are working-class people who tend to be marginalized and oppressed by their leadership. Therefore, in this case, the political in-group is comprised of Jordanian protesters who have organized themselves online and are active offline.

Hani al-Mulki's government is commonly represented in a negative light as the out-group, or "them." The government is described, both directly and indirectly, as being "out of touch, self-interested, dishonest, selfish, and lacking political efficiency" (see P.19, P.35 below). Several posts revived a debate over subsequent governments failing to spur economic growth and not taking accountability for it, as well as their misuse of public funds. Therefore, critical language is used to describe governmental action in many posts. For example, the government's activities can be described as being "floundering" (P.37), "thieving" (P.25), and "rubber stamp" (P.119), meanwhile their approach is described as a way to "agonize and rebuke the general public" or abandon them "to die in abject poverty and starvation" (P.33). These are many examples of the out-group being negatively portrayed and described as being "corrupt" and "rogue".

The Jordanian political decision makers tend to be defined as "negligent" and as those who "embezzle public funds" (P.122). Several of these activities are main topics or themes of various posts (P.111) and are employed to manipulate civic discourse, deceive people, and undermine the trust in Hani al-Mulki's government. For example, viewing governmental members as "people who steal the public's funds and therefore justify the protests" (see P.20 below). Other posts highlighted the abuse of power by politicians and other public figures for private ends. This reveals that the authors of these posts used their previous knowledge of the corruption record in Jordan. In the Jordanian context, it is challenging to identify who the "corrupt government" refers to, while the Cabinet members who are suspected of corruption and/or maladministration continue to have the support and protection of local tribal leaders.

'كل الاردن لازم تحتج وتطلع من بيوتها ضد الحكومة الي مالها دخل بشي ولا حاسه بالشعب المنتهي'.

P.19. All Jordanians must take to the streets to protest against a government that many Jordanians feel is unresponsive and out of touch with our daily struggles.

(ونشوف شو اخرتها مع حكومة السرقة انا بس بدي اعرف الحكومه شو بدهم بالضريبه الزياده ؟! يعني همه يشفطوا واحنا نحاسب عنهم)

P.20. Let us see what will happen next with this government of thieves... why do they need to raise the tax? They stole, and we pay the price.

'الحكومة خلتنا على الحديدة بنستلم الراتب لنصرف عليها'

P.35. The government has honestly bankrupted us; I have nothing; I get a salary and spend it all because of the high cost of living.

'مين باعنا وباع كل شي عنا من فوسفات للكهرباء للاتصالات مين مين ....مين...................مين.... اكيد علي بابا وألاربعين حرامي ؟؟؟'

P.85. Who sold all our national resources and industries, from phosphate to electricity and telecommunication? Who? Who? Who? Certainly, Ali Baba and the 40 thieves.

'يعني كلنا عارفين انه هاني الملقي منزلش من السما وكلنا عارفين الي حطة وعارفين انه هاي السياسات اجته من فوق'

P.92. Hani al-Mulki [the prime minister] did not [parachute] from the sky. We know who brought him … and we know the policies he is adopting are imposed from above.

Due to the multiethnic and multinational identities that exist in Jordan between the East Bankers (i.e., Native Jordanians) and the West Bankers (i.e., Palestinian-origin Jordanians), identifying who the "us" refers to in this in-group is much more challenging and unclear. For instance, some opposed the protests based on their support of King Abdullah's regime and the potential economic benefit of removing bread subsidies and raising gasoline taxes. In contrast, there were a considerable number of posts from those who consider themselves to be "Indigenous Jordanians," and they must "get back their stolen country," (P.43) or they "no longer own the homeland" (P.122).

Those who supported the government's actions kept themselves at a distance from the protests' main activists since

several assumed that the government's economic policy could move the "country forward in sustainable development" (P.115) or was likely to "recover the economy" (P.112). Therefore, many of them are considered to be "government supporters," who tried to demotivate the protesters.

This is reflected in the posts below:

'بسراحة ، أنا مع الحكومة الآن لدعم الاقتصاد'

P.75. Frankly speaking, I totally support what the Government is currently doing to recover the Jordanian economy.

'ارحمو...البلد. ارحمو.ارحمو الأردن بلا مسخره كل واحد ع بيته'

P.115. Please, have pity on this country, enough of this charade. Return to your homes.

'برايي انه البلد تعبت لاجئين خلهم يدفعوا زيادة'

P.118. In my opinion, the country is full of refugees. Let them pay more.

'مشان الله لا تخربوا بلدكم شوفوا سوريا وليبيا'

P.121. For Heaven's sake, do not destroy your country. See what happened in Libya or Syria.

The posters of the above opinions chose not to identify themselves with everyone else by using "we". Alternatively, they referred to themselves exclusively using "I". This indicates that their opinions about the protests were personal in nature. However, some others saw the protests as superfluous. Their position mostly derives from their fear of potential bloodshed and the threats of these protests to people's lives and personal property (P.121) above represented that once he said 'do not destroy your country' as the Syrian and Libyan did.

B. Linguistic and Discourse Strategies

Some of the language and discourse strategies were used by activists online to define their activities and who they were—particularly, when negatively representing the Jordanian government. Governmental policy was described negatively, both implicitly and explicitly, using specific words (e.g., "thieves, out of touch, embezzlers, rubber stamp"). Negative actions were also motivated by certain discourse strategies. For example, the use of rural terms to label Indigenous Jordanians expressed Indigenous ethnic aspirations, as the initial image of the protests was to pursue "national interests". The use of the rural Jordanian East-Bank dialect helped the protesters intensify the public's negative impression of the government. For example, "sahij" (see P.97 below) is a person who blindly or unquestioningly follows the government. This term is used frequently by the rural Jordanian East-Bank speakers to stigmatize the government's supporters. Similarly, "btxzi" (P.113) is a colloquial, often rural Jordanian expression, which is commonly used by protesters to represent disgust and disappointment. In this case, this expression is employed to voice repugnance over governmental policies. Additionally, "ħrameh" (P.10) is a rural term for "thieves", which is used to describe the government.

' اولاد الحراثين وانتو اولاد الحراميةحاد نا'

P.10. We are the sons of the plowmen, and you are the sons of thieves.

'حذاء كل حراكي حر شريف . في فم كل سحيج ذنب واطي'

P.97. The shoes of all free honorable activists are in the mouth of all sheeple.

'والله احنا شعب كويس بس عنا حكومة بتخزي'

P.113. I swear to God, we are good people, but we have a disgraceful government.

Pronouns are another linguistic strategy used by the activists to manipulate civic discourse and mobilize the people. According to Allen and Faigley (1995), pronouns are the most direct representation of the actor (i.e., subject); therefore, any change in pronoun will inevitably affect the cultural construction and expectations of the subject. This study reveals that most of the posters deliberately used specific pronouns to refer to the government as "them". For example, "those thieves by which the Jordanians are presented as alienated or excluded from the authorities". This indicates that the Jordanian government is not on the side of the citizens (i.e., activists), who are referred to collectively by pronouns such as "us" and "we". As a result, the Jordanian government is constructed as acting against the Jordanian people, while the activists present themselves as the victims. Therefore, many of the posters were writing on behalf of the group via the pronoun "we", to underline the collective character of the protests (e.g., "We're not going to be silent"). Other activists aligned with this suggestion by forwarding the collective nature of the protests. By talking of their shared misery and happiness (e.g., "We are protesting here for a better future," and "We are partners in joy and sorrow"), collectivity is constructed and emphasized.

In addition to pronoun use, humor was used as a new online linguistic strategy for protest mobilization, both to promote activism online and as a powerful communication tool, thereby serving a true "weapon of the weak". For example, humorous posts mocking the Jordanian Prime Minister, Hani Mulki, were extremely prominent in the data.

Consider the following examples:

'هاني الملقي يا فاشل ... يا فااااشل اغنيهااالك حتى تفهمها'

P.5. O, failure; O, failure; Hani Mulki is a failure; shall I sing it to you so that you will understand it?

P.1. I heard that Hani Mulki Mubarak is ousted, so now I can do my shopping, haha.

'هاني الملقي، شو أخبارك شعب الأردن، حطك في دارك ... هههمه'

P.17. So, what's up, man? Hani Mulki, I told you that the people of Jordan will send you to your home, haha.

Ambiguously humorous posts were used by the activists as a tool to provide relief from open or covert social and political pressures. As such, no one could be sure whether such humorous posts conveyed a serious message, or the poster was just making fun of the idea. Such posts are used to bolster fellowship among oppressed or marginalized

groups (e.g., the Indigenous Jordanians). Notice that in P.103, "We became like the Native Americans, but with no headdresses, haha". They described themselves as "Native Americans," which means the Indigenous Jordanians have become a minority among many Palestinians and refugees. Posting this humorous message expresses the fear of Indigenous Jordanians becoming a minority in their country.

Other protesters used proverbs to express their disgust. P.22 states, "هاي القشة الي قسمت ظهر البعير" which means, "This is the straw that broke the camel's back." Use of this proverb means the Jordanian people cannot pay all these taxes and still live in their country. They feel that Mulki's governmental decisions make their lives more complicated.

Similarly, P.25 states, "This government is leading the country into total chaos; they keep adding more taxes, while we have no services. We don't even have a decent transportation system. It's enough. Enough is enough." Her opinion represents the Jordanian people's disappointment. She focused on the poor services that the government has provided for the people—despite collecting a lot of taxes from them. Therefore, she was surprised by the actions that the government took to solve the corruption in the country. Using the word "enough" three times means that she won't accept solving governmental corruption with Jordanian money. Alternatively, the government must solve the problem by returning the corrupted money from the thieves who stole it previously.

P.17 reaffirms P.25 and asks, "They took millions of dollars, and where did it go?" This means the government got a lot of money from other countries, taxes, and other local resources, but they are still requesting that the Jordanians pay more taxes to cover the government's inefficient management. Therefore, the poster wanted to know how the government spent all this money, and on which projects the government spent it. The implicit speech showed that he didn't trust the government, and that the thieves would continue to steal the money, as they did previously.

The following participant's speech illuminates the Indigenous protesters. P.19 simply states, "We are Jordanian people. We are normal. We are not political. We go to the Fourth Circle to tell the government that we want a better life. We do not want new taxes." Saying, "We are Jordanian, and we are normal" means the original Jordanians are the main party within the country, and as such, they own it. Additionally, he uses the pronoun "we" to indicate that they are oppressed by the government because it has no solutions—except taking taxes from the citizens.

In 2018, the Fourth Circle protesters expressed their sadness over the government's performance. They wanted to say that there were no strategic plans followed by the government to guarantee a better life for the Jordanians. The first way of covering this gap is always looking for new taxes which are paid by them. Therefore, the protesters wanted to send a message to the government that they will not stop protesting unless they get their demands. The most interesting reaction by the Jordanian protesters was when they read the first post by the new Prime Minister Omar Razzaz who was appointed after Mulki. They didn't accept his tweets and continued in their mission because they felt that he used a hint strategy to modify not to cancel the income tax law. The protesters' reaction obligates Omar Razzaz to announce that this tax law has to be canceled and the government has to look for other solutions to get the needed money.

In conclusion, the success of the Jordanian Fourth Circle protesters can be summarized by three points: (1) They gathered a lot of Jordanian people to protest with them to express their opinion locally and internationally; (2) They obligated the two prime ministers to cancel the income tax, thereby achieving their demands; and (3) They made King Abdullah II aware of the problems they face with the government. They sent a direct message that they could not endure. King Abdullah II's reaction was made public when he sent his son Prince Hussain to meet the protesters and tell them that the king received the message, and he would do his best to achieve their demands.

The linguistic strategies used by the protesters attracted more Jordanians to join the movement. They helped them to make a very huge crowd which cannot be ignored and encourage their king to change the Prime Minister Mulki. Even the new prime minister felt that the posts and speeches of the protesters cannot be stopped if he didn't withdraw the income tax law. The direct usage of the pronoun they by the protesters is negatively concentrating on the management of government to solve the primary problems of the country. All of these evidences indicate that the impact of language power on the subjective and objective issues in people's life is so strong. Language can reflect users' identity, feelings, thoughts, believes, opinions, agreements, and disagreements for the life issues generally and their personal problems particularly.

C. The Success of the Jordanian Protest

The results of the Fourth Circle protests led Prince Hussain to meet the protesters and explain that King Abdullah II would follow up on their demands, which he said were merited. After a few days of the protests, King Abdullah II called upon Prime Minister Hani al-Mulki to resign because he could not solve the problem of the income-tax draft law. Then the King of Jordan assigned Omar Razzaz to be the new prime minister, and he insisted that he should fulfill the protesters' demands via negotiation.

The new Prime Minister of Jordan, Omar Razzaz, directly fulfilled the protesters needs by tweeting that he would discuss the new income-tax problem with the Jordanians to produce a new law that would be acceptable by all the Jordanian parties. Unfortunately, they continued protesting in the Fourth Circle because they didn't want any new taxes. They said the tax must be canceled by the new government. Once the protests continued, Prime Minister Omar Razzaz withdrew the new income tax and fulfilled the protesters' demands, as Majesty Abdullah II recommended that he do.

After the decision was announced by the Jordanian TV channels and newspapers, the protesters felt satisfied about the new governmental decisions. The new Prime Minster of Jordan also executed the protesters' other demands (e.g., returning the bread financial grant, decreasing product prices, and finding ways to reduce the cost of living to a more

acceptable rate).

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has shown the extent to which Jordanians have used Facebook to execute and mobilize online protests. These new technologies have allowed free expression and social activism without repercussions—particularly in Jordan, where there are no current restrictions on communication using new media methods. Currently, the advancement of mobile-computing devices allows users to go online anywhere and anytime. The Jordanian activists used social media—particularly, Facebook—in notable ways (e.g., organizing, coordinating, and publicizing). This study's findings show that Facebook has been used both as a protest tool and a space for the Fourth Circle protests. It was possible for the Fourth Circle's activists to use Facebook to mobilize, strategize, and keep Jordanians updated with information. It was found that Facebook sustains both online and offline protests. If the economic policies and social injustices were kindling for the Fourth Circle protests, then Facebook was both the spark and accelerant for the movement. When Jordanian activists wanted to topple Hani al-Mulki and his government, they turned to social networks—specifically, Facebook. A few weeks before the street protest, an activist started the "m?nash" (we are penniless) page on Facebook to support striking workers. The page has drawn in more than 30,000 members, all of whom are concerned by issues (e.g., the country's poor economy) and frustrated with the government. Particularly interesting is of the deliberate use of the rural East-Bank dialect of the Jordanian Indigenous dwellers by the activists to inspire and motivate others to leave the comfort of their homes and go into the chaotic streets to face-off against Hani Al-Mulki's government. Consequently, the Fourth Circle protests successfully pushed for the government's resignation. Thus, this study confirms recent research on the impact of online protest activities (Amna, 2015; Chiluwa, 2015; Tufekci, 2017).

This study further revealed social media's potential to highlight different aspects of language use and ideological representation. Discourse strategies that highlight this include the use of rural terms, pronouns, and humorous posts. In the Jordanian case, the Indigenous dialect strategy was used by the protesters to express their objections and to highlight language to mediate its sociocultural context. It was used by the protesters to put pressure on the government by insisting they had rights as the original citizens of Jordan. They rapidly used this dialect in their posts to remind the government and the prime minister that it was important to listen to them because they had the power to gather the Jordanians in their uprising. They described themselves as "the sons of the plowmen" to represent that they were the original community who lived in the Jordanian lands before anyone else. However, they didn't mean they hated the other people who lived in Jordan; they only wanted to insist that they had rights and to express their negative opinion about the latest governmental decisions. Therefore, they used the pronoun "we" to indicate themselves as an oppressed people, and they used the pronoun "they" to indicate the negative party (i.e., the government).

Unfortunately, research that assesses the role of language in new media communication is very new in Jordan—especially that which focuses on the sociolinguistics and pragmatic nature of online discourse (Banikalef & Bataineh, 2017; Shaari & Bataineh, 2015). The current study inspires further research on the use of social media and alternate digital-media technologies in protests and social activism, as well as in interpersonal and intercultural communication via the use of local sociocultural resources. From the Jordanians' perspective, Facebook has gradually become the most widespread platform for social, political, and intercultural communication—particularly with the expanding public responses to religiopolitical changes.

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The Use of Repair Strategies in the EFL University Classroom During the COVID-19 Pandemic in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran

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Abstract—This research discusses the variations of repair strategies used by lecturers and students during the online learning process. The aim of the study is to compare repair strategy variations in online learning in the university classroom during the COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesia, Algeria and Iran. The research data are a series of utterances by lecturers and students in online classes, which were collected from video and audio recordings of three different university classroom sessions. The data collection was carried out using record and note techniques. The data were analyzed by applying the theories of Sacks et. al. (2015) & Learner (2004) to describe the variations of repair strategies in the EFL university classroom. The results show that four different variations of repair strategies were used by lecturers and students in EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran: self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated other-repair, with the exception of the EFL university classroom in Indonesia, where other-initiated other-repair was not used, and the most prominent variation was self-initiated self-repair.

Index Terms—self repair variations, online learning, university classroom sessions

I. INTRODUCTION

Online learning is an alternative method of learning that has been implemented in various educational institutions during the COVID-19 pandemic, especially in universities. The reason for online learning at this time is to prevent the spread of COVID-19 while continuing to provide teachers and students with access to learning over the Internet (Zhafira et al., 2020). Distance learning not only requires the support of technology but also demands a greater initiative by teachers (Havwini, 2019). Technological support is used to conduct online learning in media such as Google Classroom, Edmodo, Schoology, Zoom, Google Meet, WhatsApp, Facebook, and Instagram.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, interaction between lecturers and learners in EFL university classrooms remains of primary importance in the teaching and learning process. Non-native speakers who speak English as a foreign language (EFL) need to maintain English-speaking interaction throughout the learning process. Since English is a foreign language for these students, it is likely that they will find it a challenge to understand when the lecturer uses sentences that they perceive as complex and complicated during the learning process (Marlina et al., 2021). This may lead to a potential breakdown in communication.

In the EFL teaching and learning process, a breakdown in communication is often caused by the problem of language disfluency due to a lack of English skills, such as poor vocabulary, grammar, or listening ability. Therefore, the relationship between the learning and development processes in bilingual education is of great importance since both

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can influence each other in the classroom (Custodio-Espinar, 2023). Nevertheless, language errors are difficult to avoid, especially in virtual classes where errors may occur at any time due to the significant changes in conditions that cause language disfluency such as problems with speaking, hearing, and understanding. In order to avoid mis-understandings in communication, repairs are made to maintain utterances.

The study of repair is conducted using a Conversation Analysis (CA) approach. Paltridge (2006) views CA as a method for observing how people manage their daily conversational interactions, allowing the primary purpose of the utterance to be understood. As a direct consequence of the problems in a conversation, both the lecturer and the learner use repairs to help the conversation return to normal. Repairs are used to ensure that when a problem arises, the communication does not break down due to a pause or false start but is retained in such a way that the interaction can be completed (Schegloff, 2007, p. 14). The act of repair can be done by the speaker, or "self" (the lecturer), or by the "other-self" (the student).

Repair forms include non-lexical initiators, such as cut-offs, lengthening of sounds, and quasi-lexical fillers. In order to repair an error in informal speech, the lecturer can repeat words and use fillers to achieve the communication goal (Talebi & Biria, 2015). The communication can be repaired to maintain fluency by using expressions such as "excuse me", "pardon", "huh", "hmm." who", "when", "where", etc. (Schegloff et al., 1997; Hall, 2007).

The subject of conversational repair in the EFL university classroom has been examined by Chalak et al. (2015), Wisrance (2017), Ren (2018), Aleksius and Saukah (2018), Mozaffari et al. (2018), and Ali (2021). However, the present study on conversational repair is different from previous research. It investigates conversational repair in EFL teaching and learning during the COVID-19 pandemic in Indonesian, Algerian, and Iranian universities that use English as a foreign language in university classroom learning. Due to the language problems that exist in EFL university classes during the COVID-19 pandemic, the repair strategies used by lecturers and learners can increase the awareness of English skills in the learning and teaching process.

Németh (2012) examined Recycling and Replacement Repairs as self-initiated same-turn self-repair strategies in Hungarian. The results showed that the purpose of the self-initiated repair process manifested in the operational repair of international functions for the speaker, such as giving extra time for repair based on the sequence of functions in the peculiarities and content of words in the language and alternation in the corrected case. Chalak et al. (2015) examined Replacement Operation in Self-Initiated Repair Practices in Oral Reproduction of Short Stories. The results found that the two Iranian EFL learners studied often produced explicit repairs.

Another interesting article by Ardini (2018), about Repair Strategies of Teacher's Speech in the EFL Classroom, was found in a journal that examines self-improvement in EFL students in Indonesia. The results of this study showed that repetition repair was used more frequently than self-initiated repair. It also found a combination of these two repair strategies in a single utterance. Meanwhile, the results of study by Novitasari and Imperiani (2020) on A Conversation Analysis of Repair Strategies in Indonesian Elementary EFL Learners showed that the trouble source that arose influenced the recipient's ability to make a repair due to the student's lack of knowledge about the topic.

Based on the phenomena mentioned above, it is interesting to investigate whether lecturers and students use a variety of self-repair strategies in classroom sessions. Although previous research has already addressed this topic, there are no existing studies which focus on the variations of self-repair strategies used in online classroom sessions in tertiary institutions. Therefore, the aim of this study is to find comparisons between the conversation repair strategies used in the EFL university classroom in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran.

II. METHOD

This research is a qualitative descriptive study (Moleong, 2002) which focusses on interviews, observation, and documentation. In this study, the writer uses a CA approach to carry out an observation of classroom sessions (Moleong, 2010). The study of repair strategies reveals the interrelationship between the CA approach and Discourse Analysis since it studies everyday communication as it occurs within the context of classroom teaching (Wooffitt, 2005). The research data are a series of utterances in online learning in university classroom sessions which were collected from the data sources (audio and video recordings in the EFL university classroom), through Google Meet and Zoom from universities in Indonesia and overseas (including Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta, University of Echahid Hamma Lakhdar, and Tarbiat Modares University. The data collection of the interactions was carried out using record and note techniques (Sidnell & Stivers, 2012). The data are based on the completed use of repairs in the three countries' classrooms. With the aid of recording and note taking, the researcher was able to record the learning both directly and indirectly. The direct method involved listening to and recording online learning sessions through Google Meet and Zoom, while the indirect method involved listening to online learning sessions that were uploaded via Google Drive. Subsequently, the speech in the online classroom sessions was transcribed into Microsoft Word. The data were then analyzed by applying the theories of Sacks et al. (1974) and Learner (2004), with three principles of turn taking.

III. RESULTS

This research compares the repair strategies used in EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran, and examines the types of operation that appear in self-initiated repair in the EFL university classrooms in these three

countries. The results of the conversation repairs can be seen in Table 1 below. This table is also based on the work of Schegloff (2011), which provides an analytical and descriptive account of the organization of repair in conversational talk-in-interaction. The interactions studied occurred mostly during the time of the pandemic when almost all of the interaction between teachers and students took place in online classroom sessions.

A. Variations of Repair Strategies in EFL University Classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran

The 4 classifications of repair strategy variations that appeared in the EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran were self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated other-repair

TABLE 1
VARIATIONS OF REPAIR STRATEGIES

Repair Strategies	Indonesia	Algeria	Iran	F	%
Self-initiated Self-repair	497	59	113	669	76
Other-initiated Self-repair	28	51	78	157	18
Self-initiated Other-repair	15	4	19	38	4
Other-initiated Other-repair	0	5	16	21	2

As shown in the table above, four variations of repair strategies were used by the lecturers and learners in the EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran, with the exception of the lecturers and learners in the EFL university classroom in Indonesia, who did not use the other-initiated other-repair strategy. Overall, the lecturers and the learners from all three countries primarily used the self-initiated self-repair strategy rather than the other three types of strategy, with a frequency of 669 occurrences or 76% frequency.

1. Self-initiated Self-repair Strategy

The excerpts below are examples taken from conversations which provide a clear understanding of how lecturers applied the self-initiated self-repair strategy in EFL classroom conversations in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran. The variations of this particular type of repair included hesitation, pause, restoration by code-switching, searching for a word, immediate sentence change, immediate lexical change, repetition of the personal pronoun, false start, trouble source correction, repetition of linguistic change, and repetition. The quotes below represent the variations of self-initiated self-repair strategies in the three countries (Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran).

(a) Excerpt 1:
(3) L: I will have one-on-one session quality face-to-face class today so I expect everybody speak in
(4)   English yeah you can do like mixed it up like bahasa Indonesia campur-campur ya ora opo-
(5)   opo is no problem but make sure you you do as much as English as possible.
(6) L: Ok we are currently have… we are having 21 learners joining to our class and I will begin my
(7)   presentation by giving information that I have been watching your presentation. [EFL CL, Indonesia]

Excerpt 1 shows that the lecturer uses a particular repair strategy, self-initiated self-repair, with code-switching in line 4 and pausing searching for a words in line 6. In line 4, the repair pattern of code-switching can be seen in the words "Mixed it up like mixed Indonesian, yes, or not, is no problem." The lecturer uses this pattern to clarify his statement that using two languages at once, or code-switching, is not a problem, and it is acceptable to use a combination of Indonesian and English, if necessary, in order to have the self-confidence to speak up and ask questions. Meanwhile, in line 6, the lecturer repairs his speech by pausing, searching for a word, then following through with "we are having 21 learners". The lecturer uses the pause to think about what he wants to say.

(b) Excerpt 2:
(15) L: There are more, the more of the I mean the certain word is about totally different so here the
(16)   words Shella given to whose the whose say the income the and word you use. (false start)
(55) L: That is the difference between them. That is the difference between direct and indirect object.
(56)   I'll give you more example. 'The teacher offers the copy book'. Isn't it? 'Sheina'. (immediate
(57)   lexical change)
*   [EFL CL, Algeria]*

The types of repair used by the lecturer in excerpt 2 in the Algerian EFL classroom are false start and immediate lexical change. In line 15, the lecturer uses a false start, which occurs when the lecturer starts her utterance wrongly with "there are more" and initiates a repair by correction. Then she repeats the sentence with the correct version of "The more of the I mean." In line 55, the lecturer uses an immediate lexical change from "them" to "direct and indirect object." This repetition occurs because the lecturer wants to clarify the meaning of them that she wishes to convey, so "direct and indirect object" are immediately used to replace "them" while the lecturer is speaking.

(c) Excerpt 3:
(4) L: So just listen for my sentences if I was too fast. There are some books in my bed bag. Sorry
(5)   in my bag not bed. Trouble source correction
(14) L: Can you hear me? Yes. Can you hear me? Can you hear me? Repetition

[EFL CL, Iran]

In excerpt 3, the types of repair used by the lecturer in the Iranian EFL classroom are trouble source correction in line 4 and repetition in line 14. In the trouble source correction made by the lecturer in line 4, the word "bed" is followed by the correct phrase, namely "my bag." This repetition with correction is done so that the learners do not misunderstand what the lecturer is saying. Meanwhile, in line 14, the lecturer repeats the short question three times to confirm whether or not the learners can hear what he is saying.

2.   Other-initiated Self-repair Strategy

Another type of repair used by the lecturers and learners in this study was other-initiated self-repair. The various types of repairs used by the learners and lecturers included confirmation statement, clarification request, trouble hearing, clarification, repetition by confirmation question, confirmation check, confirmation repetition, confirmation question, and clarification of accent trouble. The excerpts below illustrate two particular variations of other-initiated self-repair in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran.

(a) Excerpt 4:

(79) S$_6$: What's your social life with friends in the UK

(80) L: Social life?

(93) S$_7$: I want to ask you sir how to manage your time and your money while you were study abroad?

(94) L: I'm sorry I wasn't listening. I think we got the problems with the voice from you. Can you repeat that ?
(trouble hearing)

[EFL CL, Indonesia]

Excerpt 4 illustrates the use of other initiated self-repair strategy by the learner and lecturer through confirmation with the question "Social life?" In lines 79 and 80 the lecturer seeks confirmation with an inquiry to make sure he has understood the question asked by the learner. In lines 93 and 94, the repair occurs due to the lecturer's trouble hearing, marked by the words "I'm sorry I wasn't listening", because of a problem with the internet connection between the lecturer and learner. The lecturer uses this sentence to make the learner repeat the question.

(b) Excerpt 5:

(52) S$_3$: Linch

(53) L: 99Linch, for who or whom?

(83) S$_5$: Dinner.

(84) L: The dinner. The same here.

   [EFL CL, Algeria]

In excerpt 5, the variations of other initiated self-repair used by the learner and lecturer in the Algerian EFL classroom are confirmation question and confirmation repetition. In line 53, the lecturer uses repetition with a confirmation request, in which her reply seeks confirmation of the student's answer in line 52. In lines 83 & 84, the student answers "Dinner," which is followed by confirmation repetition from the lecturer, with the addition of "the" before she repeats the word to confirm the answer given by the student.

(c) Excerpt 6:

(5) S$_4$: (speaking louder) would be.

(6) L: Yes, would be is correct.

(35) S$_2$: Fourteen a floor seventeen stairs stairs stairs (wrong pronunciation).

(36) L: Stairs (correct pronunciation).

   [EFL CL, Iran]

The learner and the lecturer in extract 6 in the Iranian EFL classroom use repair in the form of a confirmation check in lines 5 and 6 and clarification of pronunciation trouble in lines 35 and 36. The lecturer carries out a confirmation check to confirm the answer given by the learner. The purpose of this is so that the learner can understand clearly the correct answer to the question. Meanwhile, in lines 35 & 36, the lecturer illustrates that the learner has mispronounced the word "stairs." She then clarifies the accent trouble of the learner by giving an example of the correct pronunciation. Then the learner repeats the word with the correct pronunciation.

3.   Self-initiated Other-repair Strategy

The third repair strategy used by lecturers and learners in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran was self-initiated other-repair. In conversations with this particular type of repair, the lecturers used variations such as repetition, confirmation request, confirmation check by statement, repeat by inserting a phrase, clarification request, repeat with an answer, repeat with a question. The following excerpts are examples of some of the variations of this type of repair strategy.

(a) Excerpt 7:

(17) L: Semangka

(18) S$_4$; high five semangka

(198) L: your video is not on.

(199) S$_{16}$: what Sir?

   [EFL CL, Indonesia]

In lines 17 & 18 and 198 & 199, the lecturer and learners use a variety of repair strategies by repeating with the insertion of a phrase and clarifying the request with a self-initiated other repair strategy. The lecturer gives the students

encouragement to receive the classroom instruction. In order to cheer them up while taking part in the online class, the lecturer says "*semangka*," which is a portmanteau of "*semangat*" and "*kakak*" in Indonesian. The purpose of this is to make the learners automatically feel excited to receive the instruction given by the lecturer. The meaning of the abbreviation "*semangka*" is to offer enthusiasm or encouragement to someone. In excerpt 7, the word is repeated by the learner with the insertion of the phrase "high five" before "*semangka*." Meanwhile, the lecturer in <u>line 198</u> asks the learners to turn on their video camera while joining his class. The lecturer's statement is not clear so the learners make a request for clarification with "what sir" to ask the lecturer to restate his meaning.

(a) Excerpt 8:
(23) L: Who is a real friend, Sahar?
(24) S₁: A real friend is someone who can support you.
(30) L: Ok, let's read the passage.
(31) S₂: (raising hand) can I read?
    [EFL CL, Algeria]

The variations of repair strategies used by the lecturer and learners in excerpt 8 are repeating with an answer in <u>lines 23 & 24</u> and repeating with a question in <u>lines 30 & 31</u>. In <u>lines 23 & 24</u>, the lecturer uses a repetition with answering strategy, by asking a student named Sahar about "a real friend." With clarity, the student repeats what was asked in the question, by answering with "A real friend is" to provide clear information about what is being presented. The lecturer and learner in <u>lines 30 and 31</u> use repetition with a question. In <u>line 30</u>, the lecturer asks the learners to read the material that is being taught without pointing to any particular student. Taking the initiative, the learner raises her hand to ask permission to read, with the question "Can I read?" The learner uses the question to seek approval for the initiative undertaken.

(b) Excerpt 9:
(18) L: That's good, so sorry your bad so sorry match the photo with the word and we were going to
(19)   listen together, okay?
(20) S₅: Okay
(70) L: And we don't have any problems. Now. Can you tell me part C? With partner.
(71) S₂: With partner, thing of three things, you're usually find in a bedroom and bathroom and living room.
    [EFL CL, Iran]

In excerpt 9, the lecturer and learners in <u>lines 18 & 20</u> and <u>70 & 71</u> use the self-initiated other-repair strategy with confirmation and repetition with answering. In <u>line 18,</u> the lecturer uses the variation of confirmation by commenting with appreciation, then stating his confirmation for the learners to match the photo again, using the marker "we were going to listen together, okay?" The learner also provides confirmation by answering "Okay." <u>In line 70</u> the lecturer and learner use repetition with an answer. The lecturer asks the learner to tell him part C, beginning with "With partner." The learner then repeats the prefix used by the lecturer before providing the answer.

4. Other-initiated Other-repair Strategy

The other-initiated other-repair strategy is only used by learners to answer questions from the lecturer simultaneously. This strategy was only used by Algerian and Iranian learners. It did not appear in the EFL university classroom in Indonesia because the material and learning method used did not include quizzes or ask the learners to answer questions. This was different from the EFL university classrooms in Algeria and Iran, where the learning process sometimes involved questions that the learners could answer simultaneously. The variations of this strategy found in the classes in Algeria and Iran included repetition of the same explanation and different responses. The excerpts below illustrate the use of the various repair strategies used.

(a) Excerpt 10:
(2) S1:…Phrase.
(3) S2: Conditional.
(99) S1: Four
(100) S2: Four…
    [EFL CL, Algeria]

In <u>lines 2 & 3</u> of excerpt 10, the learners use a variety of the repair strategy in the form of different answers, and <u>in lines 99 & 100</u>, they repeat the same answer. <u>In lines 2 & 3</u>, the learners use an other-initiated other-repair strategy with varying responses to respond to the lecturer's question. S1 answers "Phrase," while S2 answers differently with "conditional". A different repair variation is seen in <u>lines 99 & 100</u>, where the students repeat the same answer, "four," in answer to the lecturer's question.

(b) Excerpt 11
(3) S₁: …(silence) you should …
(4) S₃: (speaking louder) It's ok to have some…
(11) S₃: Advertisement.
(12) S₄: Advertisement
    [EFL CL, Iran]

In excerpt 11, the learners use different answers in <u>lines 3 & 4</u> and repeat the same answer in <u>lines 11 & 12</u>. The different responses given by the learners are in the form of different sentences. The learner in <u>line 3</u> says "you should..." while the learner in <u>line 4</u> says "It's ok to have some" in a loud voice. These responses are quite different from the repetition by the learners in <u>lines 11 and 12</u>, where they use the other-initiated other-repair strategy with the same answer, "Advertisement."

B. Types of Operation in Self-Initiated Repair in EFL University Classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran

The types of repair operations identified in the EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran were replacing, inserting, deleting, searching, aborting, reformatting, and reordering. The table below shows the frequency of the operations used by the lecturers and learners in these countries.

TABLE 2
TYPES OF OPERATION IN SELF-INITIATED REPAIR

Types of Operation in Self-initiated Repair	Indonesia	Algeria	Iran	F	%
Replacing	36	6	17	59	16
Inserting	193	15	34	242	65
Deleting	13	8	15	36	10
Searching	1	1	-	2	0.5
Aborting	-	20	1	21	6
Reformatting	6	-	2	8	2
Reordering	2	-	-	2	0.5

Table 2 shows that the type of operation used most frequently in self-initiated repair by the lecturers and learners was inserting, with a frequency of 242 or 65% of all the data in the three countries. As seen, the results recorded 242 examples of inserting by lecturers and students, but this type of repair operation was used more by lecturers than students. It can also be seen that the lecturers and students used several operation types, namely replacing, inserting, deleting, searching, aborting, reformatting, and reordering, although not all of the countries used all of the different types. In Indonesia, the lecturers and students only used replacing, inserting, deleting, searching, reformatting, and reordering, with no recorded evidence of the use of aborting in the repair operations. The repair operation with the highest frequency in Indonesia was inserting, which appeared 193 times, and the lowest was searching, which was recorded only one time. This type of operation was rarely used because the lecturers were well-prepared with their material, even though online learning does not hinder the lecturers from expressing their thoughts.

Meanwhile, the Algerian lecturers and students only used replacing, inserting, deleting, searching, and aborting, while the operation types of reformatting and reordering were not found. In addition to using fewer different types of repair operation than the Indonesian lecturers and students, the Algerian lecturers and students showed a lower frequency of repair operations. The highest frequency was aborting, with 20 occurrences, which was the opposite of Indonesia. Meanwhile, the type of operation that had the lowest frequency was the same as in Indonesia, namely searching, which appeared only once.

In the case of the EFL university classroom in Iran, the lecturers and students used more repair operations than in Algeria. The types of operation that appeared were replacing, inserting, deleting, aborting, and reformatting. The most frequently used type was the same as in Indonesia, namely inserting, which occurred 34 times. However, the frequency of this operation type was much lower than in Indonesia, where it appeared 193 times. The least frequent type of repair operation in Iran was aborting, which appeared only once.

The excerpts below are illustrations of the conversations between students and lecturers which show how the self-initiated repair operations were implemented.

(a)   Replacing
(1)   Excerpt 1:
L: If you would like to sing before we begin our class is ok. If you wanna sing. If you are going to sing song. Kemaren ada Aisyah yang nyanyi-nyanyi. Aisyah sudah join belum? Aisyah atau siapa ya kemaren tuh?
[EFL CL, Indonesia]

In excerpt 1, the lecturer initially uses the phrase "If you wanna sing", which is an informal and casual expression. However, the lecturer later replaces it with a more formal and precise phrase "If you are going to sing song" while maintaining the same meaning. The self-initiated repair operation is an attempt to improve the clarity and precision of the original statement, which may have been perceived as informal or unclear, while still conveying the same message.

(2)   Excerpt 2:
L: Form not correct? But they are different. Tell me the difference
[EFL CL, Iran]

In the given sentence, the self-initiated repair operation involves the speaker's attempt to clarify their previous statement by replacing the sentence "But they are different" with the question "Tell me the difference". By replacing the statement with a question, the lecturer is able to prompt the student to provide a response that can help clarify any confusion or misunderstandings. The question also indicates that the lecturer is actively seeking more information or clarification, which can improve communication and understanding between the two parties.

(3)   Excerpt 3:

L: So, what do you think? What's the difference between verb adjusting before in this year to grammar? At the title our lesson same. Have you seen the use article of compound as in this room… We have studied article in the classroom… But have you seen before?

[EFL CL, Algeria]

The lecturer in excerpt 3 replaces the question "What do you think?" with the complete sentence "What's the difference between verb adjusting before in this year to grammar" to make it easier for the students to understand what she means. The self-initiated repair operation involves the lecturer's attempt to clarify her previous statement by asking question. The replacement question indicates that the lecturer is seeking a more specific and detailed response from the student.

(4)   Excerpt 4:

L: You can… You can start with "hi!" "sweetheart" or something like that. Okay? You mean it directly.

[EFL CL, Algeria]

In excerpt 4, the lecturer replaces the phrase "You can..." with "You can start with 'hi!' 'sweetheart' or something like that". The original phrase "You can..." is incomplete and leaves the student uncertain about the specific options available to them. By providing examples like "hi!" or "sweetheart," the lecturer offers more specific options for the students to consider, thus improving the clarity and precision of her statement.

(b)   Inserting

(5)   Excerpt 5:

L: I mean like when you talk about introduction you don't have to say that "This one is introduction". If you talk about... if you talk about the objective, the goal of the research.

[EFL CL, Indonesia]

In excerpt 5, the lecturer uses a self-initiated repair operation to clarify their previous statement. The lecturer pauses after the word "about" and then inserts the words "the objective" to complete the statement, resulting in the phrase "If you talk about the objective." The original phrase "If you talk about..." is incomplete and lacks specificity, leaving the student uncertain about the topic that the lecturer is referring to. By adding "the objective," the lecturer provides more clarity and precision to the message.

(6)   Excerpt 6:

S₄: Actually, many questions… there were many questions or question that are you admit both you give me my paper books like admit have the same meaning like ignoring is it correct for my sentences?

[EFL CL, Iran]

In excerpt 6, the lecturer initiates a self-initiated repair operation by inserting the phrase "many questions" before "there were many questions or question that are you admit both you give me my paper books…." This repair operation improves the clarity of the lecturer's statement and demonstrates his ability to monitor and adjust their language use in real-time.

(c)   Deleting

(1)   Excerpt 7:

L: Indeed, you need practice more and more. You need to practice.   [EFL CL, Indonesia]

In excerpt 7, the lecturer initiates a self-initiated repair operation by deleting the word "Indeed" from their statement. This repair operation streamlines the lecturer's statement and improves the overall clarity and impact of their message. The original statement, "Indeed you need practice more and more. You need to practice," may be perceived as overly formal or wordy in some contexts. By deleting the word "Indeed," the lecturer removes unnecessary language and gets straight to the point. This makes their statement more concise and impactful, and may also help to maintain the student's attention.

(2)   Excerpt 8:

L: So how many types of statements we have in English? How many types of statements… in English?   [EFL CL, Algeria]

In excerpt 8, the lecturer replaces the initial statement "So how many types of statements we. The repair operation involves deleting the initial phrase "So" and rephrasing the sentence to make it more concise and straightforward. This improves the clarity of the question and avoids unnecessary filler words, making it easier for the students to understand and respond.

(3)   Excerpt 9:

L: We have so many words that are like this. When you change their stress change the stress, they completely change the meaning or part of the speech. Did you get? I'm sorry. Any questions? [EFL CL, Iran]

In excerpt 9, the lecturer deletes the word "their" to improve the clarity and conciseness of the statement. The original phrase "When you change their stress" can be simplified to "When you change the stress" without changing the meaning. The repair operation improves the efficiency of the utterance, making it more precise and easier to understand.

(d)   Searching

(1)   Excerpt 10:

S1: And do we mention subtitle of every apa sih namanya every why. So I mean that we should introduction in our ppt or methodology or result or something else? [EFL CL, Indonesia]

In this sentence, the lecturer is attempting to search by the phrase "every apa sih namanya every why" is not clear or understandable. The subsequent phrase "So I mean that we should introduction in our ppt or methodology or result or something else?" further clarifies the lecturer confusion about where exactly these subtitles should be included.

(2)   Excerpt 11:

L: *In term of what…? In term of elements. The main elements of simple sentence. Where do you say different types of sentences and what expression used? Okay? So the first is gonna to elements of the sentences. Before we go to elements of the sentences, would you give me, let's say, the main parts of speech. How many parts?*
[EFL CL, Algeria]

In excerpt 11, the lecturer performs a self-initiated repair operation by searching for the appropriate word to use after the phrase "In term of what". She pauses to search for the word she wants to use, then repeats the first part of the sentence and inserts the word she is looking for, namely "elements". This demonstrates the lecturer efforts to select the most accurate and appropriate language to convey her intended meaning to the student.

(e)   Aborting

(1)   Excerpt 12:

L: *So here you should put the verbs are given to… here the verbs are given to the form of … the verbs are given to … and here the verbs are given to…*
[EFL CL, Algeria]

The lecturer in excerpt 12 experienced several instances of self-initiated repair during her speech. The first instance occurred when she attempted to describe verbs, but aborted her utterance after saying "The verbs are given to". She then attempted to continue her statement by saying "Here the verbs are given to the form of", but again aborted her utterance before completing the sentence. The third instance occurred when she again attempted to describe verbs by saying "The verbs are given to", but then aborted her utterance once again. In the final sentence, the lecturer appeared to be attempting to complete the self-initiated repair by saying "And the verbs are given to". However, it is unclear from the information provided whether she was able to successfully complete the sentence or if she aborted her utterance once again.

(2)   Excerpt 13:

L: *These parts just match the word, so you need to listen and check okay great (Iran language) your mic is not … properly to the class.*
[EFL CL, Iran]

In excerpt 12, the lecturer attempted to communicate an issue with the listener's microphone. However, he paused mid-sentence and aborted his initial attempt to convey the message. After a brief pause, he was able to complete the sentence by saying "Properly to the class", indicating that the student's microphone was not functioning correctly for the purpose of the class. The lecturer's initial hesitation and subsequent completion of the sentence can be seen as an example of self-initiated repair, where he recognized the need to clarify his message and took corrective action to convey the intended meaning.

(f)   Reformatting

(1)   Excerpt 14:

L: *Your presentation will be much more natural when you speak without any without without stating which part are you talking about… which part you are talking about.*
[EFL CL, Indonesia]

The lecturer in excerpt 14 made a grammatical error in her initial statement, saying "which part are you talking about". However, she recognized the error and made a self-initiated repair by reformatting the sentence to "which part you are talking about". By removing the auxiliary verb "are", the lecturer was able to correct the grammatical error and convey her intended meaning more clearly to her audience.

(2)   Excerpt 15:

L: *So in this house, somebody was killed by reporter, Andy Fox. Someone was killed in that house, or have been killed in that house. They don't want to rent the house. Yes. Question question. [EFL CL, Iran]*

The phrases "Was killed in that house" and "Have been killed in that house" were reformatted in excerpt 15. However, it is possible that the lecturer may have made a self-initiated repair by providing both grammatical options in response to a question or comment from the student. In this case, the self-initiated repair would involve recognizing that the initial statement may have been unclear or incomplete, and then providing additional information or options to clarify the intended meaning. By reformulating the phrases in different tenses, the lecturer may have been attempting to provide a more comprehensive explanation or to address potential confusion or ambiguity.

(g)   Reordering

(1)   Excerpt 16:

L: *You need to what it is join to, you need to join several seminars several conferences to practice.*
[EFL CL, Indonesia]

The lecturer in excerpt 16 made a self-initiated repair by reordering the words in her statement. Initially, she said "you need to what it is join to", which is grammatically incorrect and potentially confusing. However, she quickly recognized the error and corrected herself by saying "you need to join several seminars, several conferences to practice". By reordering the words, the lecturer was able to clarify the intended meaning of her statement.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

The analysis of this study discusses the comparison between conversation repair in EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran during the COVID-19 pandemic, focusing on variations of repair strategies and self-initiated repair operations. In the online learning process, the lecturers and students from these three countries use four different repair strategies, namely self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated other-repair. As mentioned above, in the case of the EFL university classroom in Indonesia, the lecturers and students do not use the other-initiated other-repair strategy because the orientation of the classes does not include quizzes or answering questions. Nevertheless, variations were found in the repair strategies used by lecturers and learners from each country.

The repair strategy that appeared with the highest frequency was self-initiated self-repair, with variations including hesitation, pause, repair by code-switching, searching for a word, immediate sentence change, immediate lexical change, repetition of personal pronouns, false start, trouble source correction, repetition of linguistic change, and repetition. A study by Agbatogun et al. (2011) found that teachers used various strategies of reformulation, repetition, clarification, elicitation, paralinguistics, signals, and explicit correction to prompt students. The other-initiated self-repair variations found in this study were confirmation statement, clarification request, trouble hearing, clarification, repetition by confirmation question, confirmation check, confirmation repetition, confirmation question, clarification of accent trouble. Another study by Putry et al. (2019) supports the results of this research, with evidence of the same strategy variations, such as confirmation check, clarification request, co-creating of the message or anticipation, word replacement, trouble hearing, understanding, and acceptability.

These findings align with the results of Ardini's (2018) study, which found that the teacher used repetition repair more frequently than self-initiated repair. The study also noted a combination of these two repair strategies in a single utterance. The teacher was found to have made a great effort to develop the English class even when students lacked the motivation to communicate in English. The teacher used the repair strategy primarily at the beginning of the learning session, but was able to make it through the rest of the session. Novitasari and Imperiani (2020) found that the trouble source that arose influenced the recipient's ability to make a repair due to the student's lack of knowledge about the topic. Nevertheless, the students were able to repair the trouble source in order to improve their ability. These findings are almost the same as the situation that was found in online classes in Iran, where students produced the trouble source with the pronunciation of the words used to answer the lecturer's questions.

Meanwhile, the results of the analysis of operation types used in self-initiated repair in EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran show repetition practices such as replacing, inserting, deleting, searching, aborting, reformatting, and reordering. According to Talebi and Biria (2015), teachers found replacement and insertion repair operations in groups of sophomores and juniors, with a higher frequency of replacement repair in the sophomore group compared with the group of juniors. On the contrary, juniors showed a higher frequency of insertion repair than the sophomore group. Emrani and Hooshmand (2019) support this result with their findings, which showed that the repair operations used in an Iranian class were replacing, inserting, deleting, and aborting.

Al-Harasheh (2019) found that repair operations in Jordanian conversations differed from these findings, and consisted of expansion, hesitation, repetition, replacement, aborting and restarting, aborting and abandoning, insertion, deletion, meta-repair, and modification of orders. Németh (2012) pointed out that the purpose of the self-initiated repair process manifested in the operational repair of international functions for the speaker, such as giving extra time for repairing based on the sequence of functions in the peculiarities and content of words in the language and alternation in the corrected case.

V. CONCLUSION

The study revealed that lecturers and students in EFL university classrooms in Indonesia, Algeria, and Iran used four different repair strategies, namely self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated other-repair, with the exception of the latter in Indonesia. Self-initiated repair was found to be the most commonly used strategy in Iran, while other-initiated self-repair was more common in Algeria. The types of operation used in self-initiated repair included replacing, inserting, deleting, searching, aborting, reformatting, and reordering. However, the study has certain limitations. Firstly, the study focused only on three countries and thus the results may not be representative of EFL university classrooms in other countries. Secondly, the sample size was relatively small, consisting of only a few lecturers and students from each country. Further research could expand the sample size and scope to include more countries and examine how factors such as age, gender, and proficiency level affect repair strategies. This study provides valuable insights into the different repair strategies used by lecturers and students in EFL university classrooms, and how these strategies may be influenced by cultural and linguistic factors. The findings

inform teaching and learning practices in EFL contexts, particularly in the context of online learning and the challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic. However, further research is needed to expand upon these findings and explore the broader context of conversation repair in EFL contexts. Additionally, future studies could investigate the impact of cultural and contextual factors on repair strategies and operations in EFL university classrooms. It would also be valuable to explore the effectiveness of different repair strategies and operations in improving language learning outcomes for students in online learning environments.

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Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education: Stakeholder Perceptions in a Bilingual Region

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Abstract—This study aims at showcasing educational stakeholders' perspectives on catering for diversity in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) settings in Spain, specifically in the Valencian Region. This research, which is part of the ADiBE Project (Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education), begins by depicting the main principles of CLIL and its deployment in Spain and the Valencian Community. Then, after framing the different studies conducted under the acronym ADiBE, the article presents the objectives, research design, sample, variables, instruments, procedure and statistical methodology of this study. Finally, the results are outlined in three steps: descriptive, within-cohort and across-cohort results in the five sections which have been canvassed: linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, evaluation and teacher training and coordination. Consequently, this paper carves out a clear picture of how CLIL is being implemented in the Valencian Community, a traditionally bilingual region which is increasingly becoming multilingual.

Index Terms—CLIL, Attention to Diversity, ADiBE, Multilingualism, Spain

I. INTRODUCTION

Bilingual education enables individuals to access quality education in foreign languages, regardless of their personal background (Barrios Espinosa, 2019). Indeed, Content and Language Integrated Learning (henceforth, CLIL) -the European approach to bilingual education- has been considered an instrument to level the playing field for success in language learning (Pérez Cañado, 2021a). Nevertheless, CLIL strands have traditionally embraced the more intelligent, linguistically proficient, and motivated learners (Pérez Cañado, 2021a).

However, this situation is changing. Currently, CLIL is being mainstreamed through the transformation of CLIL strands into fully bilingual schools. Thus, as all students are immersed in CLIL classes, teachers must address the existing diversity to guarantee that CLIL improves language and content learning in over- and under- achievers (Pérez Cañado, 2021a). However, there is a reduced corpus of full-fledged studies into the resources, materials, classroom organization, methodologies, types of evaluation and teacher training needs to cater for diversity in CLIL settings. Likewise, very few have examined these aspects in bilingual contexts, such as the Valencian Region, where English is the L3. Consequently, this is the niche which the present study seeks to fill.

This study is part of the projects encompassed within the acronym ADiBE: Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education, aimed at conducting a large-scale comparative study into the effects and implementation of CLIL across different levels of attainment in six European countries (Spain, Italy, Austria, Germany, Finland and the UK) (Pérez Cañado, 2021b). In this case, this research showcases the prior research on CLIL, along with its application in Spain and the Valencian Community. Thereafter, the foundations and outputs of the ADiBE project are outlined. After framing the theoretical framework, the article depicts the study, which aims at canvassing stakeholders' (students, teachers and parents) perspectives at the end of Primary Education on how diversity is catered to in CLIL settings. Additionally, the results are discussed through a descriptive analysis, and within- and across-cohort comparisons are carried out according to a series of identification variables in order to map out future pathways for enhancing attention to diversity in CLIL.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. CLIL

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is an educational approach in which the teaching learning processes of content and additional languages are integrated (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014). Indeed, Marsh and Langé (2000) define CLIL as an umbrella term which refers to "a dual-focused education approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (p. 2). However, using additional languages for teaching contents is not a detriment to the students' development of the L1 or the content subject. Besides, their command of the foreign language is dramatically higher than those not attending non-CLIL strands (Nikula et al., 2021).

These positive results in CLIL implementation have triggered its spread throughout Europe to teach content subjects in a foreign language, through 216 different types of CLIL programs (Coyle, 2007) depending on the included

languages, compulsory status, age of onset, starting linguistic level, intensity and duration. The most implemented CLIL programs are those that integrate foreign languages (presumably English) with regional languages, as it happens in Spain.

B. CLIL in Spain and the Valencian Region

In recent years, Spain's CLIL practice and research has soared (Coyle et al., 2010). Spain's decentralization of the educational system gives rise to different CLIL models tantamount to the number of Spanish regions. Therefore, this enables regional governments to address better the "mixture of heterogeneous language situations that lead to different ways of understanding and managing L2 education" (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 4). Indeed, this sociolinguistic diversity entails the existence of regional/minority languages apart from Spanish, resulting in the consideration of the foreign language as an L3 in bilingual regions.

Narrowing down the scope to the Valencian region, its regional language, Valencian, has been historically minimized because of the spread of Spanish. Therefore, social agents have been implementing educational policies to reintegrate Valencian in each linguistic scope of use of the language, as Valencian society requires combining foreign language learning with the recovery of the regional language (Pasqual, 2011).

To achieve this, according to the Llei [Law] /2018 which regulates multilingualism in the Valencian Region, each school has the autonomy to design its own linguistic project considering the demo-linguistic context in which it is immersed following certain percentages (at least 25% of class hours in Spanish/Valencian and between 15-25% in a foreign language). The recommended approach to address this configuration of the use of languages is CLIL (CEFIRE Plurilingüisme, 2019). The enactment of this new law is a step forward towards the spread of accessible multilingual education in the Valencian Educational System, as it has withdrawn CLIL strands to progress towards multilingual schools, which has implications in terms of the heterogeneity of students CLIL teachers will have to cater to. This explains the importance of the ADiBE project.

C. The ADiBE Project

(a). The DIDI Framework

Prior to establishing the outputs of the ADiBE project, it is essential to showcase the conceptual framework on which it is based: the DIDI (Diversity, Inclusion, Differentiation, Integration) framework (Pérez Cañado, 2021b).

First, schools encompass a wide diversity of students in terms of personal characteristics, learning style, cognitive capacity, needs, experiential background, knowledge, attitudes, interests, motivations, expectations, and socioeconomic and cultural circumstances in which they have been raised (Julius & Madrid, 2017; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). Second, inclusive education consists of an educational model aimed at catering to all these students' needs (Martín-Pastor & Durán-Martínez, 2019). Indeed, it considers diversity as an enriching factor that educational agents have at their disposal (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). Third, inclusive education requires differentiation of learning processes to address the different needs, by considering Howard Gardner's (1983) Multiple Intelligence Theory and Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development. Fourth, the convergence of diversity, inclusion and differentiation results in the integration of pupils with different abilities (Cioè-Peña, 2017). These, four concepts of the DIDI framework set the stage for the development of the ADiBE project.

(b). Outputs of the ADiBE Project

ADiBE stands for Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education and comprises quantitative and qualitative research projects aimed at conducting a large-scale comparative study into the effects and deployment of CLIL, along with the main educational stakeholders' (students, teachers and parents) perspectives on the functioning of attention to diversity in CLIL settings in six European countries (Spain, Italy, Austria, Germany, Finland and the UK) (Pérez Cañado, 2021b).

Quantitatively, they evaluate the effect of CLIL programs on the FL, L1 and content attainment of three different levels of students regarding verbal intelligence, motivation, English language, and academic proficiency to establish the appropriateness of CLIL for all students and how it is working with overachievers, regular students, and under-achievers at the end of Primary and Compulsory Secondary Education. Qualitatively, they canvass students, teachers and parents' perspectives on the curricular and organizational measures implemented to attend to diversity in CLIL settings, as well as the main practitioners' training needs in this field (Pérez Cañado, 2021b).

The present investigation is included in the qualitative section of the project, which uses questionnaires, interviews and observation protocols completed by teachers, students and parents in the six European countries specified above. Zoning in on each country, in the UK, Do Coyle, Kim Bower, Yvonne Foley and Jonathan Hancock have conducted a case study at Secondary Education comparing two types of bilingual education: CLIL and EAL (English as an Academic Language) (Coyle et al., 2021). The aim of the study is to identify appropriate conditions for learning in bilingual settings and to allow students to get involved in a meaningful learning, develop academic literacies and build strong learning bonds with their teachers (Pérez Cañado, 2021b). As for the Italian context, Yen Ling Teresa Ting has conducted a study based on questionnaires and interviews with a sample of students, focusing on their perceptions on methods, materials, groupings, practitioners' competence and school organization (Ting, 2021).

Furthermore, in Austria, Silvia Bauer-Marschallinger, Christiane Dalton-Puffer, Helen Heaney, Lena Katzinger and Ute Smit present a mixed-methods study in Secondary Education, conducted through a set of questionnaires and group

interviews to collect students and teachers' self-experiences with diversity and the strategies to cater for it in CLIL. The results show the lack of adaptation of activities and summative assessment (tests) as they cannot legally differentiate between levels of attainment. On the contrary, they rely on individual support as one of the main tools to cater for diversity (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2021).

Additionally, Tarja Nikula, Kristiina Skinnari and Karita Mard-Miettinen have investigated the situation in Finland using student and teacher interviews. The outcomes in this context show the importance of equality in Finnish schools, which is a detriment to equity and, consequently, triggers the scarce adaptation of materials, activities, homework or tests to different learning paces, according to students and teachers' insights (Nikula et al., 2021). The German context analyzed by Philipp Siepmann, Dominik Rumlich, Frauke Matz, and Ricardo Römhildz (2021) through questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation in terms of attention to diversity in CLIL show several insights. Students and teachers harbor a negative view of the adaptation of activities, homework and summative assessment to different learning paces. Moreover, teachers rely on Task-Based and Project-Based Learning. However, regarding methodological aspects, practitioners' outlooks do not chime with students', since the latter do not perceive the use of a repertoire of methodological strategies to cater for their needs (Siepmann et al., 2021).

In Spain, Antonio Vicente Casas Pedrosa and Diego Rascón Moreno have shown teacher and students' perspectives on attention to diversity in CLIL. Likewise, their views are contrasted through an across-cohort comparison which has resulted in the following outcomes. Firstly, a positive view can be ascertained from learners' and teachers' outlooks on practitioners' use of linguistic, content scaffolding, L1 and a repertoire of methods to address diversity. However, positive results in the students' cohort worsen in the items related to the adaptation of materials and coordination with parents, whereas teachers value them positively. Finally, teachers report needing training in linguistic scaffolding, student-centeredness, and use of classroom layouts to cater for diversity (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2021).

After conducting all these investigations, a cross-European comparison of stakeholders' view on attention to diversity in CLIL settings is carried out (Pérez Cañado, 2021a). Undoubtedly, the ADiBE project depicts the most important lessons acquired from several countries, determines the segments of improvement across countries and defines priorities to progress towards an inclusive bilingual education.

III. THE STUDY

A. Objectives

The main purpose of this research is to describe the results of a study on student, teacher and parent perceptions on catering for diversity in CLIL in the Valencian region and to determine the existence of within-cohort significant differences regarding gender, socioeconomic status and global and bilingual teaching experience, along with across-cohort differences among the cohorts.

This main objective can be divided into three key metaconcerns consisting of nine component corollaries:

Metaconcern 1 (Identification of CLIL students', teachers' and parents' perspectives on catering for diversity)

a. To identify stakeholders' perspectives regarding linguistic aspects.

b. To identify stakeholders' perspectives vis-à-vis methodological aspects and groupings.

c. To identify stakeholders' perspectives concerning materials and resources.

d. To identify stakeholders' perspectives in terms of assessment.

e. To identify stakeholders' perspectives as regards teacher coordination and organization.

Metaconcern 2 (Within-cohort comparison)

f. To determine the existence of statistically significant differences among the perspectives of students considering their gender/SES.

g. To determine the existence of statistically significant differences among the perspectives of teachers considering their gender/teaching experience/experience in bilingual programs.

h. To determine the existence of statistically significant differences among the perspectives of parents considering their gender/level of studies.

Metaconcern 3 (Across-cohort comparison)

i. To determine the existence of statistically significant differences among the perspectives of the three cohorts: students, teachers and parents.

B. Method

This investigation is a primary mixed-methods concurrent triangulation study, grounded in questionnaires (Brown, 2001) (cf. Pérez Cañado et al., 2021 for the validity and reliability coefficients of each one).

Triangulation in this study has been attained by considering:

• Data triangulation, since the questionnaires have been completed by the three main stakeholders.

• Location triangulation, as the sample includes schools immersed in neighbourhoods with different per capita incomes.

C. Sample

The sample includes 255 students, 22 teachers and 32 parents, so this makes a total of 309 informants from five Primary Education state schools located in the Valencian Region. The grades on which the study has focused on are 5th and 6th grade, with two classes per school and 25 students per class-group.

(a). Students

As for students, the sample comprises 255 learners, belonging to the 10-12 age group. Moreover, 51.8% of respondents students are male, whereas 45.9% are female, and 2.4% do not specify their gender (cf. Figure 1).
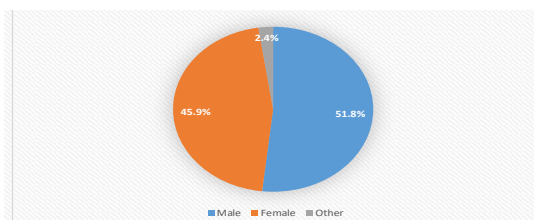
Figure 1. Gender (Students)

Regarding their SES, which is the other variable analysed in the study, 20.4% of students come from an impoverished background, 59.2% from a middle-class neighbourhood and 20.4% from high socioeconomic areas (cf. Figure 2).
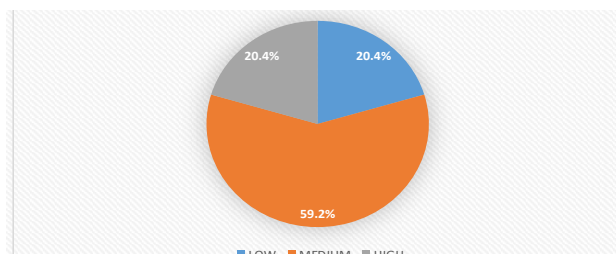
Figure 2. SES (Students)

(b). Teachers

As for the teachers' cohort, the sample comprises 22 practitioners from five different state schools in the Valencian Region (cf. Figure 3).
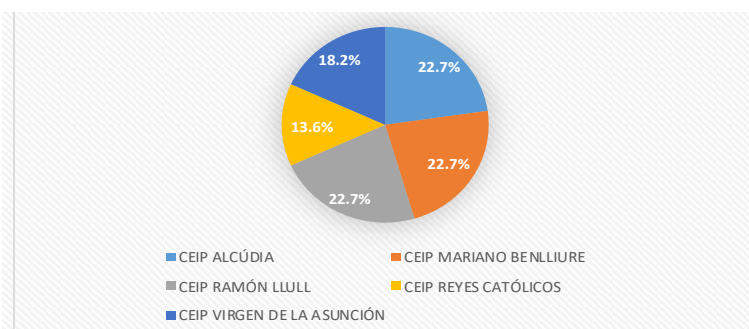
Figure 3. Educational Institution (Teachers)

What is more, 81.8% of the respondent teachers are female, while the remaining 18.2% are male (cf. Figure 4).
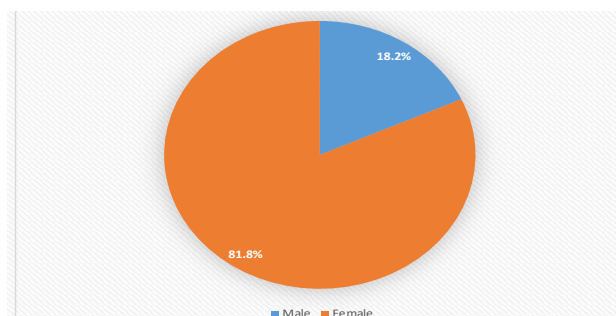
Figure 4. Gender (Teachers)

Regarding their experience in teaching, most respondent teachers have between 1-10 (45.5%) and 11-20 (36.4%) years of teaching experience, whereas only 9.1% of teachers have less than a year of experience or between 21-30 years of experience working in the educational context (cf. Figure 5).
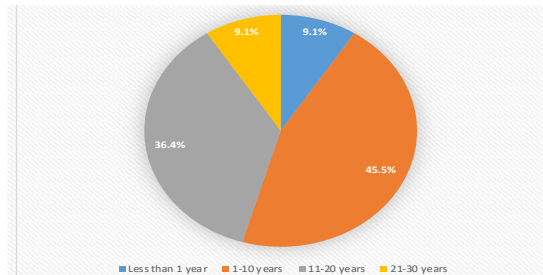
Figure 5. Global teaching experience (Teachers)

Finally, most teachers (54.5%) declare having been immersed in bilingual programs from one to five years (cf. Figure 6).
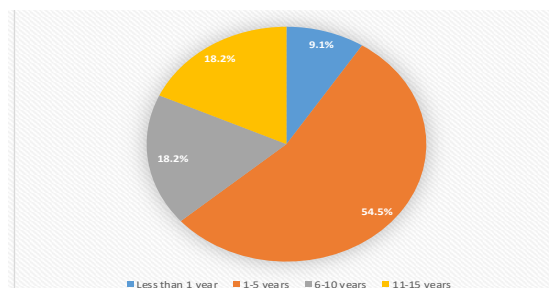
Figure 6. Experience in Bilingual Programs (Teachers)

(c). Parents

The parents' sample comprises 32 respondents, 65.6% of whom are women, while 34.4% are men (cf. Figure 7).
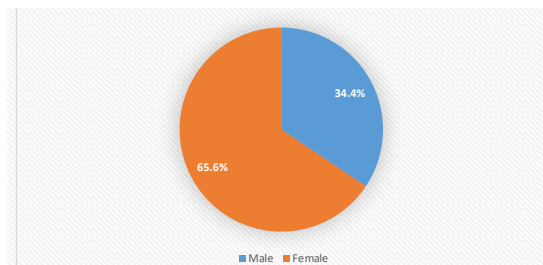
Figure 7. Gender (Parents)

Regarding their educational level, 18.8% of them have not finished Secondary Education, 37.5% has finished Secondary Education, 25% has participated in Vocational Training and 18.8% has a University Degree (cf. Figure 8).
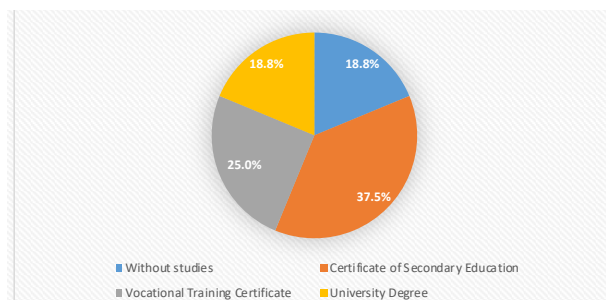
Figure 8. Level of Studies (Parents)

D. Context

The context in which the investigation has been conducted is the region of Alicante in the Valencian Community. The participating schools are immersed in different socioeconomic areas. According to the Spanish Statistics Institution's (INE) latest report (2018) on average annual net income per household, three tiers have been identified:

- Low SES includes areas with families with an average income of less than 23,000 euros per household and year.
- Medium SES entails areas with families with an average income between 23,000 and 26,600 euros per household and year
- High SES comprises neighbourhoods whose families receive an annual income above 26,600 euros per year.

E. Variables

Each questionnaire has a set of identification variables. Among all of them, this study has analysed the effect of some of these variables for each cohort. Regarding students, the analysed variables are gender and SES. Concerning teachers, gender, global experience and experience in bilingual programs have been studied. Finally, as for parents, gender and level of studies are the two analysed variables.

F. Instruments

The information in this investigation has been collected through questionnaires for students, teachers and parents designed and validated by Pérez Cañado et al. (2021). These questionnaires have undergone an accurate process of validation described in Pérez Cañado et al. (2021). The reliability of these instruments is ascertained by the high Cronbach alpha coefficients obtained by the three questionnaires: 0.0871 (students), 0.858 (teachers) and 0.940 (parents).

G. Procedure

Firstly, regarding the students' questionnaires, they were administered to students in their class through sessions of approximately 40 minutes. As for the teacher cohort, they answered the questionnaires individually, so as not to coerce them to answer something they do not really think. Finally, regarding parents, the researcher asked tutor teachers which ones would be prone to collaborating in the research. Nonetheless, after three weeks, only 50% of parents completed the questionnaires.

H. Statistical Methodology

The data gathered through the questionnaires, has been analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program in its 22.0 version. To address Metaconcern 1, descriptive statistics have been employed. Consequently, central tendency (mean, median and mode) as well as dispersion measures (standard deviation, minimums and maximums) have been calculated.

In turn, as for Metaconcern 2, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks normality tests evince that there is no normality. Therefore, vis-à-vis students, the Kruskal-Wallis test has been run to determine statistically significant differences among genders and Shapiro-Wilks among socioeconomic areas. Relating to teachers, the T test has been employed to establish statistically significant differences between genders along with the Mann-Whitney U test to determine the existence of statistically significant differences in terms of their global teaching experience and experience in bilingual programs. The Mann-Whitney U test, along with the Kruskal-Wallis test, have been used to discover the existence of statistically significant differences in the parents' cohort, according to their gender (Mann-Whitney U test) and level of studies (Kruskal-Wallis). Likewise, effect size has been calculated through Rosenthal's R, p value and Eta Squared. Afterwards, a post-hoc analysis has been conducted to identify the categories among which there exist statistical differences.

Finally, as for Metaconcern 3, the Kruskal-Wallis test has been deployed in those items answered by students, teachers and parents. Nonetheless, those answered by two of the cohorts have been analysed using the Mann-Whitney U test. Likewise, a post-hoc analysis has been used to determine the categories among which there exist statistical differences.

I. Results and Discussion

(a). Descriptive Results

1. Students

Students participating in the investigation harbor a positive view of teachers' use of linguistic and content scaffolding (items 1 and 2), L1 (item 3), communicative skills and content knowledge (items 4 and 5), to help learners with different levels, which is in accordance with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021), who found similar results in Spanish monolingual communities (cf. Figure 9).
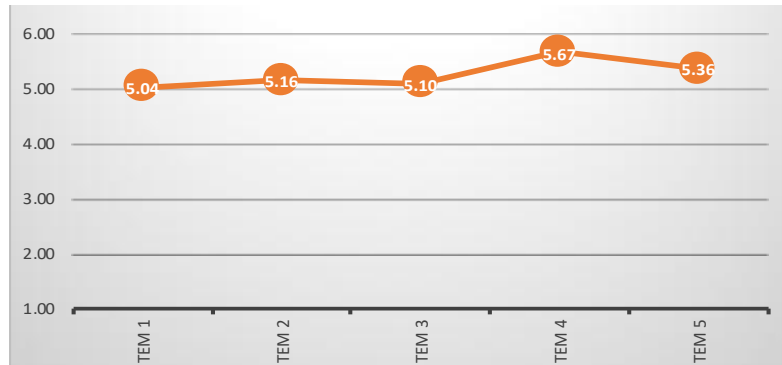
Figure 9. Linguistic Aspects (Students)

Pertaining to methodology and groupings, there exists certain heterogeneity. Students consider that CLIL lessons are sensitive to different levels (item 6), teachers have a prominent role (item 12), use different methods (item 7), student-centered methodologies (item 8), cooperative learning (item 9), different groupings (item 13), individualized attention (item 14) and peer-assistance (item 15). Contrarily, pupils do not perceive the use of Multiple Intelligences (item 10), tasks or projects (item 11), diverse classroom arrangements (item 16) or adaptation classes to integrate learners in CLIL lessons (item 17) (cf. Figure 10).
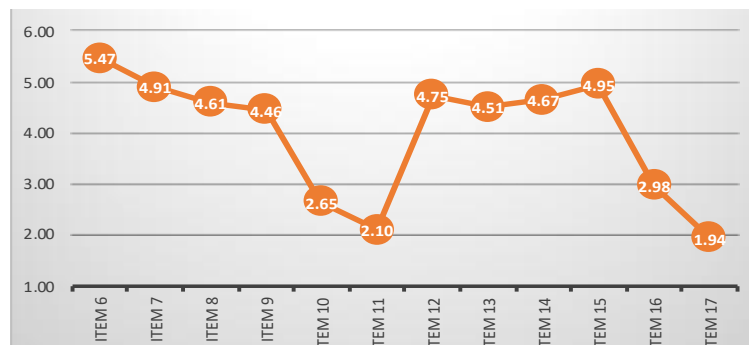
Figure 10. Methodology and Groupings (Students)

As regards materials, students uphold a negative view of this section. Similar results in this section were found in Spanish contexts by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021). Indeed, they do not believe that textbooks (item 18), non-original (item 19) and original materials (item 20) consider different levels, which contrast with their positive view of the use of ICTs (item 21) and visual, textual and numerical support (item 22) to cater to diversity (cf. Figure 11).
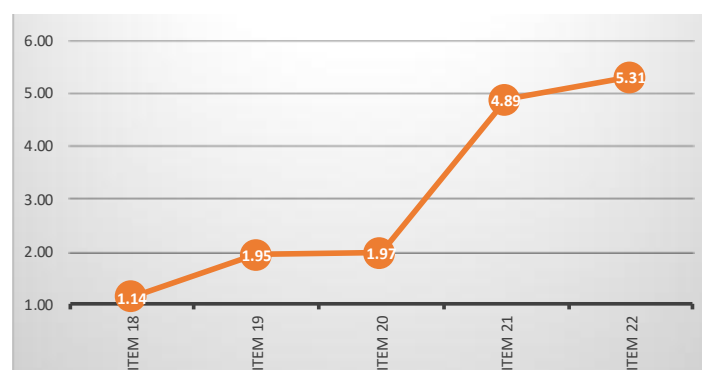
Figure 11. Materials and Resources (Students)

The negative tendency of the materials' section is aggravated in the assessment. Therefore, students do not think that their level is considered in formative or summative assessment (item 23 and 24). In fact, teachers do not give them guidelines in formative assessment (item 27), adapted activities (item 29) or individualized homework (item 30), which chimes with German (Siepmann et al., 2021) and Finnish findings (Nikula et al., 2021). Regarding summative assessment, they do not receive scaffolding in exams (item 31) or different versions of tests (item 32), which accords with the Austrian context in which teachers cannot legally differentiate between skill levels in assessment (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2021). However, they agree with the teachers' individualized tracking of their progress (item 28), together with the consequent improvement of their results (item 26) (cf. Figure 12).
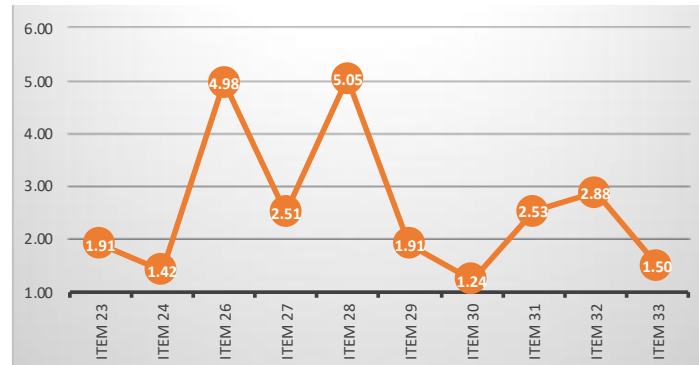
Figure 12. Evaluation (Students)

Finally, in connection with coordination and teacher training, students show positive outlooks of their linguistic (item 36) and content teachers' (item 37) preparation and the school guidance counsellor (item 35). Nevertheless, they disagree with the coordination with multi-professional teams (item 34), teaching assistants (item 38), parents (item 39) or the support system to help learners in CLIL lessons (item 40) (cf. Figure 13).
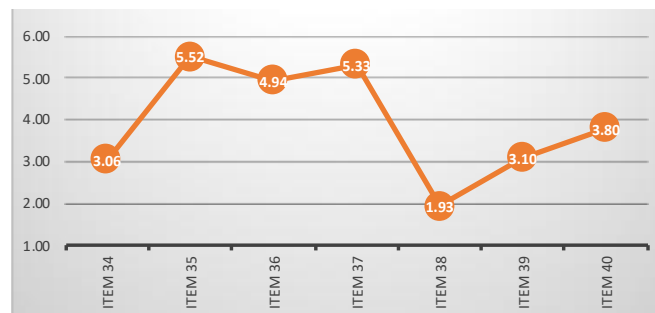
Figure 13. Coordination and Teacher Training (Students)

2. Teachers

Let us now move on to the teachers' cohort. Firstly, regarding linguistic aspects, the respondents uphold a positive view. Besides, they consider it a challenge to teach through CLIL to students with different FL levels (item 1) and academic performance (item 2). Likewise, they report that the linguistic (item 5) and content (item 6) scaffolding, their communicative skills (item 8) and content knowledge (item 9) are enough to attend to different learning paces, which chimes with findings in Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021). However, they consider more challenging to address content and language diverse levels in CLIL lessons than in non-CLIL ones (items 3 and 4). Furthermore, they disagree with the use of the L1 to clarify concepts (item 7) (cf. Figure 14).
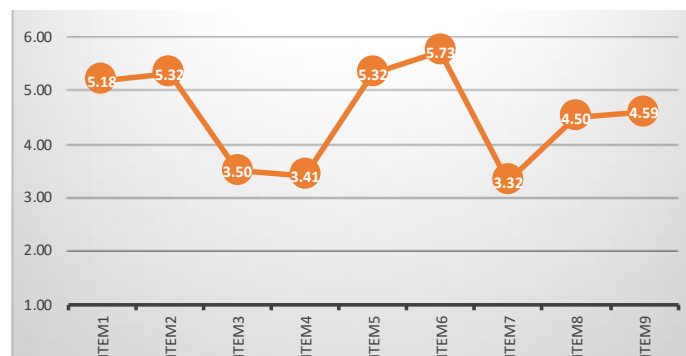
Figure 14. Linguistic Aspects (Teachers)

The positive tendency continues in methodology and groupings. Indeed, teachers consider that they use different methods (item 11), student-centered methodologies (item 12), cooperative learning (item 13) heterogeneous groups (item 17), Multiple Intelligences (item 14) and individualized attention (item 18), in accordance with Austrian findings (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2021). Peer assistance (item 19), different classroom arrangements (item 20) and adaptation classes (item 21) are equally employed to support students with different needs. On the downside, they find it difficult to design CLIL lessons with a considerable diversity of students (item 10). Likewise, they do not seem to use Project-Based Learning or Task-Based Learning (item 15), which contrasts with the results obtained in the German

monolingual regions (Siepmann et al., 2021). They also do not consider they are the center of the learning process (item 16) (cf. Figure 15).
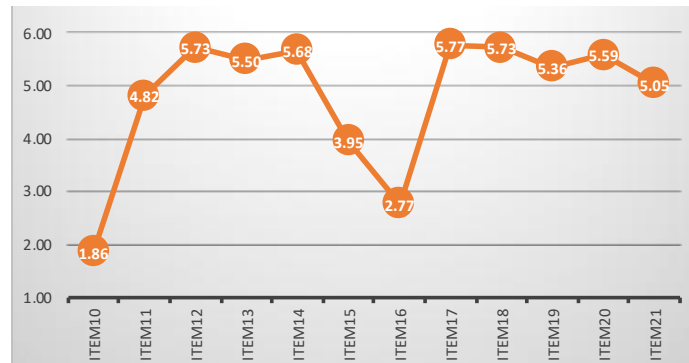
Figure 15. Methodology and Groupings (Teachers)

In the materials section, teachers' positive views accord with findings in Spanish monolingual contexts (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2021). In fact, they believe that they use adapted materials (item 22), and they adapt (item 23) and create (item 24) materials along with using ICTs (item 27) and a combination of visual, textual and numerical support (item 28) to address learners' different needs. Nonetheless, they do not find this adaptation task easy (item 25 and 26) (cf. Figure 16).
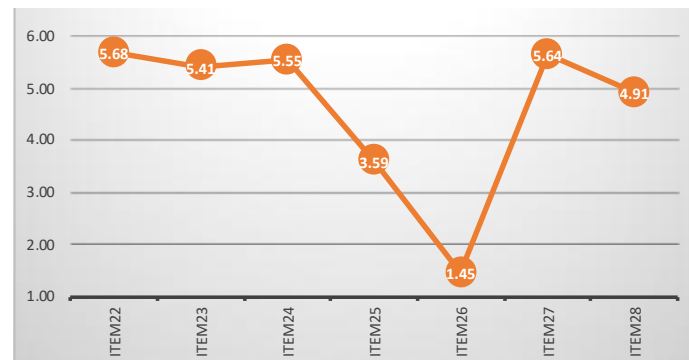
Figure 16. Materials and Resources (Teachers)

As for evaluation, teachers consider that they cater for learners' different needs in formative (item 29) and summative (item 30) assessment, by adapting evaluation criteria (item 31), providing specific guidelines (item 32), tracking learners' progress (item 33), considering self-assessment (item 34) and adapting activities (item 35), as well as homework (item 36). The results in these two last questions depart from those obtained in Finland's monolingual contexts by Nikula et al. (2021) On a different front, teachers do not adapt vocabulary in the exams (item 37) nor the exams themselves (item 38), which is in accordance with Finnish results (Nikula et al., 2021) (cf. Figure 17).
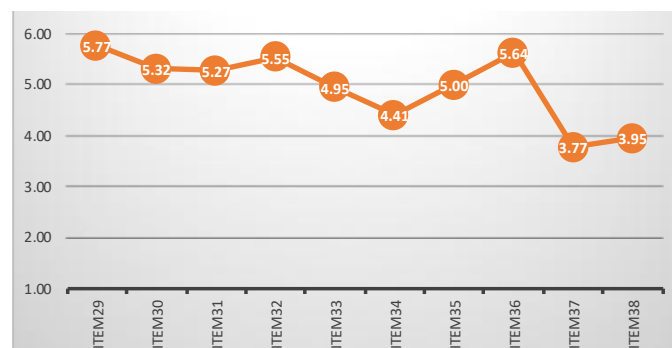
Figure 17. Evaluation (Teachers)

Finally, concerning coordination and training, they do not think they need training in coordination with their peers (item 50), parents' involvement (item 51), learners' assessment (item 52), critical analysis of their practice (item 53) or materials' design (item 49). The results in this last aspect drastically depart from those of Pérez Cañado (2021a), as the dearth of materials to cater for diversity is considered the most daunting challenge for practitioners. However, they claim to need training in linguistic scaffolding (item 45), student-centered approaches (item 46), different classroom arrangements (item 47) and access to teaching materials (item 48), which is congruent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón

Moreno's (2021) and Pérez Cañado's (2021a) findings in Spanish and European monolingual communities. Finally, they report coordinating with their peers (item 39), multi-professional teams (item 40), teaching assistants (item 41), the guidance counsellor (item 42), parents (item 43) and support systems (item 44) (cf. Figure 18).
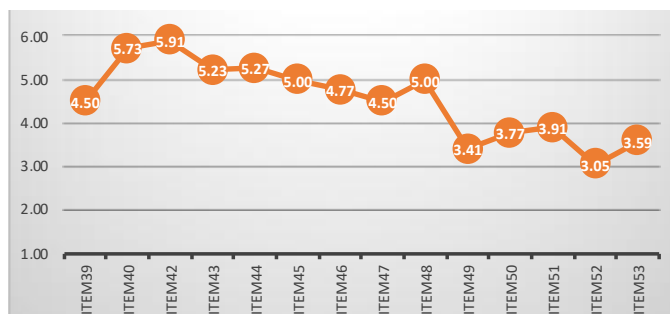
Figure 18. Coordination and Teacher Training (Teachers)

3. Parents

Pushing forward to the final cohort, parents harbor a positive outlook of teachers' linguistic and content scaffolding (items 1 and 2), communicative skills (item 3) and knowledge of the content subject (item 4) to address different levels of attainment. This ongoing faith in teacher's preparation to step up to the challenge of diversity is completely in line with the findings of Pérez Cañado (2021a) (cf. Figure 19).
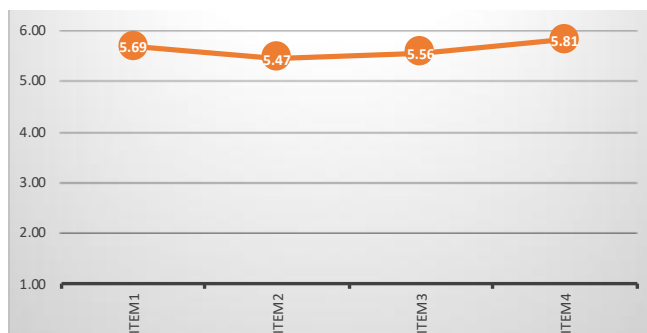
Figure 19. Linguistic Aspects (Parents)

Vis-à-vis methodology and groupings, parents agree with employment of diversity-sensitive lessons (item 5), the use of different and student-centered methods (item 6 and 7), and individualized attention to students (item 13). Nevertheless, they disagree with the incorporation of cooperative learning (item 8), Multiple Intelligences (item 9), Task-Based or Project-Based Learning (item 10), different groupings (item 12), peer-assistance (item 14) or diverse classroom layouts (item 15). Likewise, they show a negative perspective of the existence of classes for newcomers (item 16) as well as of the adaptation of materials: CLIL textbooks (item 17), non-original materials (item 18) or materials created by the teacher (item 19) (cf. Figure 20).
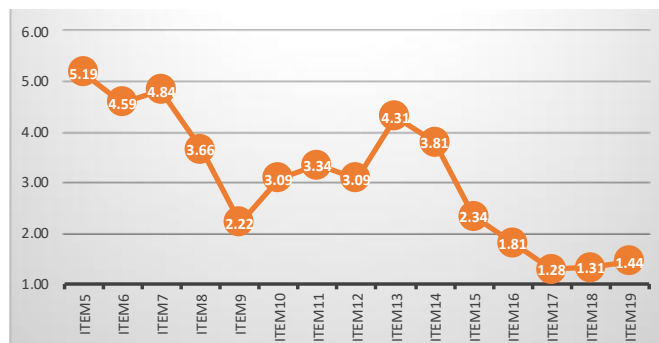
Figure 20. Methodology and Groupings (Parents)

In the evaluation block, parents gauge positively the adaptation of formative (item 20) and summative (item 21) assessment to the different ability levels, by adapting assessment criteria (item 22), using guidelines (item 24) and constant tracking of learners (item 25) which, in their view, leads to an improvement of pupils' results (item 23). Nevertheless, this cohort has a negative perception of the adaptation of vocabulary in exams (item 28) and even worse (means between 1 and 2) in relation to the adaptation of classroom activities (item 26), homework (item 27), exams (item 29) and self-assessment (item 30) (cf. Figure 21).
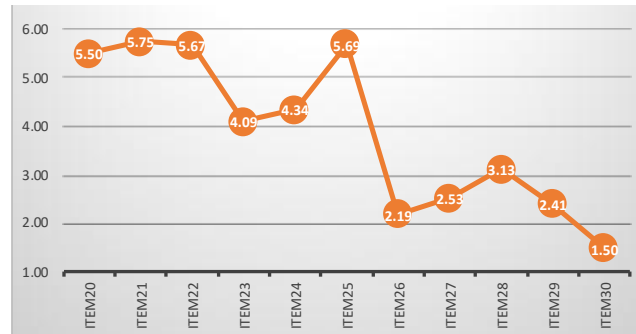
Figure 21. Evaluation (Parents)

Regarding coordination and teacher training, the negative tendency of the previous sections is broken due to the positive results in seven out of eight statements. Thus, parents value positively the coordination among teachers (item 31), the support of multi-professional teams (item 32) the support system (item 38) the school's guidance counsellor (item 33), the language teachers' (item 34), and bilingual teachers' (item 35) and teaching assistants' (item 36) preparation to attend to different learning paces. The exception to these results is parents' involvement (item 37). This also transpires as a major area in need of attention in Pérez Cañado (2021a) as it is pivotal to support diversity in CLIL contexts (cf. Figure 22).
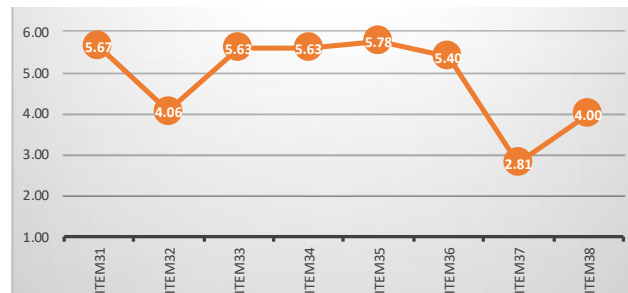
Figure 22. Coordination and Teacher Training (Parents)

(b). Within-Cohort Results

1. Students

Considering Metaconcern 2 and objective f), no statistically significant differences have been found between genders in the students' cohort. Nonetheless, regarding the SES, significant differences have been found.

Firstly, vis-à-vis linguistic aspects and methodology, students from disenfranchised backgrounds gauge the implemented strategies more positively than their counterparts. However, students coming from well-to-do families perceive more positively the statements connected with the adaptation of materials than those from low socioeconomic areas. Concerning assessment, learners from impoverished backgrounds are again the ones that hold a more positive view of attention to diversity in this section than those coming from medium and high socioeconomic areas. As for coordination and teacher training, whereas learners from impoverished backgrounds value more positively the existence of multi-professional teams and support system, pupils from high socioeconomic neighborhoods have a more positive view of parents' involvement.

Thus, the overarching tendency here is that students from more disenfranchised contexts seem to be more acutely aware of the different measures set in place to cater for diversity in CLIL as schools in these contexts make an extra effort to ensure bilingual education works equally well with diverse types of students.

2. Teachers

As far as objective g) of Metaconcern 2 is concerned, there exists homogeneity between genders, global experience and experience in bilingual programs according to teachers' answers. Consequently, the teachers' cohort evinces homogeneous views, with almost no differences in the considered variables.

3. Parents

As regards objective h) of Metaconcern 2, there is homogeneity between genders in the parents' cohort. Notwithstanding the foregoing, according to parents' level of studies, those with higher education value attention to diversity in CLIL more positively than those who have not finished compulsory studies, which accords with what is stated by Raéz-Padilla (2018): "the higher education qualifications parents have, the higher their own motivation is towards learning English" (p. 193).

(c). Across-Cohort Results

Considering Metaconcern 3 (objective i), statistically significant differences among the three cohorts have been found. Firstly, the three cohorts show a positive view of practitioners' use of linguistic and content scaffolding as well as of their communicative skills and content knowledge to cater to diversity in CLIL, which chimes with findings in Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021). In turn, concerning methodology and groupings, most statements receive the best responses by teachers. This self-complacent view harbored by practitioners has also been documented in Pérez Cañado (2021a). Besides, students value more positively than teachers and parents practitioners' use of different methods. Nevertheless, this use of different strategies by teachers departs from Siepmann et al.'s (2021) results in the German context, in which students value this aspect negatively, while teachers gauge it positively.

The positive responses upheld by teachers commented above increase in the materials section. Indeed, while they totally agree with the adaptation of textbooks, non-original and original materials, students and parents completely disagree with them (mean around 1), which accords with findings in Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021). Regarding evaluation, teachers continue valuing more positively the statements than the other cohorts. Nonetheless, in German settings the results were completely different. According to Siepmann et al. (2021), teachers and students reject adapting activities, tasks or homework, as they believe that everyone must complete the same exercises. To finish this section, practitioners show again the highest score on all the statements vis-à-vis coordination and teacher training, which tallies with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno's (2021) findings in Spanish monolingual settings.

J. Limitations and Prospects

This study has offered a clear-cut picture of the implementation of attention to diversity in CLIL in the Valencian Region. Notwithstanding, it has several limitations. Firstly, students and parents' knowledge of CLIL rationale is limited, so their answers are based on their experience rather than on objective knowledge. Furthermore, the sample used is limited to five state schools in the southern area of the Valencian region, since the pandemic of COVID-19 has limited the number of participating schools. However, despite the reduced number of schools, they belong to areas with different per capita incomes, which gives a clear view of the differences among schools depending on their SES.

This research is only the first step in the investigation of attention to diversity in CLIL settings in bilingual areas and paves the way to extend this investigation to other bilingual contexts. Further data should be collected using larger samples, different instruments, and diverse types of educational centers. This will contribute to the accurate identification of stakeholders' needs to improve attention to diversity in CLIL scenarios, designing appropriate teacher training actions for this purpose and providing practitioners with suitable guidelines to design materials to cater for learners' particular needs.

IV. CONCLUSION

To conclude, let us now extract the broader take-aways of our study. Regarding the first metaconcern, the main results obtained in its objectives a-e are synthesized. As for the linguistic aspects, learners, teachers, and parents have a positive view of the linguistic strategies used by practitioners to cater to diversity. Concerning methodology and groupings, teachers and students consider that the methodological principles implemented are aimed at catering to diversity. However, parents value these items negatively. This difference stems from the fact that parents are not inside the class, where attention to diversity strategies are deployed. As for materials and evaluation, although teachers harbor a positive view of what is being carried out in terms of the adaptation of materials, students and parents disagree with most items. Additionally, regarding coordination and teacher training, practitioners and parents reveal optimistic outlooks on both aspects, whereas learners differ in most items.

The results of the within-cohort comparison show that the three cohorts share the homogeneity in the results in terms of gender. Likewise, regarding teachers, this homogeneity is also found when analyzing their global experience and experience in a bilingual program. However, differences are found when it comes to SES. Indeed, as for students, those with a low SES award higher scores to most items than those coming from medium and high SES, except for the adaptation of materials and family involvement. On the contrary, regarding parents' level of studies, which reflects their SES, those with higher education certificates have a more positive perception of the implemented strategies to attend to diversity than those who have not finished compulsory education. Finally, the results of the across-cohort comparison evinces that all three cohorts show a positive view of the linguistic strategies deployed by teachers to attend to students' diversity. Moreover, concerning methodology, groupings, materials, evaluation, teacher training and coordination, teachers' results are higher than parents and pupils' ones.

Having showcased the results of the investigation, it must be highlighted that attention to diversity continues to be the main lacunae of bilingual education. Nonetheless, the Valencian legal framework obliges all state and charter schools to offer the school curriculum taught in the three curricular languages (Spanish, Valencian and English), which increases the diversity of students that CLIL settings are receiving. What is more, despite the long tradition in bilingual and multilingual education in the Valencian Region, the outcomes obtained in this investigation concur with those obtained in Spanish monolingual contexts (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2021). Therefore, this shows that there is still a lot of work to do in terms of attention to diversity in bilingual education, owing to the fact that, as Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021) state, offering CLIL for all learners regardless of their particular needs does not guarantee their

success. Thus, these investigations encompassed under the ADiBE acronym are setting the stage for a real "CLIL for all", which provides all learners with the opportunity to succeed in these settings.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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White as a Symbol of Death and Eternity in Darwish's and Lorca's Poetry: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—This article investigates the symbolism of white color in the works of the Palestinian poet Mahmoud Darwish and the Spanish Federico Garcia Lorca. The white color is exceptionally employed in their poetry, which is different from its normal symbolism in Arabic and Spanish cultures. In their poetry, the white color is used to symbolize a duality of opposites, death as an end to mortal life and eternity as an infinity phase of afterlife. This paradoxical use of the white color cannot be grasped by readers without considering the poetic context. This color is employed by the two poets to reflect their psychology, feelings, and emotions toward death and eternity. The color white symbolizes death in all forms; the self-death as shown in Darwish's poem *Mural*, the death of the other as illustrated in *Lament for the Death of a Bullfighter* of Lorca, the divine death as in Lorca's *The Martyrdom of Saint Eulalia* and the instant death of humans as in *Remainder of a Life* of *Darwish*. In addition, the white color is used to symbolize eternity as an afterlife phase. The two poets have exploited the white color to express their interrogation about man's destiny after death being eternal or not.

Index Terms—Lorca, Darwish, white, death, eternity

I. INTRODUCTION

Symbolism as a literary device is commonly used by poets to represent their ideas, emotions, and beliefs. It is normally used to support the overall theme of a poem evoking images of selected objects by poets. Symbolism is considered the soul in poetry in all languages, cultures, and ages. It is used by poets to enhance their expression and make more impact on their readers (Tiwari, 2001).

As justified by Dwivedi (1998, p. 22), symbolism is used by poets "instead of indulging in direct expression, the symbolists represent ideas and emotions by indirect suggestion". As symbolism conveys a hidden meaning to the reader or the listener of poetry, it can only be grasped by considering the whole context. Symbols differ from one poet to another, because they are employed depending on the poet's conscience, psychology, and his own life experience. Some poets use certain symbols very commonly and dominantly to reflect their own experience.

Color symbolism is very recurrent and dominant in poetry. Colors hold peculiar significance based on the cultures they are used in. Some cultures share the same symbolism of colors such Arabic and Spanish. In the two cultures the black color stands for mourning, death, sorrow and grief. In contrast, the white color stands for purity, virginity, and fertility. For example, the bride is dressed white in both cultures to reflect the above associations. The symbolization of colors is crucial in understanding cultures. McAuliffe (2015, p. 56) maintains that,

> the associations that people have made with certain colours are certainly not set in concrete. Depending on the context, culture, or part of the world, the symbolism of a colour varies according to certain habits, traditions, and myths. Within a culture, colours may also symbolize different things in different contexts, and have been subject to change over the years.

The symbolizations of colors can be comprehended by reading the poetry of certain cultures. The meaning and the significance of colors differ from one context to another even in the same culture and this depends on the setting of text. Poetry is a suitable field where the significance of colors can be highlighted. Poets can resort to colors to draw images

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and relay emotions. They are used to convey poets own experience and the impression they have about certain issues. Using colors makes poetry more vibrant, unusual, and deep as they form a very important role in understanding poets' experimentation with abstract themes and ideas.

Lorca is influential in Arabic literature in general and Arabic poetry, in particular. According to Al-Tarawnih (2009), Mahmoud Darwish was influenced by Lorca, and this is noticed in the Lorquian images and elements that the Palestinian poet used such as blood, moon, gypsies, green color and olive tree. As an acknowledgment, Darwish has written a poem titled *Lorca* in his collection *Leaves of Olive* and mentioned him twice in the poem *I have a sky behind the sky*, where he is recalling the scene of the assassination of the Spanish poet.

The presence of Lorca in Darwish's poetry as an intertext poet is considered as an identical voice of Darwish. Darwish wrote many poems Andalusia, as a Spanish region which Lorca admires too much. The similarity between both poets is that they have lived in exile and exteremly suffered. Issa and Daragmeh (2018, pp. 28-29) are quoted as saying,

> the similarity in the experience of these two prominent figures might be the reason for conjuring up the Lorca spirit- Lorca was jailed, oppressed, and murdered by nationalists during the Spanish civil war. Darwish adapts the reference to his own special condition; thus, he is not writing praise to Lorca's spirit, but wailing the waning of his own moon. References to Lorca are made to reveal the depth of the human tragedy and intensify the sense of agony and exile from a home which had turned into an exile in shape, in shade, and in meaning.

II. WHITE COLOR IN LORCA'S AND DARWISH'S POETRY

The first reason that motivated the authors to conduct this comparative study is the extensive use of colors in their works. They use the colors as a complement to image connotations or as symbols for special emblems. Colors can have universal symbolizations and can have cultural ones, too. Though Arabic and Spanish are two different and distinct cultures, Lorca and Darwish have employed the white color to symbolize the same connotations. Although Lorca and Darwish belong to two different cultures, they have used the white color to designate the same symbolism. The cultural context is very important to understand the meaning of specific colors, Matinson and Delong (2013, p. ii) maintain that:

> Color usage characterizes a specific society or group and play as an important role in enabling us to understand how people who belong to that group experience and use colors. Accordingly, just as the meaning of a word is understood through cultural context rather than only through a dictionary definition, the meaning or value of color used by a specific group also needs to be understood in a cultural context of continuity and change.

In this study, focus is made on the exceptional use of the white color as a symbol of death and eternity, which is not culturally recurrent in Arabic and Spanish cultures. As Harvard (1972, p. 811) confirms,

> at an elementary level colour may help to create verbal pictures that are simply attractive, or literally, colourful; while in its more complex use, when the values of a particular colour have been established, it may be a most effective means of condensing thought into a metaphorical or symbolic unit.

Color is considered a central element in the poetry of Darwish and Lorca. White, as the main theme of this study, is very dominant and frequent in their poetry. This view is confirmed by the American poet Sarah Arvio (2017, p. 116) in her translation of Lorca's poetry to English, when she maintains that,

> Red, green, purple, yellow: all these colors have a strong presence in Lorca's work. (…) But white is the color that seems to mean the most - quietly, this non -color or all-color color. White creates mood; black punctuates. White inhabits Lorca's poetic mind more than any other color.

Lorca was obsessed with the use of colors in his poetry. In his essay titled "a Poet Crazy about Color", Louis Parrot (1965, pp. 57-64) presents Lorca's love of colors and how they are normally manifested in his poetry. He analyzed the use of colors in Lorca's poetry in many collections, tracing the evolution of the use of colors by the poet and their related significance and manifestation. Parrot confirmed that the use of colors by Lorca is related to his personal experiences, childhood, and psychology.

Similarly, Darwish enriches his poems by using color symbolism to express social, political, and religious values. Colors helped Darwish to express his poetic personality and consciousness. The significance of colors varies in Darwish's poetry; the same color may hold different meanings depending on the context. This flexibility and variety in using colors in the poetic contexts of Darwish allowed him to express his feelings and beliefs without any difficulty.

The employment of colors took the tendency to describe and embody the image at all levels. Darwish was keen to have an explicit coloristic rhythm in his texts to express his artistic vision. This prompted him to acquire harmonious colors that are capable to reflect the meanings he intends, and refer to the boundaries he draws. It should be pointed out that Darwish does not prioritize a color over another in his poetry, although white, black, blue, and green are more used in his literature. Darwish uses a certain color to express other colors (Rahaleh & Amayrah, 2015).

In the Arabic and Spanish cultures, white color is associated with death; it is the color of the coffin, a cloth or a shroud in which people are wrapped and buried when they die. In both cultures, the same color is dressed by medical staff and hospital patients.

III. White, Symbol of Death and Eternity in Lorca's and Darwish's Poetry

In literature, in general, and poetry in particular, the color white conveys a sense of purity, tranquility, innocence, cleanliness, and optimism and is often associated with weddings, angels, and hospitals. In the Spanish and Arabic cultures, these symbolizations of white are socially and culturally inherited. In Lorca's and Darwish's poetry, the color white is exceptionally linked with death and eternity.

Born in Palestine, which represents the Arabic culture, Darwish has exceptionally employed the white color in his poems. Instead of utilizing this color as a symbol of positive connotations, he has associated it with destruction, annihilation, mortality, eternity, sorrow, pain, and death. Not only does the poet mourn and express his sadness, but he also describes his experience while going through death as a first step of entering into the eternal world of the afterlife. In his poem *Mural*, a self-elegy poem, Darwish portrays his death project which has transitions, one for (the self-still-alive) and the one for (to-be-dead-self). This whole project of the poet's death is coated with whiteness.

In this poem, there is a clear self-elegy. Ramazani (1990, p. 27) employed this term in his powerful book on Yeats. According to him, the self-elegy is characterized by a "reflexive stance – a term indicative of the form's central perplexity; namely, that the mourning "self" seems to coexist with the dead "self" self-elegy; the elegy poem is a type of poem that intensifies «the self-mourning implicit within the autobiographical lyric»".

In *Mural*, Darwish is describing his feelings when death was approaching him. The poem was composed when he was admitted to the hospital for a dangerous heart surgery operation. Darwish did not expect to get out alive of the operation, and therefore he drew an alive image of the transfer into the other life. This poem is considered the longest by the critics because Darwish wanted it be eternal in it. In Arabic culture, it is commonly known that black is the color of grief and mourning, and it is used to express all feelings concerning death. However, Darwish differently chooses white color to express his moods and feeling of grief and mourning in this self-elegy poem.

This Palestinian poet has used the color white to refer to death and its associations. He referred to the female nurse in the hospital when she addressed him by saying (this is your name/and then vanished in the winding corridor). Internationally, the nurse is always associated with purity, compassion, and care. However, the poet in *Mural* has linked her with death and vanishing. The white dove is cross-culturally considered a symbol of peace, co-existence, and emotional stability. The Angel of Death (Azrael) is incarnated by the white dove. In this incarnation, the mission of the dove has completely deviated. Instead of bringing hope and life to those who are impatiently waiting for them, the dove in this usage symbolizes the Angel of Death, which terminates one's life. He was fully certain that he is traveling into a new life, a life where everything according to him is real and not fake or false. He is to start to a new life; he is to start a new childhood, in the eternity of the other world.

> This is your name
> a woman said,
> and vanished through the winding corridor
> There I see heaven within reach.
> The wing of a white dove carries me
> towards another childhood. And I never dreamt
> that I was dreaming. Everything is real.
> I knew I was casting myself aside . . .
> and flew. I shall become what I will
> in the final sphere (Darwish, 2009, p. 447).

Darwish invested broader elements in describing his departure into the other world, where everything is whitened. The clouds, where the spacious sea suspended upon, are white; even the nothingness which paradoxically shows every thingness is white; the whole eternal absolute world is white; he is extinct and not existent anymore, and this is clear when he explicitly states 'I was and I was not'. His loneliness shows his new journey; the journey of no people or companions; he has not witnessed angels that ask him about what he did in the departed world. There is a clear feeling of sorrow and melancholy as the poet was certain that he would not come to life again.

> And everything
> is white. The sea suspended
> upon a roof of white clouds. Nothingness is white
> in the white heaven of the absolute.
> I was and was not. In this eternity's white regions,
> I'm alone. I came before I was due;
> no angel appeared to tell me:
> "What did you do back there, in the world?"
> I didn't hear the pious call out,
> nor the sinners moan for I'm alone
> in the whiteness. I'm alone (Darwish, 2009, p. 449).

In another poem titled *Remainder of a Life,* the color white incarnates death, which is threatening the poet's life. He is waiting for the whiteness to appear; the white death can come in any moment. So, the poet is preparing and sitting at his desk alive waiting for the sudden white death. He tries to write but words have died and have over occupied the

whole scene. He prepares the lunch and two glasses, one for him and another for the sudden visitor, death. The death of his words takes place when everything is colored with whiteness, emphasizing that white color denotes the termination of everything, even words. This poem was composed in the last days of the Palestinian poet, when he was waiting for the death, fearing to die suddenly without being notified or prepared.

<div align="center">

If I were told:

By evening you will die,

so what will you do until then?

I would look at my wristwatch,

I'd drink a glass of juice,

bite an apple,

contemplate at length an ant that has found its food,

then look at my wristwatch.

There'd be time left to shave my beard

and dive in a bath, obsess:

"There must be an adornment for writing,

so let it be a blue garment."

I'd sit until noon alive at my desk

but wouldn't see the trace of color in the words,

white, white, white . . . (Darwish, 2007, p. 57).

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Similarly, Lorca in his four-part poem, *Lament for the Death of a Bullfighter*, laments his friend Ignacio Sanchez Mejias. Unlike Darwish, Lorca has used the white color to lament the other and not the self. In each part, he describes a phase of the death event and ceremonies. In the first part, his setting was five in the afternoon when he successively depicts what was happening. He explicitly employed the white color when he referred to death. For example, he referred to the coffin when he says that the boy brought the white sheet at that time. it is hinted that it may be the angel of death incarnated in that child, who brings a white sheet as if it were a shroud. Then, a wheelbarrow, normally used to transport white lime stones, was used to transport the body of the bullfighter. Here, the whiteness is dominating the scene of the death of the bullfighter.

At that particular time, Lorca referred to many white elements that describe the scene of death. Cotton, nickel, dove, smoke, eggs, coffin, and sun are some natural elements that are white and they all symbolize death according to Lorca. When he referred to all these elements, it was five in the afternoon when his friend was dead. In this part, Lorca portrays the struggle of death between the bullfighters and the bulls in the ring.

<div align="center">

At five in the afternoon.

It was five sharp in the afternoon.

A boy brought the white sheet

at five in the afternoon.

A wheelbarrow of lime already set

at five in the afternoon.

The rest was death and only death

at five in the afternoon.

The wind swept away the cotton

at five in the afternoon.

And rust planted crystal and nickel

at five in the afternoon.

Now the struggle of leopard and dove

at five in the afternoon.

And a thigh with a desolate horn

at five in the afternoon.

And so began the bass notes

at five in the afternoon.

The arsenic bells and the smoke

at five in the afternoon (Lorca, 1953, p. i).

</div>

In the second part, Lorca continued describing the sad scene employing more white elements. To mention but a few, Lorca referred to silver, fog, mist, bleach, and white jasmines. Lorca wrote this elegy poem in 1935, a year before his assassination during the civil war, when traveling from Madrid to Granada to escape the rising political pressure (Gale 2016, p. 6). In Granada, he was arrested by the nationalist forces. After a few days in jail, he was assassinated. According to Oropesa and Ihrie (2011), in their *Encyclopedia of Spanish Literature,* Lorca in this elegy poem is reflecting on his own death in addition to his grief and mourning on his friend. White is used by the poet to express his emotions and thoughts regarding to his death. Like Darwish, Lorca was waiting for his death in this poem.

<div align="center">

I don't want to see it!

My memory burns.

</div>

Warn the jasmine
to cover its whiteness!
I don't want to see it!
The cow of the old world
stroked a snout of blood
with its sorrowful tongue
and the bulls of Guisando
almost death and almost stone
bellowed like two centuries
tired of walking the land.
No.
(…)
I don't want to see it.
Up the bleachers goes Ignacio
with death on his shoulders. . (Lorca, 1953, p. ii).

The topic of the poem is death, a significant key to all the works of Lorca turns in this long poem. In the third and fourth parts, Lorca continues his lament for the death of his friend. The dominant color in this funeral poem or crying elegy is white. In the poem and from a content perspective, the use of expressions that connote death can be seen in the elegy: "pale fog", "pale sulfur", "white sheet", "bowl of limestone", and "sweat of snow". The paleness and whiteness are prevailing between the verses to signify irreversible death.

The Martyrdom of Saint Eulalia is another elegiac poem, where Lorca invests the white color to expose death. Eulalia was a saint who was martyred by crucifixion in Barcelona. Lorca dedicates the poem to lament Saint Eulalia and express his melancholy. Cruelly tortured, her breasts and body were torn to bones with iron hooks and then burned with torches. Lorca has used the white color in this poem as a synonym of death, and instead of saying the Dead Eulalia, he said the white Eulalia. Different from his lamentation of his friend in the poem *Lament of the Death of a bullfighter*, Lorca has divinely elegized the Saint Eulalia, using the white color. The poem shows the struggle between good and evil, where the white Saint Eulalia has sacrificed in her life for the good of others (Ritcher, 2014).

Lorca concluded the poem by saying that Saint Eulalia has moved into another white eternal world, where angels are residing. In other words, she has moved to the world of whiteness which is eternal, and in this sense, different from the mundane one. In the eternal life, the land of angels is white; in this sense, the common symbolism of white as a symbol of eternity expresses the innocence, purity, and serenity of the angels' land. In this poem, white has two symbolisms. The first one is the recurrent symbolism of purity and innocence, as used to symbolize the eternal world of angels; and the second symbolism is the exceptional one as a symbol of death.

The broken snow is falling.
Eulalia white upon the tree.
In her side, triangles
of nickel are joining their angles.
(…)
Eulalia white on a white field.
Angels and seraphim are crying:
Holy. Holy. Holy. (Lorca, 2005, p. 99).

In another poem titled *Ballad of the Moon,* inspired by a Spanish folk song, titled *El niño de La Luna* (The Moon's boy), the white color symbolizes death too. The boy in the poem is albino, having a white body and hair. The boy was a gift from the moon to a sterile gypsy woman. When the mother gave birth to this boy, her husband killed her claiming that the boy does not belong to him (Lorca, 1990). In the poem, Lorca uses the white color to show that it gives an excuse for killing the mother. The poem is dominated by the white color; the child is albino; the light of the moon is described as metallic white; and silver is also mentioned as a source of making white jewelry. After the death of the mother, the moon takes the albino boy after closing his eyes, as a demonstration of his death. Lorca concluded his poem with the death of the albino boy, stressing that the white color is strictly connected with death in both cases, the mother and the albino boy.

Young boy, leave me to dance.
When they come, the gypsies
will find you upon the anvil
with closed eyes (Lorca, 1990, p. 41).

White is the color of death in all of Lorca's works. This color represents suicide and murders. White in Lorca's works became the definite symbol of the negative motif of death as Hollis (1965, p. 167) confirms when saying: "besides this simple employment of color, Lorca attached great symbolic significance to certain colors that appear in all his works. He used white, green, and red most vividly to represent various concepts".

Eternity is one of the main themes that writers in general, and poets in particular employ in their compositions. It can be used as a way to eternalize people, works, and issues. Lorca and Darwish have employed the white color to show

infinity as an eternal after-death stage. For them, the white color symbolizes the first beginning that has nothing before and the last end that nothing can come after. Azzam (2016, p. 244) in his article *reflection on white eternity in the poetry of Mahmoud Darwish* justifies the choice of *Mural* in Darwish's poetry by saying,

> Then, (white) eternity is the eternal flux that has no finality. In this way, the work of art, or equally the mural on the wall of the universe, defeats death: Mural itself has been a dialogue with death seeking after the possibility of the eternity of the work of art.

So eternity, which is symbolized in the white color by Darwish, is very clearly observed in his poem *Mural,* too. An illustration of this symbolization is noted in the following verses:

My me who are you?
We are two on the road
and one at the resurrection
Take me to the light of my disappearance to see how I'll be in my other mirror
Who my me will I be after you?
Is my body behind me or before you?
Who am I you tell me?
Make me as I make you
anoint me with almond oil
crown me with cedar
and transport me from the valley to a white eternity
Teach me life on the way
test me like an atom in the heavens
come to my aid against the boredom of the eternal
and be lenient when the roses pierce from my veins and wound me…(Darwish, 2009, p. 449).

In the above verses, Darwish makes a dialogue between the alive Darwish and the eternal Darwish. He has gone through a real death experience when he was admitted to surgery after a heart attack. He miraculously escaped death and this has helped him to portray this life and the eternal afterlife. He started the verses by interrogating whether there is eternal life after death or not. The first reference to eternity is plain in the dialogue he made between the body which represented mortal life and the soul which represented the immortal one. He addresses his soul part to carry his body part to eternity. In this regard, Mattawa (2014, p. 148) maintains that,

> Implied in the sketch of the new poet Darwish would be in the whiteness (of death) that he wished to fill (in defiance) with his poetry, the whiteness of the blank page (the pages he filled with poetry erased and forgotten), and the whiteness of the identity card on which his fate had been inscribed. All the poet needed to do in this new space/place, as the nurse instructed his, was to "remember your name to keep it safe. / do not betray it, / pay no mind to the banners of the tribes./ be a good friend to your name

Whiteness stands for the official color of eternity, where other colors may perch. In this respect, Darwish is heavily influenced by the German philosopher Martin Heidegger, who employs the white color as a sign of eternity. After escaping death, Darwish has come with the following strange queries about eternal whiteness.

Is the climate warm over there?
Do the seasons change in the eternal whiteness?
does the weather stay fixed in autumn or winter?
, Will one book be enough to read in non-time?
Or should I take a library?
And what do they talk over there?
Vernacular or classical? (Darwish, 2009, p. 450).

In his poem *sacred hells*, Darwish provides answers to the questions he raised above. He says that everything is white in eternal life: the clouds are white, the alphabet is white, and the whole eternity is white. When your hills are white, Darwish describes the transformation that death makes to humans, man leaves his earthly past and starts a new eternal white life. This happens like passing a passage of white fog; this transformation from the mortal world to the eternal one happens without perceiving it. This intertwining between eternity as a stage after death and whiteness are dominant in all works of the Palestinian poet.

The cloud is white, the alphabet is white,
And eternity is as white as you are and how
much You are not you.. when your hills become white
Free from your mistake and your oral history,
And devoid of but you and his oral history as if you come
Just from nothingness in the fog lane to nothingness
It is as if the resurrection took place without your attention (Darwish, 2017, p. 157).

Darwish, is trying to bring eternity into being, describing the eternal afterlife with mundane descriptions. The resurrection took place without paying attention by humans. Describing eternity as white is justified by Azzam (2016, p. 242) saying,

This act of the relocation of eternity brings eternity into being. Eternity is transformed from the realm of metaphysics into the realm of being. Eternity gains through the meditation of the poetical saying "eternity is-white" its ultimate admission into the realm of being. When eternity reveals itself to be white, it becomes part of the poet's experience of time. Under these conditions, the poet may now seek after letting eternity show itself in that which is white, such as white flowers, white clouds, white sheets, and so on.

Lorca wrote a lyrical poem as a dedication to his best friend Juan Ramon Jimenez. In this ode, Lorca uses the white color to describe the eternal afterlife, besides explicitly using the white color in the ode. He employs other white elements like snow, tuberose, salt, and pigeon feathers to describe this afterlife. Dead people are gone to the white world, the infinite world, where everything is white.

<div align="center">

In the infinite white,
snow, tuberose and saline,
it lost the fantasy of it.
The color white, come on,
on a dumb carpet
of pigeon feathers.
Without eyes or gesture
motionless suffers a dream.
But she trembles inside.
In the infinite white,
what a pure and long wound
she left the fantasy of it!
In infinite white.
Snow. Nard. Saline (Lorca, 1997, p. 110).

</div>

In this poem, Lorca is questioning about the afterlife. The white color is two-fold in this poem. The first one is when this color is personified as a dead human being. Lorca is addressing the personified color by asking it to come close and walk on a dumb carpet. This color is also employed in the poem to resemble the eternal afterlife. This resemblance is clear in using snow, nard, and saline as elements of the afterlife world.

Although the personified color is white, still it fears the unknown world of the afterlife. Lorca describes this color as motionless when it walks on the dump carpet. What is paradoxical here is that death should not fear the eternal afterlife in the view that it holds the same color. The use of white color to symbolize this opposite duality of death and eternity by Lorca can be justified by the intention of the poet to intensify the meaning of each term. As Arango (1995, p. 280) confirms in his book *simbolo y simbologia en la obra de Federico Garcia Lorca* (symbol and symbology in the works of Federico Garcia Lorca), he refers constantly to colors in his works, where the white color is considered as the one with which poet is passionate; he used this color to make his texts more assimilated, active and intense.

In another poem titled *Autumn Song*, Lorca talks about the eternal afterlife. In his notes about this poem, Gareth confirms that it is inspired by the city of Babel, which according to Genesis was built by humans to reach heaven, the eternal destiny afterlife (Lorca 2007, p. 171). Lorca uses the white color to describe all roses, which are white in his view. In the previous poem, Lorca mentions that the tuberose is dominant in the afterlife; however, in the present poem, he says that all roses are white as his sorrow. He is wondering if the snow in the afterlife will melt or remain. He is also wondering if the roses in the afterlife will have their own whiteness and are thus perfect, getting their color from their own and not from the falling snow as in this life.

<div align="center">

All roses are white,
as white as my sorrow,
but the roses are not white
that have snow on them.
(…)
Will the snow melt
when death takes us?
Or will there then be other snow
and other roses more perfect?
Will there be peace among us
as Christ teaches us?
Or will there never be
a solution to this question? (Lorca, 2007, p. 3).

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Lorca uses roses a lot in his poetry; most of them are white like nards, jasmines, tuberoses, and lilies. In Spanish culture, all these flowers are related to death. About this aspect in the poetry of the Spanish, Harvard (1972, p. 812) maintains,

does white express longing, absence, death - and also erotic love? There are many flowers, and most of them -by far the most- are white. Nard, *nardo*, is a fleshy, creamy white flower on a long stalk, with a penetrating

fragrance, resembling a lily. There are also many white lilies, called either *lirio* or *azucena* by Lorca (…)
Lorca would have known, and felt, the lily as a flower associated with religion, love, and death

He concluded the poem wondering about what will happen if death is death, and what is the destination of poets, and other things that human beings do not care about. In Lorca's and Darwish's poetry abounds the duality of some symbolic elements, white color in our case. The white color is the end of the mortal life and at the same time, the dominant color of the eternal life. White color is employed by both poets to make a unity between opposites, death, and eternity.

And if death is death,
what will become of poets?
and things in a cocoon
which no one remembers?
Oh sun of hopes!
Clear water! New moon!
Dull souls of stones!
Today I sense in my heart
a vague tremor of stars
and all roses are
as white as my sorrow (Lorca, 2007, p. 3).

In his article, *The symbolic ambivalence of "Green" in Garcia Lorca and Dylan Thomas*, Harvard (1972) pays particular interest to what he calls a "verbal conflict" in Lorca's poetry, a technique used by the Spanish poet in which he multiplies symbols and images with one specific word, which can be a color, like white in our study. The word white, is heavily used to symbolize many things.

Both poets are setting a paradoxical question about the eternal afterlife, asking about its features. The only thing that they are sure about is the whiteness of this eternal afterlife. In their poetic verses mentioned above, Lorca and Darwish don't know anything about the afterlife, except its color, which according to them is white. White color is adding to the poetry of both an artistic value with a purely psychological perspective. White in particular and colors in general, are prominent in the poems of Darwish and Lorca, reflecting their characters through the untraditional symbolism of white color used by them.

IV. CONCLUSION

This comparative study has shown that colors have universal symbolizations. It has shown that the symbols of colors differ from one culture into another. It has, however, shown that the white color has the same symbolism in the Arabic and Spanish cultures. As revealed in the study, Lorca and Darwish have exceptionally employed the white color in their poetry to designate death and eternity. The two poets have negatively used the white color when they utilize it to refer to death. The analysis has made clear that the white color should be carefully interpreted as it is used out of its habitual meanings. The white is highly expressive and exceptionally employed to amplify and intensify the color capacity of meaning. As made apparent, the white color has a wide range of meanings in Lorca's and Darwish's poetry adhering to an additional meaning which is not associated with it in Spanish and Arabic cultures. White color becomes a central poetic motif of death and eternity and a powerful psychological and material force in the poetry of both. The study has concluded that whiteness has a psychological force that affects the audience of both poets, acquiring a deeper meaning. It is paradoxical in their poetry since it is employed to designate death and eternity.

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Incorporating Strategy Instruction (SI) and Strategy-Based Writing Instruction (SBI) to Enhancing Students' Writing Abilities

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Abstract—Strategy instruction (SI) and strategy-based writing instruction (SBI) in English in recent years have obtained great attention for having considerable educational and evaluation usefulness. Studies on how strategic teaching improves students' writing ability were limited, resulting in significant gaps in the declarative and procedural knowledge of writing among university freshmen. To address this gap, this study was conducted to examine the effects of strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction on students' writing based on several parameters: content, organization, language, citation, idea, revision, modification, replacement, plagiarism, and creativity on students' writing ability. This experimental study involved 100 students majoring English Education at the State University of Malang. The results of the ANCOVA test on all dependent variables showed a significant effect on idea construction in both control and experimental group. This study revealed that SBI and SI positively affected students' writing ability, making them regarded as effective methods in teaching writing.

Index Terms—strategy instruction (SI), strategy-based writing instruction (SBI), writing ability

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is an important component of life, including in educational and job environments. Today, everyone frequently communicates via email, text messaging, and social media. Those without sufficient basic writing skills may find it difficult to engage in daily activities involving school communication (Finlayson & Mccrudden, 2019). Some people show little or no improvement in their writing skills when they learn to compose simple sentences (Salahu-Din et al., 2008). Therefore, in recent years, language instructors have paid special attention to language acquisition processes and considered ways to better support that endeavor (Cohen, 2002).

However, the integrated writing task assigns tasks to both first-and second-language students (L1, L2). Therefore, students must struggle to develop the sophisticated cognitive and metacognitive abilities necessary for effective interaction with them. Language learners in both second and foreign language situations might benefit from utilizing learning techniques, although their learning objectives may need distinct strategies. In the beginning, the primary task for foreign language learners is to develop their social languages; nevertheless, at a higher level, they must read, discuss, and produce literary and informative materials in the target language and create an academic language.

This study discusses how explicit strategic training impacts students' metacognitive understanding and helps SRL develop in EFL writing. A cyclical writing process was used to construct a 15-week process-oriented writing course focusing on specific writing methods (i.e., prewriting, planning, redrafting, evaluating, revising, and editing) (Lam, 2015). The findings indicated that participants increased their metacognitive knowledge of planning, restructuring, and problem-solving procedures and their motivation and confidence during the writing process (Lam, 2015). Another study

by Zhang (2013) discovered that instruction has a beneficial effect on the writing of discourse synthesis. More importantly, the study indicates how synthesis writing instructions may be included in an ESL course without considerably disturbing the curriculum.

This article continues the literature review on the strategies used in strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction of EFL students to enhance their ability to write in an integrated approach.

A. Literature Review

(a). Integrated Writing Strategies

Writing strategies are distinct processes or techniques writers employ to enhance their work. In the context of English as a Second Language or Foreign Language, intervention studies have shown that strategy-based education provides Second Language or Foreign Language students with both quantitative and qualitative writing strategies found to include skills. This is a concern, as writing is necessary for achievement in high schools, universities, and future jobs (Finlayson & Mccrudden, 2019). Due to the critical nature of writing, it is critical to foster the early development of writing skills, especially for students who struggle with or dislike writing. English writing techniques are essential and critical for English language learners.

However, many students find the learning process challenging. One reason is that they need to learn many customs for writing, including how to develop ideas and put them together in well-written paragraphs. As a result, their writing skills were low. Therefore, strategy instruction providing explicit, step-by-step tools to assist students in approaching various aspects of the writing process is needed to improve their writing. Researchers have demonstrated that students meet these requirements through various writing techniques and that their use of these techniques is associated with fluctuations in their integrated writing performance and their English as a Second Language (ESL) competence level (Yang & Plakans, 2012).

As a result, it is indeed important to note that researchers are required to pay scant attention to the effect on strategy instruction and integrated writing ability. Despite the exception of Zhang (2013), those who have studied the effects of strategy instruction on the overall writing of intermediate English Second Language (ESL) students have significantly underestimated the feasibility and efficacy of tasks incorporating strategy instruction at the higher education level. The representativeness of test content is critical once performance tasks are developed. Traditionally, writing is assessed independently of other skills, and examinees respond to a prompt by writing about their general knowledge and personal experiences. However, in most academic contexts, writing assignments are frequently integrated with reading, listening, and speaking (Hinkel, 2006). The content of a piece of writing is critical. Graham and Harris (2009) argued that strategy instruction also addresses self-regulation for managing strategies and behaviors. Additionally, Graham et al. (2012) combined strategic education and self-regulation to be more effective.

(b). Strategy-Based Writing Instruction

For more than three decades, applied linguists have studied language learner strategies. One such effort is strategy-based writing instruction (SBI), a collaborative effort between teachers and students to integrate strategy into the core language curriculum. However, there are some issues with creating a strategy-based writing instruction (SBI) survey. Cohen and Weaver (2006) investigated the effect of strategy-based writing instruction on foreign language students' improvements in speaking over ten weeks. Their findings demonstrated the importance of strategy integration in traditional language classrooms. They previously excluded a potentially influential variable (i.e., reading comprehension) associated with English Foreign Language (EFL) students' writing performance from previous writing instruction in English Foreign Language (EFL) writing achievement (Lee, 2019).

Gu (2019) described the experiment using a five-step strategy-based writing instruction (SBI) model, including 1) Awareness-raising and preparation, 2) Teachers' presentations and modeling, 3) Multiple practice opportunities, 4) Strategy effectiveness evaluation, and 5) Strategy transfer to new tasks. Most of the previous studies focused on adult (young) students. Current findings on writing instruction in English as a second language have shifted from text-based studies to studies of multilingual students' writing as a socially situated practice (Beiler, 2019). As per Baghbadorani and Roohani's (2014) research, the instruction effectively improved the persuasive writing performance of EFL participants. In other studies, it was found that writing interventions performed by teachers generally improved student writing performance, although there were varying degrees of improvement in the studies (Finlayson & Mccrudden, 2019). These research results, in line with the study by Azin et al. (2021), demonstrated that strategy-based instruction has a significant positive effect on EFL learners' writing achievement when using various modes of writing. Despite the emphasis on writing strategies (e.g., idea construction, organization, and revision), little research has been conducted on the effects of strategy-based writing instruction (SBI).

(c). Integrated Writing (Strategy) Instruction Effectiveness

One effective strategy for determining which strategies students are already employing is simply asking them and the class how many students use each strategy to motivate them to try new strategies. Stated Strategy Instruction typically entails increasing awareness of the strategy to be learned, modeling/demonstrating it, conducting multiple training sessions, evaluating the strategy's effectiveness, and transitioning to new tasks (Rubin et al., 2007). It is frequently beneficial to have students complete a learning task initially and then discuss the techniques they used to complete it

while their minds are fresh. This was proven to be more efficient than other instructional methods in students in primary and secondary education, and strategy instruction (SI) improved students' writing quality (Graham et al., 2012). However, studies on the effectiveness of strategy instruction (SI) in synthetic descriptions are extremely rare.

The process-oriented approach to writing enhanced the overall quality of text produced by average and, in many cases, troubled writers (Graham & Sandmel, 2011). Other reviews were broader in scope, examining the efficacy of multiple writing treatments at various grade levels. Several treatments evaluated were created specifically to help you enhance your writing strategy, knowledge, or skills.

In the L2 context, Machili et al. (2020) examined the effects of strategy instruction (SI) on students' synthesized written form as measured by their performance on an overall writing test in three major areas: financial reporting and funding, business management, and the economy. The sample was divided into two groups: experimental (56.8%) and control (43.2%). The results showed that although the difference in scores between the experimental and control groups appears to be insignificant numerically, the comparison showed statistical significance, with SI improving the synthetic performance of the experimental group over that of the control group. The experimental group improved significantly more than the control group after receiving instruction and practice in synthesis strategies, indicating that strategy instruction (SI) intervention was effective. Similarly, Kirkpatrick and Klein (2009) found L1 students taught in synthetic strategies to perform better than students who did not receive such guidance on integrated R2W tasks at a later stage. A further study by Al-Jarrah and Al-Ahmad (2013) in Jordan found that not all schools paid attention to their language skills. Almost all English textbooks used in Jordan are aimed at helping students understand, read and write English.

One of the most important aspects of written text is its structure. The use of text structures suitable for global organizations and genders is an overall indication of writing results. The problem that students with low L2 proficiency may have with integrated writing is that the integrated writing task is appropriate only for students with a certain level of language competence; below that, it is effective. It may indicate that it may not be possible (Cumming et al., 2016).

The researchers believe explicit strategy instruction in complicated and impossible built-in written assignments holds great promise. This study is a component of a larger project examining integrated writing techniques, the effect of strategy instruction on achievement and the use of informed strategies, and the effect of encouragement on integrated task performance. As a result, this study discusses the explicit strategy instruction interventions conducted and their observed effects on EFL writing abilities.

II. METHOD

A. The Participants

To assist in understanding the research findings, this section briefly outlines the educational backgrounds of our participants. Students have little information on citation requirements and how to use sources properly. Plagiarism is seldom mentioned, and there is minimal guidance on taking an origin and incorporating it into a current project. Postsecondary education followed a similar pattern for a long time: excessive class size, limited opportunities for collaborative and research work, and a single final exam that typically requires reproducing true information from the assigned curriculum guide. As a result, it is reasonable to expect that students entering university will have significant gaps in their declarative and procedural writing knowledge.

Therefore, an experimental design was chosen because it was the best option available given the circumstances. Creswell (2015) argued that experimental designs (also known as intervention studies or group comparison studies) are processes used in quantitative research to determine whether a particular activity or set of materials affects the outcomes of participants. Giving one group a set of activities (referred to as an intervention) and withholding them from another group is one way to quantify this effect.

The sample consisted of 100 students (50% males, 50% females) from the first semester of the English Education Department at the State University of Malang, aged between 19 and 23. The TOEFL ITP scores of the students were converted to levels of competence. Most participants (61.9%) were proficient at the intermediate B level, followed by 38.2% of advanced C-level students.

B. Research Question and Design

This study aimed to investigate how strategy and strategy-based writing instruction affect students' writing abilities, specifically to address the following research questions.

RQ1: Does strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction affect students' writing ability in the control group?

RQ2: Does strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction affect students' writing ability in the experimental group?

RQ3: Is there a difference in the effects produced by strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction on students' writing ability in the control and experimental groups?

To answer the research questions, researchers used an experimental approach in which students from the English Education Department were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. Both groups used identical materials and followed the same procedures regarding attendance, tasks, and grades. All participants took the TOEFL

ITP test to assess their general academic English competence. Utilizing Yang and Plakans (2012), a conceptual framework devoted to the selection, organization, and connection of strategies.

(a). The Strategy Instruction Intervention

The intervention taught four writing strategies: preparation, text generation, feedback processing, and revision. The following are the writing strategies that were chosen. First, a preliminary list of writing strategies was compiled based on a thorough literature review. Many of these tactics were found to be strongly linked to pupils' linguistic abilities (Victori, 1999). The research group then sifted through methodologies that describe the writing process (Flower & Hayes, 1981), involving planning, writing, and revising. It is also worth noting that each group of techniques is made up of multiple sub-strategies that work together to make the writing process easier (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Setting goals, creating ideas, and organizing ideas into a writing plan, for example, are all part of the planning process.

The intervention took place throughout seven two-hour sessions. The researchers focused on selecting, arranging, and connecting methods using the conceptual structure of Yang and Plakans (2012). Each session was conducted according to the five stages outlined in the international strategy instruction literature (Rubin et al., 2007): (1) stirring up students' consciousness by asking them to consider strategies they already use for similar tasks; (2) describing and designing how the tactic worked; (3) practicing the strategy in class; (4) evaluating the strategy's efficacy; and (5) analyzing the strategies taught through the use of prior and successive meetings.

The control group content included: writing a synthesis from various reference sources. The schedule is fixed according to typical course content to cause as less distraction as possible. Students are given worksheets with content outlines to help them understand the structure of their writing synthesis. In the third week, students are also asked to write paragraphs that compare and contrast the contents of the two syntheses they have learned. Teachers also focus on language problems, providing students with practice on lexical and grammatical topics that arise during presentations.

The experimental group received training in various tactics at each session. The first sessions focus on developing selection methods, such as selecting task-relevant information and collecting selective notes from reading sources based on job requirements. Two organizing strategies are highlighted: text-based organization for comprehension and mental organization of selected information in the form of outlines and mind maps from readings. During the writing process, the teacher demonstrates two techniques for juxtaposing material to students: comparing and contrasting and bullet points. The following two sessions model and practice strategies for producing coherent writing, such as constructing topic sentences that convey the relationship between two sources for further investigation and using appropriate linking devices. The next session provided an overview of the tactics covered thus far and a sample assessment using the rubric parameters for evaluating substance (information), organization (the presence of introductory sentences and cohesive devices), language, and verbatim sources (references to sources and quality of paraphrasing). Students complete a synthesis writing and two strategy inventories in the last session.

(b). The Scoring Rubric

The following content, organization, and language scales were retained and scored on a scale of 0–5 using the integrated writing scoring rubrics (Yang & Plakans, 2012). However, verbatim use has been replacement by two scales: verbatim language use, rated 0–2 (indicating the extent to which plagiarism was avoided), and citation inventiveness, rated 0–3 (reflecting the variety of methods used by students to refer to the sources). During the marking process, papers were anonymized and assigned code numbers rather than names.

To ensure consistency in scoring, the researchers and raters met several times to clarify and agree on the rating criteria. Prior to scoring, all raters rated batches of ten papers from each department to ascertain any differences in their perceptions of the rating scale and inter-rater reliability. Two raters combined through all of the submissions. The paper's assessments were consistent to the extent of 85 percent, which was comparable to other relevant studies (Cumming et al., 2005). Unless the average of the two scores was used, no difference greater than 0.5 was observed (Nguyen & Gu, 2013).

III. RESULT

A. Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for providing an overview of the measured variables, including the mean and standard deviation of each variable.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESEARCH VARIABLES

variable	Control						Experimental					
	Pre		Post		Delayed		Pre		Post		Delayed	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Idea construction	12.07	1.26	12.13	1.33	12.02	1.18	17.94	1.10	17.39	1.23	17.17	1.43
Revision	12.35	1.35	12.00	1.27	12.27	1.35	17.24	1.35	16.82	1.46	16.83	1.38
Content	1.53	0.60	1.25	0.65	1.62	0.65	4.28	0.62	3.82	0.81	4.27	0.66
Organization	1.40	0.67	1.13	0.63	1.23	0.67	4.19	0.76	3.89	0.70	3.82	0.81
Language	1.61	0.67	1.32	0.62	1.53	0.59	4.27	0.66	3.90	0.76	4.28	0.62
Citation	0.86	0.38	0.70	0.40	0.62	0.43	2.45	0.39	2.18	0.45	2.19	0.43
Modified	0.49	0.29	0.50	0.29	0.49	0.29	1.52	0.29	1.50	0.29	1.50	0.29
Replacement	0.50	0.29	0.49	0.29	0.53	0.29	1.48	0.30	1.52	0.29	1.51	0.30
Plagiarism	0.49	0.29	0.50	0.29	0.43	0.29	1.49	0.29	1.51	0.29	1.43	0.30
Creativity	0.50	0.29	0.62	0.42	0.69	0.39	2.47	0.35	2.20	0.45	2.17	0.45

Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviation of the control and experimental groups. It also illustrates the mean and standard deviation changes between the pre-test, post-test, and delayed tests for both categories.

Out of the ten calculated variables in the control group, four variables have an increasing mean from the pre-test to the post-test: idea construction, modified, plagiarism, and creativity. On the other hand, the means of another six variables decreased from the pre-test to the post-test, including revision, content, organization, language, citation, and replacement and creativity variables increased in the pre-test to delayed test.

Furthermore, of the ten calculated variables in the experimental group, the mean of two variables has increased from the Pre-test group to the Post-test: replacement and plagiarism. In contrast, for eight variables, the mean decreases from the pre-test to the post-test: idea construction, revision, content, organization, language, citation, modified, and creativity. Meanwhile, replacement and language variables increased from the pre-test to the delayed test.

The comparison of the mean of each variable indicates the effect of the treatment on the post-test. ANOVA test will reveal the extent of the effect and the significance of the difference.

B. ANOVA Analysis

ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) is one of the comparative tests used to test mean differences between more than two groups of data. The ANOVA test principle analyzes data variability into two sources of variation: within the group and variations between groups. If variations within and between them are the same (comparison value of the two variants approaches one), and the intervention shows no effect. In other words, the mean comparison shows no difference. Conversely, if the variation between groups is greater than the variation within the group, the intervention provides a different effect. ANOVA test results are displayed in Table 2.

TABLE 2
ANOVA TEST RESULTS ALL VARIABLES MEAN (SD)

Variable	Control		Experimental	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Idea	12.07	12.14	17.95*	17.40*
	1.26	1.34	1.11	1.23
Revision	12.35	12.01	17.25	16.83
	1.36	1.28	1.35	1.47
Content	1.53*	1.25*	4.29*	3.82*
	0.60	0.65	0.62	0.81
Organization	1.40*	1.14*	4.19*	3.89*
	0.68	0.63	0.77	0.71
Language	1.62*	1.33*	4.27*	3.90*
	0.67	0.63	0.67	0.76
Citation	0.87*	0.70*	2.46*	2.18*
	0.38	0.40	0.40	0.45
Modified	0.49	0.50	1.52	1.50
	0.30	0.30	0.29	0.30
Replacement	0.50	0.49	1.49	1.52
	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30
Plagiarism	0.49	0.50	1.49	1.52
	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30
Creativity	0.50	0.62	2.48*	2.21*
	0.30	0.42	0.36	0.45
* : Significant P value <0.05				

In the control group, four variables show a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test groups (p<0.05). The strategic instruction and strategy-based writing instruction treatment before and after the post-test significantly provide an effect of change in the mean of the four variables (content, organization, language, and citation). Whereas for another six variables: idea construction, revision, modified, replacement, plagiarism, and creativity, the strategic instruction control before the post-test had no significant effect on the mean (p>0.05).

In the experimental group, six variables show significantly different means between the pre-test and post-test groups (p<0.005). This means that the treatment instruction before the posttest significantly changed the mean of the six variables: idea construction, content, organization, language, citation, and creativity. On the other hand, for the remaining four variables: revision, modified, replacement, and plagiarism, the strategic instruction, the treatment does not have a significant effect on the mean of the post-test (p>0.05)

The difference in the results of the ANOVA test indicates that the data in the experimental group was better than the control group.

C. ANCOVA Analysis

ANCOVA analysis is useful for increasing the precision of an experiment because it is carried out by regulations on the influence of other free-controlled changes. The results of the ANCOVA test in this study are displayed in Table 3.

TABLE 3
TEST RESULTS ANCOVA ALL DEPENDENT VARIABLES
IDEA CONSTRUCTION

Variable	Control		Experimental	
	F	Sig	F	Sig
Content	8,851.50	0.01	3,073.43	0.01
Organization	407.92	0.01	96.14	0.01
Language	71.12	0.01	46.26	0.01
Citation	8.73	0.01	6.00	0.02
Modified	599.35	0.01	3.91	0.06
Replacement	1.63	0.21	0.08*	0.79
Plagiarism	31.02	0.01	6.33	0.02
Creativity	1.38	0.25	6.65	0.02
Corrected Model	1,246.58	0.01	360.33	0.01
Intercept	892,796.58	0.01	739,176.85	0.01
Category	0.01	0.01	4.16	0.05
R-Square	0.99		0.98	
* : Not Significant p>0.05				

Data analysis results show that some variables: content, organization, language, citation, creativity, modified, replacement, and plagiarism, have a significant effect on the increase in idea construction both in the control and experimental groups. Strategy instruction (SI) and strategy-based writing instruction (SBI) treatment effects are seen in the value of the effect category, with p <0.05 both for the experimental and control groups. This means that strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction treatment significantly affect changes in the value of idea construction in both groups. The value of the model is also quite large in both categories, as indicated by the R^2 in the model control of 0.99 (99%) and in the experimental model of 0.98 (98%).

TABLE 4
TEST RESULTS ANCOVA ALL DEPENDENT VARIABLES REVISION

Revision				
Variable	Control		Experimental	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Content	6,895.42	0.01	5,089.71	0.01
Organization	321.66	0.01	163.74	0.01
Language	1.35	0.25	1.07	0.31
Citation	7.82	0.01	27.01	0.01
Modified	67.51	0.01	171.22	0.01
Replacement	16.22	0.01	0.02*	0.89
Plagiarism	0.59	0.45	10.12	0.01
Creativity	0.11*	0.75	6.01	0.02
Corrected Model	913.83	0.01	608.01	0.01
Intercept	639,424.24	0.01	814,492.88	0.01
Category	0.01	0.01	3.16	0.08
R-Sq	0.99		0.99	
*: Not Significant P value >0.05				

The results of partial data analysis show that content, organization, language, citations, creativity, modified, replacement, and plagiarism variables significantly increase revision, both in the control and experimental groups (p<0.05). The creativity variable in the control group has no significant effect on revitalization, and the experimental group variable has no significant effect on revision (p>0.05).

IV. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction on students' writing abilities. Students with and without learning difficulties are explicitly taught pre-validated writing strategies and procedures for managing writing strategies and processes during writing class. Additionally, researchers

examined changes in student performance during instruction to ascertain the contribution of specific instructional components.

A. RQ1: The Effect of Strategic Instruction and Strategy-Based Writing Instruction on Students' Writing Abilities in the Control Group

The results of our study indicate that the strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction on students' abilities in the control category have a less effective effect. The control of strategic instructions and strategy-based writing instruction for six variables in the control group (idea construction, revision, modified, replacement, plagiarism, and creativity) were not significantly different between the pre-test and the post-test ($p > 0.05$). There were four other variables (content, organization, language, and citation) whose mean was significantly different between the pre-test and post-test ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, in developing performance tasks, the representativeness of the test content is an important issue. This is supported by Zhang (2013), who studied the influence of strategy instruction on the overall writing of secondary school ESL students. They have significantly underestimated the feasibility and effectiveness of integrated strategy instruction assignments at the higher education level. Additional research is needed to determine the effectiveness of strategy instruction for students in inclusive settings where content instruction (e.g., social studies) takes precedence over process instruction. Conferences and mini-lessons integrated into the author's class make it relatively simple to provide the clarity and support necessary for individual students to develop and personalize composition strategies.

B. RQ2: The Effect of Strategic Instruction and Strategy-Based Writing Instruction on Students' Writing Abilities in the Experimental Group

Our findings show that the effect of strategic instruction and strategy-based writing instruction on students' writing abilities in the experimental group is effective. In the experimental group, four variables (revision, modified, replacement, and plagiarism) showed significant differences between the pre-test and post-test ($p > 0.05$). However, the other six variables significantly differed between the pre-test and post-test ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that the treatment of strategic instruction before the pre-test and after the post-test significantly changes the mean of the six variables (idea construction, content, organization, language, citation, and creativity). The results of this study are supported by the findings of Graham et al. (2012). They showed that the use of strategic instruction was more effective than other educational approaches for primary and secondary-level students and that strategic instruction improved the quality of students' writing. Another study by Zhang (2013) discovered that instruction positively affects discourse synthesis writing. More importantly, the study demonstrated the feasibility of incorporating synthesis writing instruction into an EFL course without significantly disrupting the curriculum. Additionally, the strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction procedures were effective for college students in this study because there was a significant difference in students' writing abilities before and after treatment. While pre-treatment students performed within the normal range on standardized achievement tests and were described as "average" writers by their teachers, there was a significant difference in their schema structure and writing quality. Thus, this study shows that this strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction improve the writing of students with various levels of writing ability.

C. RQ3: The Difference in Effects Produced by Strategy Instruction and Strategy-Based Writing Instruction on Students' Writing Abilities in the Control and Experimental Groups

The findings of our study revealed the differences in the effects of strategy and strategic-based writing instruction on students writing abilities in the control and experimental groups, as indicated by the ANOVA test. The difference between the pre-test and post-test indicates that the data in the experimental group is better than the control group. These results confirm the previous finding that the effect of strategy instruction on synthetic writing on students' writing performance in the experimental group was more effective than control (Machili et al., 2020). In contrast, prior research by Bai et al. (2014) found that learners at all proficiency levels used planning strategies more frequently than other types of writing strategies. Thus, it is possible that students in the experimental group planned their writing more carefully following the intervention. This research demonstrates that studies incorporating a complete cycle of strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction have a greater effect than those focusing exclusively on one or two groups of writing strategies. Writing strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction were successfully implemented in a teaching environment at the State University of Malang to improve students' writing abilities. The findings indicated that both strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction were effective at increasing students' writing competence and strategy use.

V. CONCLUSION

This study reveals the effect of using strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction on students' writing ability in terms of content, organization, language, citation, idea construction, revision, modified, replacement, plagiarism, and creativity. This study reveals that the use of strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction has a good effect on students' writing ability. The results of the ANCOVA test on all dependent variables showed a significant influence on the excitement of idea construction, both in the control and experimental groups.

Additionally, evidence from other studies and the researcher's observation indicates that strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction are beneficial. This research makes a significant contribution to writing strategy instruction and research on strategy-based writing instruction. This is one of the few attempts to examine the impact of strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction on young EFL writers. The sustained positive effect observed one month after the intervention indicates that the intervention represents a more effective alternative pedagogical approach to writing instruction in universities. Additionally, the study includes a complete cycle of writing instruction, as is customary in authentic university settings. Robust research evidence was used to draw numerous pedagogical implications. Writing strategies should be explicitly taught and integrated into existing writing lessons. Teacher training should be prioritized to ensure that strategy instruction and strategy-based writing instruction are implemented successfully in the classroom. To achieve a sustained positive effect, a full cycle of locally contextualized writing instructions is required.

This study has several limitations, some of which can be addressed in future research. This study only examined the effect of strategic instruction on students' writing abilities in terms of content, organization, language, citation, idea construction, revision, modification, replacement, plagiarism, and creativity. It can be expanded in the future with such components as planning, feedback handling, and text generation. Future research will be able to determine the greater effect that strategic instruction and strategy-based writing instruction have on not only students' writing abilities but also their writing performance.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

APPENDIX. SCORING RUBRIC

NO	Variable	Range score
1	Idea construction	0-5
2	Revision	0-5
3	Content	0-5
4	Organization	0-5
5	Language	0-5
6	Citation	0-3
7	Modified	0-2
8	Replacement	0-2
9	Plagiarism	0-2
10	Creativity	0-3

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Environmental Concerns and English Language Teaching in Saudi Context: Perceptions and Practices

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Abstract—The present study aims to analyze the English language teachers' perceptions and practices in Saudi Arabia from the perspective of environmental education. The drive is firstly to record and scrutinize teachers' perceptions regarding the incorporation of environmental education as part of ELT. Secondly, it explores whether or not they integrate environmental concerns into their teaching materials and practices. For this purpose, mixed-method research was used using a questionnaire and a focus group interview as tools of the study. The findings reveal not-up-to-par responses with respect to the attitudes of ELT teachers toward the integration of environmental education in the ELT curriculum. Moreover, their current practices also lack such focus in their classrooms though they apprehend its significance in light of contemporary environmental concerns. The study suggests that this needs to be focused on a preliminary basis by the concerned stakeholders to educate and equip the ELT teachers for the purpose.

Index Terms—environmental education, English language teaching, teachers' perspectives, focus group interview

I. INTRODUCTION

"Little we see in Nature that is ours;
We have given our hearts away, a sordid boon!" (Wordsworth, 1965, p. 72).

While Wordsworth wrote these lines in the nineteenth century, he was hardly aware of the inbound disastrous effects of the insensitive attitudes of humans towards nature, where the consequences were observable, particularly during the twenty-first century. In fact, environmental crises are some of the biggest dilemmas of the present-day world that have caused treacherous effects on the ecosystem through abysmal climate change, extreme weather conditions, intensifying global warming, and often solemn geological calamities. Further, this detrimental impact on the ecosystem has negatively influenced all forms of life, from humans to plant kingdoms. Different programs and projects have been launched at individual, organizational, national, and international levels to lessen these pejorative impacts; raising awareness is also one of them. For the said reason, the philosophy of better and greener education has become a potent aspect of educational systems throughout the world. From United Nations to local communities, education has been granted the prestige of being a persuasive gadget for bringing a positive change in the environment. Putri (2018) quotes UNESCO's (2005) goals for sustainable education to favor environmental education as an imperative part of the contemporary education system around the world. In addition, United Nations' agenda for sustainability (2015) is primarily concerned with environmental sustainability as one of the keys to a sustainable future by 2030 and ponders education as a vehicle to endorse it. According to the UN general assembly resolution 72/222 held in 2017 (Education for Sustainable Development: A Roadmap, 2020), education is a key enabler to achieving all the desired sustainability goals including environmental sustainability. Thus, environmental education is the need of the time.

Environmental education is about enlightening the youth concerning the significance of the environment together with what actions, strategies, and policies can help to improve our natural surroundings. It aids us to comprehend our environment and how our activities can influence it positively or negatively. By understanding the consequences of our actions, we can make better, more sustainable choices for ourselves and our planet. According to Nkwetisama (2011), the ability to think and act green is what education should be about to tackle ecological complications. Crim et al. (2008) narrate that the education for environmental sustainability given to children today "will have a great impact on the future quality of life for generations to come" (p. 6). It is contended that ecological concerns should be focused on through all channels of education including language learning.

Li (2013) suggests that language learning is also a key field where students can be equipped with environmental education. Babcook (1993) states that effective language learning includes both the "learning of the micro and macro skills acquired into appropriate expressions of communication; and, environmental issues are rich subject matters of communication" (quoted in Nkwetisama, 2011, p. 112). Bhusal (2021) comments that the integration of environmental education into language teaching is crucial as language learning not only demands the students to use a language but to use it for functional purposes. Thus, the incorporation of environmental concerns in English language teaching, in theory, and practice, can produce not only better language users but also informed critical thinkers. Tang (2009) stresses

that through the incorporation of environmental education into EFL/ESL classrooms, students get a better understanding of global ecological crises and thus can be involved in the process of improvement. Nkwetisama (2021) comments that English language teaching is an apt field to include environmental concerns to produce problem solvers as these ecological issues are the prime concern of human survival at the moment. Al-Jamal and Al-Omari (2014) consider that English language teaching should not only be focused on improving linguistic, and socio-cultural competence but also should focus to make the learners aware of crucial global issues like ecological crises.

Considering the context of the present study, i.e. Saudi Arabia, it is commendable that many beneficial policies have been documented to protect the environment. Vision 2030, Saudi Green Initiative, and many other inspiring policy documents in the Kingdom have emphasized the need to focus the environmental concerns with priorities. Hameed et al. (2021) report that SGI is a kind of game changer for the Kingdom to achieve environmental sustainability goals, which will be fruitful not only for the local but also for the global region. The Saudi Vision (2030) also considers environmental education substantial to realize its goals (Allmnakrah & Evers, 2020). The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia has also enlisted environmental protection as an important sustainable goal. According to a report by Arab Forum for Environment and Development (2019), there are a great number of academic programs in GCC countries including Saudi Arabia that focus the environmental education through various channels. As an essential part of the Green Initiative "to spread environmental knowledge in Saudi Arabia, the General Authority of Meteorology and Environmental Protection (GAMEP) launched a program to promote environmental education in pre-university educational institutions in 2008" (Al-Khouli, 2019, p. 126). This program, named "My Environment, My Life", aims to promote awareness as well as practical skills to protect the environment through education (Al-Khouli, 2019). Furthermore, the Ministry of Education (Saudi Arabia) has also identified environment-related education as an important goal of learning (2021); the following sustainable goals are related to environmental education: "Increasing intellectual and scientific production to offset natural resource consumption; Conserving the environment and natural resources to ensure their availability for future generations, including climate change management and tackling natural environment decline" (Ministry of Education, 2021).

However, contemporary research believes that such education cannot be detached from other learning materials moreover science is not the only subject that can assist in this process. Many researchers argue that environmental education can be integrated into the English language learning/ teaching process as it is a global language that has deep connections with society's beliefs and practices (Tang, 2009; Bowden, 2010; Zygmunt, 2016; Nkwetisama, 2021). In this regard, an English language teaching portal can be an effective tool to create awareness of ecological problems. The question is, however, how far the current English language teaching curriculum and practices in the Saudi context contribute to environmental education. This would be explored in the present research. The research aims:

- To explore the English language teachers' practices of creating ecological awareness through textual and non-textual materials and methods
- To record the EL teachers' perceptions regarding environmental education in the ELT classrooms
- To provide valuable suggestions

The study is significant to evaluate the current ELT practices and to further suggest the ways environmental education can be promoted in the Kingdom, in line with UN sustainable development goals (2015- environmental sustainability), Paris Agreement on climate change (2015), Vision 2030, and Saudi Green Initiative (2021). The research is further significant in multiple ways. Firstly, it will probe deeply into the English language teaching system in the Kingdom to examine the materials and methods, through which environmental awareness is made part of the education system. Secondly, it would provide suggestions on how to address the gap (if present) in contemporary educational policies. Thirdly, it would recommend useful practices that can be implemented to create awareness of the various current ecological problems like climate change, global warming, etc. Finally, the suggestions provided can aid the Kingdom to achieve its green goals efficiently in line with UN sustainable development goals (2015).

In general, the study aims to focus on community awareness of environmental issues, and activities through English language teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Education is not just a tool for filling learners with static facts and figures but to equip them with skills and strategies desirable to resolve twenty-first-century complications. Thus, it is imperious for them to be aware of the ecological issues and to ponder probable solutions, as it is one of the paramount issues that the human race is facing at present. No doubt, the anthropocentric attitudes of humans eventually have caused the world to face such climatic calamities, where survival has become a challenge. Thus, the need of the time is to prepare our future generations ready to handle this hurdle and education is the aptest for the purpose. Environmental education, as discussed above is a learning process that facilitates the learners to understand the significance of environment and environment-friendly activities. In addition, it assists to create awareness among the communities regarding what can be done to protect our natural habitat along with the other living species. The concept of environmental education can be based on the theories of social constructivism and transformative learning. The philosophy of social constructivism holds that knowledge is constructed socially through interactions between people and the environment. Santorck (2001) opines that learners learn well when they construct the knowledge themselves; thus by creating knowledge about the environment they

construct reality. Morin (2002; cited in Giron et al., 2012) suggests that environmental education when connected with the constructivist approach establishes a paradigm in which learners can be assisted to rebuild the ways humans think and act toward nature. In addition, considering environmental crises "as a matter of knowledge" (Giron et al., 2012, p. 142), it can be the knowledge only that needs to be transformed. This is what links environmental education to the underpinnings of transformative learning. At the core of Transformative learning theory lies self-study with critical reflection and appraisal of experiences, coupled with the interpretation and re-interpretation of these experiences (Cimen & Yılmaz, 2014). Cimen and Yilmaz (2014) further relate the transformative notion to environmental education as they stress that transformative philosophy holds the idea that people's attributes can be changed and their views on life and experiences can also be re-framed. Thus, they argue that a shift of this kind is thought to possibly lead to the hope of environmental recovery by transforming people's attitudes, dogmas, knowledge, conduct, and mindset toward the environment (Cimen & Yılmaz, 2014).

The present study links environmental education with the domain of English language teaching (ELT), thus it has to connect theories of constructivist and transformative learning with language teaching/learning. Kwee (2021) suggests that bringing education for sustainable development (where environmental education is a significant part) into the curriculum of English teaching is a reassurance of the transformative learning process. He has not precisely connected it to any theoretical stance however the ideas used to connect environmental education with ELT primarily encourage the concept of transformative learning. Moreover, when Fuente (2022) cites Pradanos (2015) "making an effort to learn to unlearn" (p. 3) to claim that connecting sustainability education (including environmental sustainability) to English classrooms is an act of construction, can be easily considered as evidence to constructivist approach. Bowden's statement: "ELT teachers and learners need to engage with the wider society in exploring, developing and manifesting sustainability values, enabling them to act as agents for change" (2010, p. 21) also endorses the fact that the transformative learning model can easily bridge the theoretical gap between two domains. However, In this regard, Bhusal (2021) comes up with an experiential learning theory that believes in learning by doing which means learners learn new things by getting experience or by doing new things. He explains that English language teachers can design activities and tasks that can be based on environmental topics and thus will help the learners to experience the relevant knowledge. The outcome can be again the transformation of old knowledge about the environment or the construction of new knowledge about the environment. Thus, it can be argued that all three theories can be used to connect ELT with environmental education. The connection can be presented as follows:
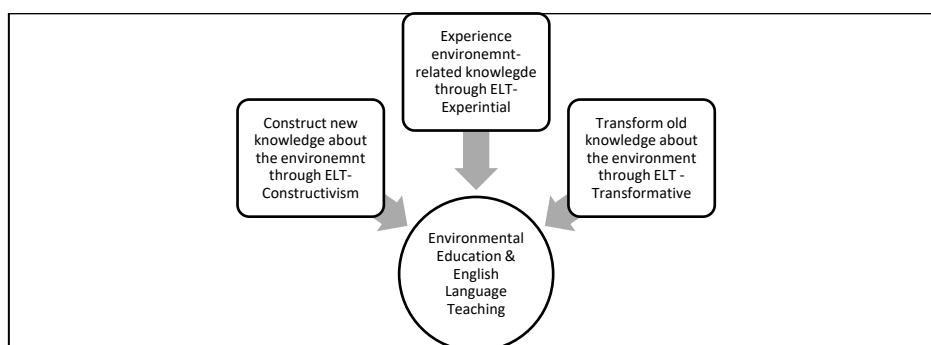
Figure 1. Theoretical Paradigm to Connect ELT With Environmental Education (Own Source)

In the teaching-learning process, teachers are one of the central figures that can have deep impacts on the whole scholastic progression. Said et al. (2003) comment that "throughout the course of formal education, teachers play a vital role in shaping the attitudes of children" (p. 306). So when ELT is connected with environmental education, it is the teachers who get an important standing to promote or demote the required ecological awareness. For this purpose, their knowledge, beliefs, perceptions, actions, practices everything matter. Zachariou et al. (2017) argue that the environmental attitudes of the teachers are directly connected to their actions and decisions to participate in environmental instruction. They further assert that for this purpose the teachers must have sufficient knowledge as well about the environmental issues, that should be provided to them during the training programs (Zachariou et al., 2017). UNESCO (2005) also considers the teachers' role as pivotal to promoting education for sustainable development, where environmental concerns are also a part. It can be concluded that once they have enough knowledge and a positive attitude toward ecological concerns, it would be reflected in their teaching practices. In relation to ELT, Fuente (2022) has identified several methodologies like content-based instruction, task-based language teaching, community language learning, etc. that can be effectively used by English language teachers to inculcate environmental education into their curriculum and practices. He asserts that in ELT classrooms "pedagogically, the curriculum needs to be informed by constructivist approaches to learning—pedagogies like problem-solving or community engagement that emphasize collaborative, participatory learning, balance content-language instruction, and get learners to their highest possible levels of linguistic development (Fuente, 2022, p. 4).

There are several studies that have focused on the concepts of ELT and environmental education from different perspectives. For example, Said et al. (2003) conducted a study to check the perceptions of Malaysian school teachers

regarding the incorporation of environmental education into their teaching practices and found a huge gap. Cantrell (2009) surveyed schools in California to examine the perceptions and practices of the teachers and found a huge disparity. He reported that the teachers had not sufficient knowledge of the environment and were also not interested to teach it in their classroom practices. A study by Gursoy and Saglam (2011) focused on the perceptions of EL teachers in Turkish schools regarding the incorporation of environmental education into their curriculum and practices. The findings revealed that they have mildly positive attitudes towards this integration but often neglected it in the actual practices. Turkoglu (2019) found that Turkish teachers had positive attitudes toward integrating environmental issues into their teaching, but did not have sufficient knowledge and confidence in doing so. Bekteshi and Xhaferi (2020) investigated the English teachers in Kosovo to examine their conceptions of environmental education through ELT classrooms. They reported that goals related to the planet (environment) were least prominent in their concerns. In fact, the teachers agreed that it was essential to focus on people and profit (social and economic sustainability) but not environmental sustainability. A study conducted by Petkou et al. (2021) in Greece surveyed English language teachers to inspect their attitudes and opinions about environmental education. The results exposed that the majority of the participants professed environmental education as an imperative topic to be used for teaching in English language classrooms, but lacked ample training and resources to effectually incorporate it into their actual practices. Likewise, the study established that most participants supposed that environmental education should be assimilated into all levels of instruction, from basic to advanced levels. Overall, these studies suggest that while English language educators recognize the significance of environmental education in their teaching, they lack adequate resources and training to effectively integrate it into their classrooms. This highlights the need for more research and educational initiatives to provide support for these teachers to help them incorporate meaningful lessons about sustainability into their instruction.

Within the Saudi context, few studies are available concerning sustainability education (where environmental education is just a part). For example, Aldosary (2016) studied the public educational system of Saudi Arabia for environmental education and found a huge disparity. According to his findings, some of the factors like ecosystem, biodiversity, soil, and water are introduced in the form of some chapters in Science but nothing was relevant to pollution, climate change, energy, etc. Moreover, he claimed that all education was based on mere concepts and nothing was in the form of activities and practice (Aldosary, 2016). Alkhayal et al. (2019) examined the awareness level of Saudi faculty members at the Higher education level regarding sustainability and suggested that they can be engaged in the process to achieve the goals of ESD. Essa and Harvey (2022) studied Saudi governmental policy documents and media discourse for the possible integration of Education for sustainable development (ESD). Their findings indicated that there is vagueness in this regard as no actions or strategies were available in the selected data (Essa & Harvey, 2022). There is no such research available that caters to analyzing the environmental education connection with English language teachers' perceptions within the Saudi context. The present research aims to fill the gap.

III. METHODOLOGY

The research used a mix-method research design as both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis tools will be in use at different stages of the research. Mix-method research provides a holistic picture of phenomena by adding both statistical data as well as comprehensive interpretation. As per the design, the research is exploratory in nature as it aims to investigate and explore English Language teachers' perceptions and practices regarding environmental education. This is carried out through the survey research method. The survey was conducted at two levels. At the first level, the questionnaire (prepared through a Google survey form) was distributed using electronic means (mainly through LinkedIn, Emails, and WhatsApp) among the desired population. Whereas, for the second phase, online interviews were conducted (via Zoom) with the selected population.

The sample population of the study was comprised of English language teachers at the university level from the selected Saudi universities. The questionnaire was distributed among several EL teachers in various Saudi universities, however, 66 responses were received back, from the following universities:

- Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University
- Prince Sultan University
- Ummul-Qura university
- Arab Open University
- Majmaah university

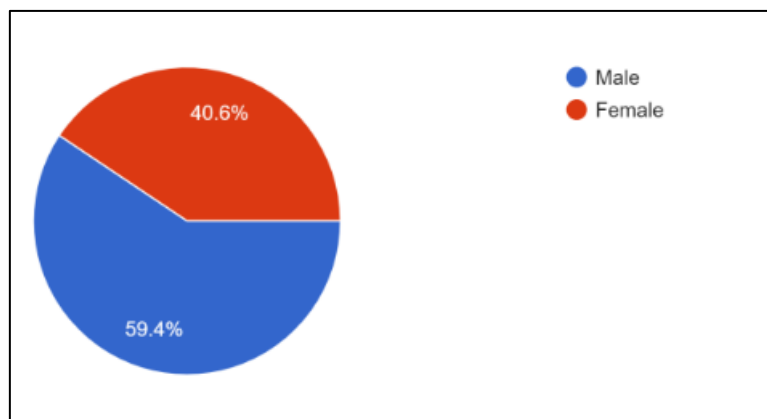The gender ratio of the participants was as follows:

Figure 2. Gender Ratio of the Sample Population

As gender is not a variable for the present study, thus all responses were included for the data analysis purpose. Interestingly, all of the participants had a minimum of more than five years experience of in teaching English (see Figure 3 below).
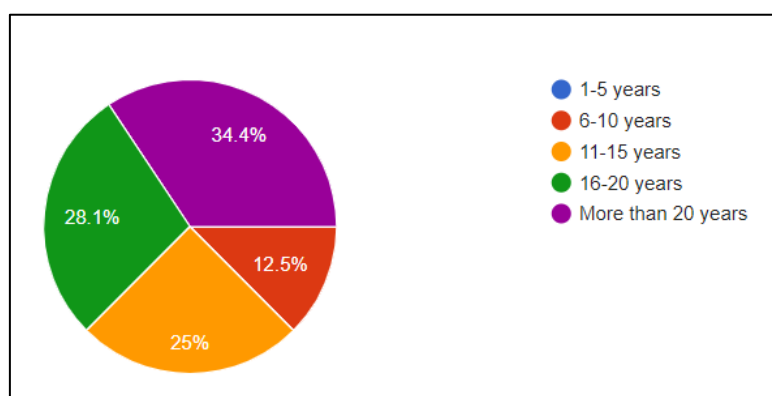

Figure 3. Teaching Experience (in Years) of the Participants

Furthermore, their level of education was from graduate (25%) to post-graduate levels (75%). For the interview purpose, ten teachers (5 males and 5 females) were selected using the convenient sampling method.

The following research instruments were used:

1. Questionnaire
2. Interview

The first instrument is a close-ended questionnaire, comprised of close-ended questions. The questions are related to teachers' general viewpoints about environmental education, its importance in the curriculum, the usage of such materials to raise awareness among their students, and their opinions and propositions. The questionnaire was adapted from Cantrell (2009) which he used to study High school teachers in California. The questionnaire is comprised of four parts. The first part is related to assessing the general knowledge of the population regarding the environment (comprised of ten multiple-choice questions). It contains questions regarding both the general environment and the local US environment. The second part comprises questions to evaluate the perceptions of the teachers towards environmental education and its inclusion in their classrooms. The third part is designed to examine their practices and the final part is formulated to gather demographic information. Moreover, the second and the third parts were comprised of Likert scale questions (with options ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree). For this study, the questions in the first part were completely replaced by the questions related to the local Saudi environment (context of the study), whereas for the remaining parts, the majority of the questions were included with partial changes. The reason for making changes in the second and third parts was mainly because the original study (from where the questionnaire was adapted) was about the inclusion of environmental education into the general curriculum and not specific to any domain (like ELT in the present study). Moreover, the context was also changed as per the requirements. It is to be noted, that level of questions in the first part was also simpler than the original questionnaire as the selected participants of the present study has specializations in English and they had gained their degrees in an era when environmental knowledge was not much of the concern, both theoretically and practically. Some of the questions were also simplified during the validation stage. As the questionnaire's reliability was already verified, thus face validity was considered only (because of some changes). The face validity was checked by three experts in the field and one of them suggested a few minor changes that were incorporated after discussion with other experts. The findings of the questionnaire were analyzed and presented using statistical procedures (as the questionnaire was mainly comprised of close-ended questions). The

second instrument was a semi-structured interview used with a focus group of teachers (only 8 teachers were interviewed as it was based on open-ended questions). These questions were based to know the perspectives of teachers concerning environmental education and the practices they use to integrate such material into their teaching activities. This part also aimed to collect their suggestions for the purpose. The interviews were recorded and later transcribed. The findings were analyzed through a qualitative content-analysis procedure.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first phase of the study is based on a survey questionnaire. The findings are presented below in three main categories: environmental knowledge, attitudes, and practices (As per the three sections of the questionnaire).

The first part is related to environmental knowledge. As per the questionnaire, there was a total of ten questions. 5 questions were related to the local context i.e. Saudi environment (for example, environment, flora, fauna, etc.) whereas 5 questions were related to general environment-related topics (like pollution, trees, endangered species, etc.) Table 1 below presents the statistical results of this part in graphical format (the data for the graph is available in appendix c).
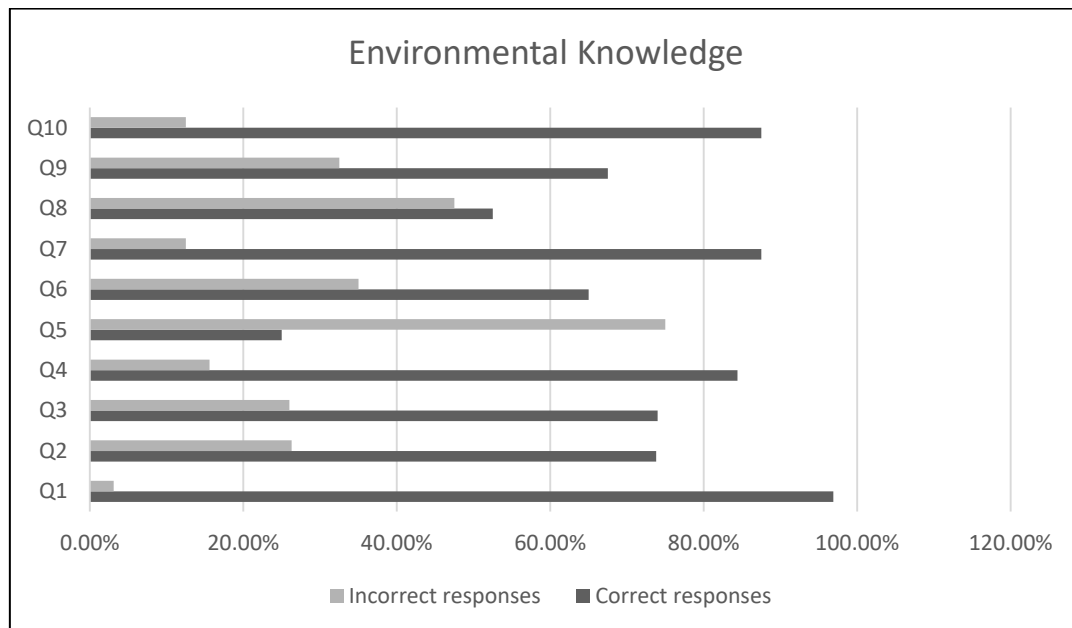
Figure 4. Environmental Knowledge of the Participants

The results of this part reveal that the majority of the teachers had good knowledge about the environment. The response percentage reveals that a great number of questions were answered correctly. In the part related to the Saudi environment, the majority of the respondents provided correct answers that demonstrated their knowledge about the local environment, whereas, in the second part, they comparatively showed little less competence. Overall, the findings expose their general understanding of the environment and environmental issues (for example some questions were related to their idea of pollution, its cause, and its impacts; another question was asked about extinct animals, etc.). Nkwetisama (2011) considers such knowledge valuable to solve contemporary ecological problems. In this regard, the findings expose that English teachers in Saudi universities have apt knowledge of the field. As awareness of environmental issues is the first step to the solution (Said et al., 2003), it can be commented that teachers with such knowledge would be valuable in the long run to stimulate ESD in general and environmental sustainability in particular.

The second part is concerning the attitudes and concerns of the teachers towards the inclusion of environmental education into English language pedagogy. This section was comprised of Likert scale values (from strongly disagree to strongly agree). To get a clear picture of the findings neutral values are ignored whereas strongly disagree-disagree and strongly agree-agree are calculated as single values.

Results have been presented in Table 1 below:

TABLE 1
ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Statement	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Environmental education is an important curriculum to teach in Saudi Arabia	18.8%	9.4%	21.9%	31.3%	18.8%
2. Environmental education can provide valuable life skills, for example, decision-making, problem-solving, etc.	25%	9.4%	15.6%	37.5%	12.5%
3. Training can help me further to incorporate environmental education in ELT.	13.1%	12.5%	43.1%	18.1%	13.1%
4. Education is the best way to help change behavior towards the environment.	21.9%	15.6%	12.5%	15.6%	34.4%
5. Environmental education is promoted in my institution.	15.6%	25.6%	18%	31.4%	9.4%
6. Teacher training in the environmental education-related curriculum would be valuable to me.	18.8%	18.1%	22.5%	31.3%	9.4%
7. I believe that teaching environmental education is important in all disciplines (including English).	25%	9.4%	9.4%	25%	31.3%
8. I believe it is important to integrate environmental concepts and issues into my English language teaching.	28.1%	9.4%	21.9%	18.8%	21.9%
9. I am knowledgeable about local and national environmental issues and can use them in my English classrooms.	12.5%	9.4%	25%	37.5%	15.6%
10. I would feel comfortable teaching a short unit on environmental education if given materials that fit my curricular area.	15.6%	21.9%	22.5%	18.1%	21.9%

The ten questions in this part were categorized as per the following themes: the teachers' perceptions of environmental education, and its capacity to transfer some life-long skills (for a better natural surrounding); the teachers' perceptions of institutional role in the preferment of such education; their willingness to get proper training for the purpose (i.e. to integrate environmental education in English language pedagogy); and finally their attitude towards such inclusion.

According to Table 1, 50.1% of the participants agree that environmental education can be an effective curriculum, whereas 28.2% disagree. This shows quite a positive attitude of the teachers towards the addition of environmental education into the university-level curriculum. In addition, they consider such education essential to obtain lifelong skills (50% agree). This reflects again their optimistic attitude, which is encouraging as Cantrell (2009) comments that if the teachers have a positive attitude towards a subject, it means that they are willing to cater to it in their teaching practices. Similarly, the majority of the participants (50% agree- 37.5% disagree- 12.5% neutral) approve that such education is important to bring a healthy change in the environment.

Regarding the question that environmental education is promoted by my institution, 40.8% agree whereas 41.2% disagree. Hence, there is no clarity regarding the role of institutions, and needs to be explored further in future research.

As the willingness of the teachers is concerned regarding the possible relevant training provision, 40.7% population agrees, and 36.9% disagree with one question. Whereas for another similar question, 31.2% agree, 25.6% disagree and 43.1% are neutral (not clear or not interested). Similarly, 40% agree to teach the relevant material in their English classrooms (that can be only suggested through training) and 37.5 % disagree. This shows they have mixed feelings regarding the provision of any relevant training. It is quite opposite to their positive beliefs towards environmental education, its importance, and its inclusion in the curriculum (as discussed above), and at the same time not ready to receive any training for the purpose.

Finally, as their overall attitude is concerned with the inclusion of environmental education specifically in ELT classrooms, they have a close range of agreement and disagreement. It is an interesting situation as 40.7% agree to include it in their ELT classrooms and 37.5% disagree. If we compare it with the results of the first statement, findings show that they are positive toward inclusion in the general curriculum but not much positive for ELT classrooms.

Overall, the findings of this section confirm that teachers have to some extent positive perceptions of environmental education and its possible inclusion in their materials and practices. Such concerns are quite contrary to the findings of Bekteshi and Xhaferi (2020) where teachers in Kosovo schools did not show any positive concerns in this regard. Zachariou et al. (2017) also comment that positive attitudes of the teachers are critical to obtaining environmental sustainability goals as desired by UNESCO (2005).

The third section of the questionnaire was designed to examine the practices of the participant ELT teachers in the selected Saudi universities. In this regard, all ten questions can be divided into two main categories: what they can do and what they do. What they can do include depicts their potential to integrate environmental education into their English pedagogy and what they do displays their present-day routines in this regard. To get a clear depiction of the findings neutral values are disregarded while strongly agree-agree and strongly disagree-disagree are considered solitary values. The following tables 2 and 3 present the values as obtained during the study, while Figure 3 illustrates the overall scenario.

TABLE 2
TEACHING PRACTICES AS PER THE PARTICIPANTS' DATA

What teachers do					
Statement	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I am not interested in teaching about the environment.	28.1%	21.9%	34.4%	6.3%	9.4%
2. I only teach what is included in the state standards for my ELT curriculum.	18.8%	9.4%	43.8%	21.9%	6.3%
3. A goal of my teaching is to increase students' level of environmental responsibility.	9.4%	12.5%	28.1%	43.8%	6.3%
4. I help students develop a set of values and feelings of concern for the environment through some of the activities/ assignments that I assign.	12.5%	12.5%	28.1%	34.4%	12.5%
5. I sometimes provide students with opportunities to gain actual experience in resolving environmental issues.	9.4%	21.9%	31.3%	34.4%	3.1%
6. I try to spend some percentage of my instructional time weekly or monthly on environmental education.	6.3%	31.3%	37.5%	18.8%	6.3%
7. There are often some environmental-related topics/ materials in ELT materials that I always focus on.	9.4%	9.4%	34.4%	40.6%	6.3%

TABLE 3
TEACHING PRACTICES THAT CAN BE CONSIDERED ACCORDING TO PARTICIPANTS

What teachers do					
Statement	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Environmental education can be taught within almost any curriculum, including ELT.	6.3%	25%	28.1%	18.8%	21.9%
2. I can incorporate the study of environmental concepts and issues into my English language classroom, in direct or indirect ways.	9.4%	12.5%	34.4%	31.3%	12.5%
3. I am good at incorporating environmental concepts into exercise/ exam questions, in indirect ways.	0%	28.2%	43.1%	25%	3.1%

For Tables 2 and 3, the columns for the neutral option are unavoidable as values for the majority of the statements are often higher than the other options (within the range of a minimum of 28% and a maximum of 43%). It means for what teachers do and can do regarding environmental education in their ELT practices, they are either not sure or do not want to reveal it (opting for neutral). On the other hand, teachers agree or disagree on various statements with almost similar percentages which means that the situation is not encouraging. Said et al. (2003) state that without teachers' participation in the process, the implementation of the environmental sustainability awareness program is merely a dream. Thus, the above data is quite alarming in the sense that teachers are unable to consider the urgency of the matter and are not much ready in this regard.

The second phase of the study is based on the focus group interviews conducted with eight faculty members. There were only five open-ended questions aimed to collect details of respondents' perceptions, practices, and suggestions if provided. The results yielded can be summarized as following Figure 5.

Perceptions	Practices	Suggestions
• Mildly positive attitudes • Uncertain of the integration process • Fears of implementation • Fear of additonal tasks • Fear of time management • Consider environemtnal topics as valuable informative pieces • Aware of environemtnal issues and its importance	• No practical implementation previoulsy by majority • Little concentration on environemntal topics • No clarity about the practical part • Environemntal topics provided in books are treated as regular content • Main focus remians on language and not the content	• Practical training is needed for the teachers to how to integrate ELT and environemtnal education • Need suggestions of the ELT teaching methods that promote such learning • Must be made crucial part of curriculum due to environmental emergency • Some sample activities are needed to understand the process • Can be beneficial in the long run, if implemented carefully • Some workshops are needed to learn about the process of integration

Figure 5. Summary of Interview Responses

The findings of this section again divulge a dispiriting attitude of the ELT teachers as they have a lot of reservations regarding the inclusion of environmental education in their curriculum and classes. At the same time, they do

comprehend the significance of such education. This is not a satisfactory situation as according to UNESCO (2005), teachers are a critical part of environmental sustainability awareness and implementation processes. The findings are in line with Bekteshi and Xhaferi (2020) who observed similar attitudes among Kosovo school teachers. It is the need of the time to understand that language teaching in today's world is not merely limited to skills transfer rather content is an integral part of it. Nkwetisama (2021) that in the present situation inclusion of environmental-issues related content in English language classrooms is an effective way to achieve a better world.

The second set of questions was related to inquiry about the actual practices of the teachers. This part exposes a complete absence of such environmental-related content, practices, tasks, and projects in the actual teaching practices, except for some topics which are part of the textbooks. However, such texts are also taught as regular materials with no emphasis on highlighting environmental issues or problems. According to the teachers, they did not have the proper training for the purpose.

The final question asked the participants about their suggestions to implement environmental education in language classrooms. Their major recommendation was to arrange the workshops for the training purpose. The teachers were concerned that it would not be beneficial until they would not be trained for this purpose. They suggested that English language teachers must be made aware of the strategies and techniques that could help them to integrate environmental education into ELT pedagogy.

The overall findings of this study reveal that the current ELT pedagogy in the Kingdom is not sufficient to meet the needs of the environmental crises in the present times. In line with UNESCO's (2005) agenda, the curriculum and practices need revision.

V. Conclusion

This research aimed to collect and analyze the perceptions and practices of English language teachers in Saudi universities concerning the integration of environmental education. For this purpose, a mixed-method research design was used employing both quantitative and qualitative strategies to collect and analyze data. The main instruments of the study were a close-ended questionnaire and an open-ended interview. The questionnaire was distributed through an online survey form, whereas an interview was conducted with a limited number of available university teachers. The results of the study were not satisfactory in line with UNESCO's sustainable development goals and in particular the environment-related goals. The findings of the questionnaire part expose the fact that teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of environmental education into English language pedagogy are not satisfactory (as per part 2 results of the questionnaire), though they have very good knowledge about environmental issues and topics (according to part 1 results). Moreover, an analysis of their practices in part 3 of the questionnaire again exposes distressing results where they admit that they have never paid attention to environmental issues, topics, or concerns in particular. In addition, such topics (if a part of their textual materials) were also dealt with no proper attention to highlight the content. Concerning the interview data, teachers more acquiescently acknowledged that they had never concentrated on environmental education in their ELT practices and they also articulated qualms like they might not have time and training for this purpose.

The contemporary situation around the world concerning environmental catastrophes and climate issues has created uncertainties about an indefensible future for the coming generations. This concern has been enunciated on several local and global platforms around the world. It is a critical moment where all stakeholders including the educationists have to play their part to protect the environment and promise a sustainable future. According to a recent report by UNESCO ("UNESCO Urges Making Environmental Education a Core Curriculum Component in All Countries by 2025", 2021), environmental education must be entertained as a core curriculum component of academia. In this regard, English language teaching is an apt channel as well to endorse such education through indirect means. There is no doubt that the main purpose of language teaching curriculum is the language but if such content is updated with contemporary global crises, it would help the world to achieve its sustainable goals. It is what is also suggested by many researchers like Fuente (2022), Kwee (2021), Bowden (2010), etc. Thus, the present study suggests that English language teaching should be linked to environmental education from various perspectives like adding environment-related content for reading and listening purposes, discussing such issues in speaking and writing classes, giving projects related to highlighting environment protection in various skills classes, etc. This would serve a dual purpose. On one hand, it would definitely keep the focus on language skills but on the other hand, essential environmental education would also reach to masses. The study also suggests that teachers should also be trained for this purpose as they have expressed fears of lacking the required knowledge and skills for this purpose.

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Empowering Learners With Autonomous Learning Strategies in EFL Classroom Through Extensive Reading Strategy Training

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the effects of extensive reading strategy training (ERST) on autonomous learning strategies (ALSs) that English language learners use in an EFL context. Sixty-one undergraduate first-year social science university students participated in the study. These samples were assigned to two modalities: a control group, which involved 31 students, and an experimental group, which involved 30 students. During the experiment, the participants in the control group took only the institute's regular communicative English language course, and the participants in the experimental group received ERST intervention in addition to the existing procedures of the communicative English language course. The intervention focused on extensive reading strategies training integrated with learner autonomy framework to induce them to work with ALSs. To conduct the study, the current researcher employed the concurrent triangulation design and collected the data within ten week-period via questionnaire and interview designed for comparable groups. By controlling for any pre-existing differences and analyzing the quantitative data, the current researcher employed one-way ANCOVA and analyzed the interview data thematically. Finally, the study reveals the potential of ERST for increasing ALSs used by EFL learners and affords practical guidelines to language teachers on how to incorporate ERST into EFL classrooms.

Index Terms—autonomous learning strategies, ERST, language learner autonomy, reader autonomy

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learner autonomy is a type of LA that develops a universal human capacity and drive (Little et al., 2017). According to this perspective, educational strategies for LA need enhancement since they address the human constitution rather than technical or political imperatives (Benson, 1997). The psychologist Phillida (1998) captured this constitution and stated that when life is seen even from the babies' points of view, it assures that human beings struggle for the right that nature gives them. They usually refuse to do what others ask them to do if they do not like it. They do not always need assistance and want to be controlled by others. Boys and girls express their active presence, willful agency, demands, and protests in vivid ways from an early age because they are cognitively and emotionally independent. No one can avoid being autonomous in this fundamental, biologically determined sense because their perception of and response to the world around them is their own alone (Little et al., 2017). This feeling may help to explain why autonomy also appears to be a fundamental behavioral drive and emotional desire.

Hart (2002) distinguishes between reactive and proactive degrees of LA in a reading classroom. Students are guided to access the target language at the reactive level by setting reading goals and making a plan to get there. They must take charge of their reading-based learning at the proactive level, where the goal is to develop LA, which is the essential indicator of successful learning and instruction (Jaisook & Thirawisit, 2015).

Previous scholars in the field of second/foreign language teaching and learning have raised the vital role that extensive reading plays in cultivating autonomous learners in language classrooms. Widespread study evidence and common sense observation support the numerous advantages of ER (Waring, 2006). Krashen's (2004) 'The Power of Reading' makes passionate arguments in favor of reading. Scholars also tried to put pre-requisites to incorporate ER effectively in language classrooms. For instance, Jaisook and Thirawist (2015) argue that three key pedagogies should be taken into account when ER is used to promote LA in a language classroom: student involvement in their learning process, student reflection on their learning process, and proper target-language use.

Extensive reading gives the learners freedom to choose reading resources and activities according to their interests and language ability, so it minimizes the direct interference of teachers and paves the way for reader autonomy. From the general features of ER, one can understand that the students use strategies by themselves to understand the materials

they read. Since students use their full autonomy and achieve the intended effect through these internally derived strategies, they are called autonomous learning strategies (ALSs) (Wang, 2010). They get autonomy, interest, initiation, hope, and success from them. To this end, ER plays a crucial role, so the current researcher has decided to use ERST as an independent asset to empower EFL/SL learners with ALSs.

Firstly, the students are engaged in building a positive attitude toward their reading as the concern of affective strategy. It is the green card that allows them to start their action. ER also trains the students to manage their work appropriately since their teachers are not always there to help them. The students plan, monitor, and evaluate their work through a metacognitive strategy. This strategy has similar features to learner autonomy, and it is the road map that guides how the journey starts, passing through many ups and downs and getting into the attempted destiny. But all these have no value without the fuel that moves the motor towards the goal - the cognitive strategy which activates the students' knowledge and changes every effort to success. And finally, all these processes are performed within the context of ER.

Although scholars widely discussed the importance of extensive reading and its integrative nature with LA in ESL and EFL classrooms in a foreign context, it is not practically used in Ethiopian EFL classes. For instance, at Wollega University, ER is not included or integrated with any English courses given at the University. Furthermore, from the lower classes to the high schools in Ethiopia, ER is not included in any English language textbooks as an experience lesson for the students. Therefore, testing the role of ER in empowering learners with ALSs to take charge of their learning in the context of university (undergraduate) education in Ethiopia is the main objective of the current study.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Extensive Reading

Unwaveringly, gaining acknowledgment of the existence, extensive reading's avail becomes the uncontroversial immense in second language theory. Because of the advantages extensive reading has for language learning, educators who have the power to influence the foreign language teaching-learning sector are constantly seeking for ways to increase language proficiency (Son, 2017). Although students read extensively for pleasure, numerous studies have shown its positive effects on language development and LA advancement (Jaisook & Thirawisit, 2015). To teach students with varying degrees of competence in their courses, teachers frequently rely on the offered curriculum and other requirements (Mermelstein, 2015). However, teaching the same topic in the same classroom with different learners caused issues. Since it gives students the opportunity to choose how they can succeed as language learners with their differences in the same language learning classroom, the scholars recommended ER as an alternate option to the conventional teacher-centered manner of teaching (Yenenesh et al., 2023).

As Yenenesh et al. (2023) continued stating, an extensive reading holds the conviction that the learner's active engagement plays an important role in the process of learning, which is consistent with the concept of social constructivism. The main goal of integrating participatory activities in ER classes is to discuss widely what they have understood from their reading (Channuan, 2012). Additionally, Benson (2001) stated that when students are actively involved in decisions on the course's content and methodology, learning will be at its most effective. Especially in EFL settings, when exposure to the target language is restricted, ER may assist second language learners in becoming more independent language learners. The students can recognize the time constraint for teachers to contact each student in the classroom and make an effort to practice the language through extensive reading.

Recently, Chiu-Kuei (2015) defined the term extensive reading as reading longer passages just for pleasure in simplified language forms, and the purpose was determined as comprehending the general meaning and being able to pursue it to the end without the intention of focusing on grammatical and lexical components. Thus, Aliponga (2013) believes that in a second or foreign language learning environment, students should be exposed to large quantities of target language input, which is most successfully achieved through ER.

B. Autonomous Learning Strategies

The role of the learner has received lots of attention because of the shifting perspectives in the field of English language teaching over the past few decades (Tudor, 1993). In other words, language teachers began to organize the classroom around the student's needs, preferences, and learning styles. This new perspective of learner-centeredness has changed the roles of learners and teachers and created an autonomous learning environment in the classroom. The idea of learner-centered education sees teaching and learning languages as a collaborative process between teachers and students rather than as a collection of rules that teachers must impart to their charges (Chernet, 2019).

Having a sense of self-fulfillment requires feeling autonomous or having the ability to make decisions. It also depends on meeting two other needs: feeling competent, or having the ability to face and overcome "optimal challenges," and feeling "connected with others while being effective and autonomous," according to American social psychologist Deci (1971). According to this theory of human motivation, the freedom that autonomy gives is both confirmed and constrained by our relatedness because our independent actions come from our feeling of self (Yenenesh et al., 2023).

If students get training to be more effective users of their combination of strategies throughout the entire learning process, they learn better. Since experienced learners can systematically solve language-learning problems and are

typically skilled in choosing appropriate learning strategies to complete a language-learning task, we as teachers must teach our students different learning strategies based on the cognition approach (Kutluturk & Yumru, 2017). Experienced learners can systematically solve language-learning problems and are usually skilled in selecting appropriate learning strategies to complete a language-learning task (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Additionally, according to Cohen (1998), strategy training encourages students to look for shortcuts to success, which improves LA and self-regulated learning. It encourages students to put their efforts toward learning goals. According to Cohen, another goal of strategy training is to promote autonomous learning by allowing students more freedom to choose and employ the learning strategies that are best for them without the guidance of language teachers.

Strategies are the procedures that entail decision-making and procedural knowledge on the best course of action that the student will need to select to cope with a task in the order of the preceding notions (Mayor et al., 1993). To learn and subsequently develop competencies, they rely on the student's context and the features of the particular learning experience. The student can build self-learning through the appropriate application of these tactics. The learning process will be under the control and self-regulation of the student, resulting in the acquisition of competencies. To do this, the students must master a diverse range of strategies they choose based on their features.

The ALSs suggested by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and mentioned in Wang (2010) have been used for this investigation. They distinguish between three types of autonomous learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and social mediation/affective. While reading, recalling, taking notes, and asking questions are cognitive strategies, planning the learning, gathering data, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, learning reflection, and organizing the person's learning file are metacognitive strategies. The creation of group rules, cooperation with classmates, good communication, and assistance in evaluating their work are all examples of social mediation/affective conduct (Wang, 2010).

Therefore, language teachers are generally advised to explain all of the fundamental principles, positive principles, and specific strategies to utilize the ER strategies into the maximum meaningful levels for learners to transform them into more lifetime, self-governing, strategic, and knowledgeable L2 readers (Wijaya, 2021).

C. Statement of the Problem

In the current language classroom, students are expected to take more ownership of their education, and teachers are expected to support their development within and beyond the classroom. Tesfaye (2009) pointed out that since engaging students to use meaningful learning strategies results in more successful and immediate learning outcomes, students must participate well in cognitive, metacognitive, and affective activities. To participate in all these activities and produce autonomous learners who use their strategies, minimizing the direct interference of teachers is necessary. For instance, Wintek (2012) noted that because it is one of the essential educational objectives, instructors and educators must promote LA.

According to Dunn (1995), students should be encouraged to employ their preferred learning strategies to comprehend what they learn. Cano (2005) also emphasizes the significance of learning styles and strategies to perform better. Therefore, the government of Ethiopia has been engaged in a thorough reform effort to realign its educational system to fit the needs of students since the ratification of its Education and Training Policy (ETP) (MoE, 1994). As the policy's stated goals make clear, students' physical, mental, and problem-solving capacities should be enhanced, and citizens should be encouraged to develop their cognitive, creative, productive, and appreciative potential by appropriately relating education to the environment and societal issues.

As experience reveals, though the current Ethiopian education system motivates EFL students to take part in their learning and to seek out information from a variety of sources, most of them remain passive and dependent and lack the initiative to demonstrate their effort to overcome their learning (Yenenesh et al). Most teachers play the central role and take over all responsibilities of their learners. Even because of the reluctance of the learners to take responsibility, they have already started to think that it is up to the teachers to judge suitable materials, teaching strategies, teaching methods, and other elements students use in the teaching-learning process.

Over the past few decades, scholars conducted classroom experiments to investigate the effectiveness of incorporating ER into EFL/SL classrooms. For instance, Channuan (2012) examined the effect of ER on the reader autonomy of Thai University students and found that students who frequently used the cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies during ER showed improvement in their LA, which would eventually enable language learners to become more autonomous learners.

Do and Dinh (2020) also did a study to determine the possible effects of ER on LA of first-year English language learners and discovered that ER improved the majority of the student's independent learning. They advised teachers to enhance student awareness, foster supportive learning settings, and effectively include ER in instructional activities in order to help students grow their autonomy.

Although there isn't any research specifically on the topic of the current study in the FL setting of an Ethiopian university, Abdurahman (2018), for example, conducted research on the impact of ER on EFL learners' attitudes and reading comprehension. The goal of this study was to summarize two separate investigations into how ER affected Ethiopian second-cycle primary school pupils' attitudes and reading comprehension. Each trial featured an intervention, and a control group was drawn from two intact grade 8 sections. In the first and second studies, the intervention group received ER for six weeks and 12 weeks, respectively. Reading comprehension tests and attitude questionnaires were

used to gather data. When reading time was increased and stimulating activities were added, the intervention group outperformed the control group in reading comprehension and attitudes toward reading.

Even though many attempts have been made to puzzle out the impact of ER on L2/FL development, there is scantiness of investigation into its effect on empowering learners with ALSs. The researcher feels that there is a strong research need for a better understanding of the role of ERST in enhancing ALSs used by Wollega University students. Thus, the study sought to answer the following question:

Does ERST bring a statistically significant difference in the ALSs used by experimental group as compared to control group?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The current study fits under the category of a "concurrent triangulation mixed methods design," in which qualitative data were gathered to be triangulated with the quantitative data. The researcher used this method to confirm, cross-validate, and verify the findings and expand the quantitative data collected (via questionnaire) through open-ended qualitative data collected (via interview) (Creswell, 2012). The pre-intervention questionnaire – Intervention - post-intervention questionnaire design involved two intact EFL classes, one serving as the experimental group which received ERST treatment in addition to the Communicative English Language skills-II course (n = 30), and the other serving as the control group (n = 31) which underwent only the conventional communicative skills-II course was employed.

B. Participants

The data for this study was generated from 61 first-year Wollega University students who were enrolled to take the communicative English Language skills - II Course in the second semester of the 2021/22 academic year, and one TEFL teacher who taught them. One class was taken as the experimental condition with 30 students, and the other as the control condition had 31 students. The students were targeted purposively since the main issue of the current study was their prominent problem needed to be investigated. Additionally, in this stage, students are expected to take charge of their own ER in order to handle their university lessons.

C. Data Collection Instruments

(a). The Questionnaire

In this study, the pre- and post-questionnaire was employed to collect the required data. The questionnaire was adopted from Channuan's (2012) study. It involves 35 questions, and was used to identify ALSs used by the students. In the current study, these strategies are called ALSs since they involve the autonomous learners' strategies such as cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies chosen by students to become independent successful learners. Specifically, ALS include planning, monitoring, evaluating, directing strategies one's own work in addition to the common reading strategies.

The type of the questionnaire was based on 5 points Likert scale in which the subjects rate their degree of opinion on a scale of 1-5. To evaluate the students' degree of coincidence, the 35 items were responded on a scale from 1 to 5. The five points on the scale were: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=uncertain; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree (Mcleod, 2023). At the beginning of the experiment, the pre-questionnaire was filled out by both the control and experimental groups to determine the pre-existing levels of the students before the treatment. In order to determine whether the intervention had an impact on the experimental group, a post-questionnaire was administered to both groups at the end of the intervention. Finally, the results of the pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire scores were analysed using a one-way ANCOVA.

To check the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, before the experiment, the researcher administered it to 25 students who didn't participate in the main study. Using the Cronbach's alpha test to collect and analyse questionnaire data, the internal consistency of the current study was evaluated. The 35 questionnaire items used to measure the learners' ALSs had an alpha coefficient of 0.865. The reliability of the questionnaire was found to be relatively high (Cronbach's ɲ = .85). All the composite reliabilities (CRs) were higher than the recommended value of 0.70 (Wasko & Faraj, 2005). Chronbach's alpha of each construct (cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies) also exceeded the 0.70 threshold. As a result, the questionnaire was found reliable for the intended purpose.

Regarding validity, confirmatory factor analysis gave proof for the three elements underlying ALSs, namely, cognitive strategy, meta-cognitive strategy, and affective strategies, whereas factor analyses supported the construct validity of the questionnaire. Because the average variance extracted (AVE) was greater than 0.50, convergent validity was also considered acceptable. According to the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which was used to assess discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE for the concept was higher than the inter-construct correlation, as shown in the table. The heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations was used to assess the discriminant validity of the data (Henseler et al., 2015), with values below the threshold of 0.90. Therefore, discriminant validity was proven.

(b). The Semi-Structured Interview

The teacher trainer interview also gained professional-judgment-based content validity from a group of three colleagues. The experts agreed to accept all the items with little word and phrase correction.

D. Procedures of the Study

Before the treatment, the teacher trainer had two days of training under the direction of ERST materials created specifically for this purpose after the pre-questionnaire had been administered to the treatment and control groups. ERST material was adapted from Channuan's (2012) study. Additionally, the present researcher modified the content so that it corresponded with the focus of the study. The training's materials were created with the goal of enabling students to read a variety of literature both within and outside of the classroom using appropriate ERSs of their choosing. In order to help the learners become successful autonomous learners, the material for the current study was developed in a way that plays to their psychological and methodological make-up (Yenenesh et al., 2023).

The teacher trainer was informed well about facilitating students' independent work, methods of following up individualized reading classes, maintaining and enhancing students' motivation and confidence, conducting peer work, group work, and discussion classes, and how to use reflective reading journals to take notes while reading. In one section of the control group, on the other hand, it was indicated to the teacher that she should use the conventional approach of teaching and the Course Module as it is without mixing it with the training approach.

In this study, the main focus area is integrating ERST into the conventional Communicative English Language Skills Course-II course to train the experimental group. The activities in conventional Course were shared by both groups. Therefore, in the conventional approach, students often read intensively and do the comprehension questions with direct interference of the teacher focusing on correcting students' errors to the given answers. However, the newly designed ERST procedure was implemented for the experimental group with the following three components:

ER and LA-based motivating training. At the beginning of the training, ER and LA-based motivating activities were given to the students for two consecutive periods in which each period lasted for 70 minutes. The teacher's role was to facilitate and manage the classroom activities. Students worked collaboratively in small groups to complete particular assignments. The focal point was on understanding the concept and application of LA and ER. In line with this, metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating were introduced to help them manage their work effectively. Concurrently, affective strategies such as motivation and positive attitudes toward ER and LA were promoted.

ER-based strategies training. After the two-consecutive periods of ER and LA-based motivating training, the subjects were trained on ER-based strategies for two periods. The lesson focused on the combination of topic-based and strategies-based lessons. The emphasis is on practicing reading skills such as activating background knowledge, predicting, guessing word meanings, finding main ideas, using references, etc. Moreover, cognitive reading strategies such as resourcing, deduction, imagery, keywords method, transfer, inference, translation, summarizing, etc. were integrated to promote reader autonomy. These activities helped learners to get aware of different strategies they can use during ER to get general ideas of the reading materials and identify the strategies that help them to enhance their comprehension skills and learning.

Sustained silent reading-based training. For a number of crucial causes, the SSR exercises were used as a kind of treatment. The SSR exercises, in the first place, might allow for more direct and intimate communication between the text and the individual students. Second, it is a learner-centered activity that concentrates on the particular needs and skills of the students. Third, Day and Bamford's (1998) also suggested that reading should be private and silent. And finally, in big mixed-ability classrooms, SSR is the only practical approach to personalized reading (Channuan, 2012).

As per the procedures of SSR in the treatment adapted by Yenenesh et al. (2023), three periods were devoted to SSR activities in the classroom. Each student brought whatever books they had started reading outdoors but kept reading during the training session. The teacher adopted the role of a reading role model and read along with the pupils. Each period included 30 minutes of sustained silent reading, with the remaining 40 minutes being used for class discussions on the topics that students read aloud in class and outside of class, as well as reading strategies, teacher consultation, and book borrowing and return. Students were urged to read outside of class as much as they could so that they would have something to write about in their reading notebooks and something to present, negotiate, talk about, and share with their peers.

The programme was implemented for eight weeks, lasting three sessions per week for the main course and an additional 70 minutes per week of training sessions for both the control and experimental groups. The experiment was held from December 1, 2022, to January 30, 2023. Finally, the post-questionnaire was filled out by the two groups to see if there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Finally, the results were analysed and computed through a one-way ANCOVA to see if a significant difference existed between the groups in terms of the ALSs they used.

Following the treatment, the teacher trainer was also interviewed. The interview took place for about 30 minutes. Since the teacher trainer had no trouble using the language, it was conducted in English, the target language. Finally, the responses were recorded, transcribed, coded, and thematically analysed.

IV. RESULTS

The current study was conducted to test if there is a statistically significant difference between the ALSs used by the experimental group and the control group due to the intervention. The results of the pre-questionnaire, post-questionnaire and teacher trainer interview are provided in this section.

The results from pre- and post-questionnaire show the acceptable values of skewness and kutosis since they range between -2 and +2 (George & Mallery, 2010). In addition to skewness, kurtosis, and a Shapir-Wilk's normality test $p > .05$ (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965; Razali & Wah, 2011). The questionnaire was normally distributed for both the experimental and control groups, according to their histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots. There were no outliers that could have distracted the study's findings.

The normality test was also conducted and evaluated the interaction between the covariate and the independent variable in the prediction of the dependent variable. The result in Table 1 suggests that the interaction was not significant since $F (1, 57) = .005$, $p = .946$, and $p (.946) > (.05)$.

TABLE 1
HOMOGENEITY OF REGRESSION TEST FOR ALS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group * pre-questionnaire	.001	1	.001	.005	.946
Error	7.463	57	.131		
Total	828.335	61			

As shown in Table 2, the assumption underlying homogeneity of variance for one-way ANCOVA was also achieved by $F (1, 59) = .45$, $p = .50$, and $p (.50) > (.05)$.

TABLE 2
LEVENE'S TEST FOR ALS' QUESTIONNAIRE

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.45	1	59	.50

The number of students who participated in the experimental group (30 students) and control group (31 students) is shown in Table 3. In this result, it is also clear that there were no missing cases and that there were variations in the means and standard deviations between the experimental group (M = 3.88, SD =.38) and the control group (M = 3.45, SD =.35).

Additionally, the table reveals the rise of the control group's mean ($M = 3.45$) to the experimental group's mean ($M = 3.88$). This means the experimental group performed better than the control group, as the mean score is greater. Thus, it could be suggested that ERbST had an added influence on experimental group students' performance.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ALSS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Control Group	3.45	.35	31
Experimental Group	3.88	.38	30
Total	3.66	.42	61

To provide a plausible answer to the current research question, the post-intervention questionnaire scores of the two groups were tested by one-way ANCOVA. Table 4 shows the performance in terms of the ALSs scores of the groups differed significantly ($p = .002 < .05$) whilst adjusting for the pre-intervention questionnaire. ERST has a significant effect $F (1, 58) = 10.68$, $p = .002$) on the ALSs used by the students. This result indicates the experimental group's score was found to be significantly higher than the control group. The analysis also shows that the study's hypothesis is accepted because the p-value is less than.05 and the ERST had a positive effect on the participants' ALSs scores on the post-test. This supports the idea that exposing students to ERST procedures has a positive impact on the ALSs they utilise.

On the basis of ETA squared at 0.16 values, Table 4 also shows the ERST effect size on the post-intervention questionnaire's mean scores. According to this result, the effect size of the ERST treatment on post-intervention questionnaire scores within eight weeks was high (Cohen, 1988). This number was also used to express the independent variable's (16%) contribution to the variation in the dependent variable. It indicates the significant increase in ALSs used by the students due to ERST with high effect (16%).

TABLE 4
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS FOR ALSS QUESTIONNAIRE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pre-questionnaire	.29	1	.29	2.25	.139	.04
Group	1.37	1	1.37	10.68	.002	.16
Error	7.46	58	.13			
Total	828.34	61				

The findings presented in Table 5 below shows the mean difference (-.347) between the experimental and control groups. The difference in the learners' ALSs usage was significant among the two groups ($p < .05$). It can be concluded that the experimental group has made greater improvements due to the treatment (ERST).

TABLE 5
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS OF MEASURE FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON ALSS QUESTIONNAIRE

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control Group	Experimental Group	-.347[*]	.106	.002	-.560	-.135
Experimental Group	Control Group	.347[*]	.106	.002	.135	.560

Concerning the interview conducted on the ALSs used by the participants, regarding cognitive strategies the teacher trainer commented,

> *Well, at the beginning of the treatment, the students even didn't know the kinds and the names of ALSs. For instance, they simply brought their background knowledge to the text ... it is better to say... what they remember... habitually. When they see the topic or title of texts, they were directly going to read; most students didn't give attention to the topic of reading materials and directly started to read the material since they didn't know activating their background knowledge; since their target was doing reading activities rather than reading for understanding, they simply search for answers instead of jotting down some ideas which may widen their knowledge of the language they are learning to integrate reading with other skills such as writing.*
>
> *I also observed them when they struggled to understand the meaning of each new word and searched for its meaning from the dictionary while reading. When I asked them why they didn't guess from the contexts, most of the students answered that since English is a foreign language, sometimes it is difficult to understand the context by itself as a whole. They didn't even try to summarize what they have read; they didn't even want to remember what they have read unless they were asked to do so. They were not responsible for their learning.*
>
> *Generally, these students didn't know which strategies they had to use to read extensively and understand the reading materials easily. However, after they started ERST and identified the ALSs and their uses, everything changed and showed improvement. They began to use different strategies during their practice, and I checked these from their reading journals in which they recorded and presented their day-to-day reports* (Date: January 30, 2022).

About the metacognitive and affective strategies, the teacher trainer said,

> *The students also didn't have full awareness and adequate experience in the roles of planning, monitoring, and evaluating their activities. As I understood from what they said and did, according to them, these are the principals' and teachers' parts to do. So, I started giving those chances to plan, monitor, evaluate and show or present what they did. And from these, I observed that these students struggle to stand by themselves. Since I have done my best to encourage them through appreciation and continuous practices, they became responsible and confident students. I understood this when they became eager to show me the progress of their work in their reading journal.*
>
> *However, it must be pointed out that all students do not have the same ability on using ALSs they have practiced. Some of them were seen when they used these strategies more than expected while others even could not apply them as much as needed. For this reason, more is expected from teachers to identify students' achievements and assist them when necessary* (Date: January 30, 2022).

V. DISCUSSION

The current study mainly hypothesized the statistically significant difference between the ALSs used by the experimental and the control groups due to the treatment. After analyzing the data obtained from the students' ALSs questionnaire and teacher trainer's interview and comparing the outcomes of the control and experimental groups, the current researcher found that the experimental group outperformed the control group. Thus, the findings confirmed the hypothesis as the result of the study pointed to the positive effects of ERST on the experimental group usage of ALSs.

According to the findings, the experimental group progressively used varying degrees of ALSs while participating in ERST than the control group. This finding indicates that the experimental group benefited greatly in improving ALSs they used as a result of ERST. Thus, the finding of the current study is consistent with the study conducted by Burrows (2012) in which the ER/reading strategies group students who explicitly instructed on the reading strategies and also engaged in ER practice attained higher gains from time one to time three on the reading strategy test than those in

merely an intensive reading group. In his study, Wang and Han (2020) also assured that developing learners' autonomous learning strategies usage could have been accomplished through learning strategy training. Depending on their finding, Wang and Han (2020) suggested that mastering and using effective learning strategies is one significant and dominant component in cultivating this ability. In addition, this outcome is consistent with Nutalak's (2019) findings, which further knowledge of ER and lend credence to the idea that initiated educators to include ER in instructional activities to enhance students' reading proficiency and self-directed learning abilities.

Generally, the current study reveals evidence for learners' readiness to be responsible for their learning by supervising the pace, deciding the direction, evaluating the outcome, and reflecting on their learning. Therefore, those who are likely to succeed in learning a foreign or second language in general and the English language, in particular, can become familiar with ALSs via ER and use them more effectively.

VI. Conclusion

The results of this study lay a path between ERST and ALSs and establish a solid basis to integrate ER within the EFL/SL university teaching and learning context. The extensive reading strategy training proposed in the current study can be easily incorporated into FL/L2 instructional settings at the university level. The ERST program can assist students in becoming more independent learners. It goes well beyond simply encouraging the use of one's strategies of learning. It also gives students chances to gain experiences in language learning strategies usage through ER, which will improve their academic success.

Regarding the pedagogical ramifications, this study shows that teachers can effectively integrate the ERST program in EFL/SL university classrooms in a way that fosters independent learners who can use their strategies to overcome their learning issues. Therefore, one implication of this study is that by taking into account learner characteristics, the intervention for EFL/SL classes may suit the requirements and preferences of specific students.

VII. Implications for Future Studies

This study paves the way and leaves the ground for future research to refine its findings. First, the time allotted for this study was generally ten weeks which is short and might delimit the effect of the intervention as ER is an activity that needs a long time to cover numerous reading materials. Transferring these results to learners' long-term gains in performance might be questioned. In this light, future work would benefit from replicating the research for a longer time and seeing the effects. Second, since the sample participants were only social science students, it might delimit the scope of this study. Therefore, future works would benefit from advancing the area to the other fields of study in university. In addition, due to the small group sizes, statistical analyses may not be as accurate as they could be. Future attempts may use larger samples and more thorough qualitative analysis. The role of ERST and its impact on different language skills need to be further explored and reexamined in future expanded and methodologically rigorous investigations.

Acknowledgments

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